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18, 36, 57, 76, 92, 110, 131, 150, 169, 186, 204, 223, 245, 265, 284, 302, 321, 342, 360, 379, 398, 416, 435, 456, 477, 496, 514.

ERRATA.

Page 8, in the letter on the Corinth Canal *passim*. For "Kalamoki" read "Kalamaki."

Page 116, col. iii., first paragraph in the obituary of Mr. Lowell. See the correction on p. 141. Page 117, col. iii. lines 22, 21, from bottom. The date of publication of 'The Vision of Sir Launfal' should be 1848, of 'Conversations on some of the Old Poets,' 1845.

Page 196, col. iii., line 28. For "September" read "August."

Page 200, col. iii., line 7. For "Celtic" read "Welsh." Line 8, For "Alinkvest" read "Almkvest."

Page 207, col. iii., line 28 from bottom. For "Franco-Austrian" read "Franco-Russian."

Page 210, col. i., line 34. For "5 per cent." read "5 per cent."

Page 334, col. iii., lines 12 and 59. For "Edmund" read "Edward." Line 14, for "September 4" read "August 28."

Page 357, col. i., line 29. For "wished-for" read "wished."

Page 425, col. iii., line 27 from bottom. For "Ulster" read "Elster."

Page 431, col. ii., line 15 from bottom. For "1893" read "1794."

Page 443, col. iii., line 24. For "Schmolka" read "Smolka."

Page 485, col. iii., last line, and 486, col. i., lines 22, 47, for "Van Angeli" read "Von Angeli."

Page 494, col. i., line 16. For "Leichtenberg" read "Lichtenberg."

The Nation

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THE JULY NUMBER

OF THE

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Alphabetized, first by States; second, by Towns.

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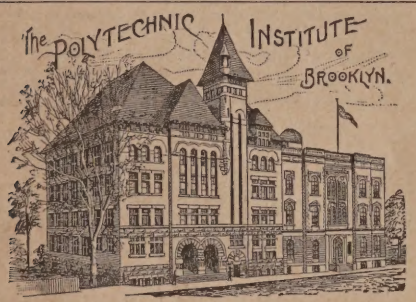

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 2, 1891.

The Week.

BARDSLEY, the embezzling City Treasurer of Philadelphia, made his promised confession on Wednesday week, but it threw little light on the Keystone Bank mystery. In fact, it was not a confession at all, but an attempt at justification, and ended in a curious appeal for public sympathy on the ground that, after twenty-five years of public service, he found himself penniless and disgraced and his family thrown destitute upon the charities of the world. He was overcome with emotion as he made this appeal, seeming to forget that he had shown only a few minutes before, by the elaborate account of his conduct in office, that for many years he had been deliberately and continuously violating his public trust, using the public money for his personal gain, speculating with it as if it were his own, and ending his career by confessing that he had embezzled vast sums of public money, standing at the bar a defaulter awaiting sentence of imprisonment. The important part of his testimony is that in which he seems to prove that the $925,000 of State funds represented by due bills which he said he had deposited in the Keystone Bank, but of which there are no entries on the books of the bank, were actually put by him into the bank or into the hands of its President. What became of the money after it was put into the hands of the President remains to be shown. In other words, the mystery of what became of the vast sums of city and State money, something over $2,000,000, which went into the Keystone Bank while Lucas and Marsh were its presidents, is as far from solution as ever.

Monday's revelations concerning Mr. Wanamaker's Keystone stock were the most serious for him that have yet been made. Howard Spencer Jones, Mr. Wanamaker's secretary, in whose name two certificates for 425 shares of fraudulent Keystone stock were issued, the first handed by Lucas to Wanamaker for use in raising funds for their joint Reading speculation, testified that he had been asked by Mr. Wanamaker to sign transfers of the stock, but that he did not know that the stock had been issued in his name. He testified also that W. Rankin, whose name appears on five of the certificates for 1,000 shares of genuine stock issued to John Wanamaker, was an office-boy in Wanamaker's employ. Two bank presidents testified that they had made loans on some of the Keystone stock which had been issued to Wanamaker, thus showing that they regarded him as a stockholder. One of them said he had made three temporary loans of $40,000 to Marsh, the fugitive President of the Keystone Bank, to help the bank over night, on collaterals furnished by Marsh, who said the money was for Mr. Wanamaker, and that he had subsequently made loans direct to Mr. Wanamaker on the same collaterals. It also appeared, from the testimony of one of the presidents, that H. H. Yard, who is under two indictments for conspiracy with Bardsley for unlawful use of the public funds, had one of the Wanamaker certificates of Keystone stock at one time and used it as collateral upon which to raise money.

The position in which the investigation of the Keystone Bank affairs is placing the Administration is a very embarrassing one, and doubtless the President perceives it clearly. Even if the Postmaster-General has not been convicted of a guilty knowledge of the condition of the bank before its failure, enough has been proved against him to make it certain that the new House of Representatives will enter on an inquiry into the nature of his connection with the bank, with all the joy which the hunter feels on a fine morning at learning that the game is afoot. For this display of unseemly curiosity some preparation must be made, and what should it be? What can it be that does not involve some sort of annoyance or inconvenience for good Mr. Wanamaker? To part with him would doubtless be hard, but it would be one of the sorrows which Gen. Harrison must have foreseen as possible when he gave a place in the Cabinet to an obscure storekeeper, unknown in politics, as a reward for raising campaign money for Mr. Quay. The presumptions have all run against Wanamaker's honesty from the day it was known that he had been Quay's right-hand man in collecting election funds. For, that Wanamaker knew what kind of man Quay was, and knew what those Quay "secrets" were before which Republicans were "to stand dumb," is just as certain as that Wanamaker is a member of the Cabinet. Quay sold him his seat in the Cabinet with the President's sanction and connivance, and it is strictly in accordance with the moral order of the world that such a transaction should eventually bring disgrace on all concerned. Wanamaker has tried to break the force of the presumption against him by maintaining a Sunday-school, but the public is too familiar now with these *refugia peccatorum* to make such devices of any use.

When Bardsley resigned the office of City Treasurer of Philadelphia, the local officers were quick to assert their right to fill the place with a man of their choice. But Gov. Pattison held that the right to make the appointment lay with him, and he named a successor to Bardsley, and the courts sustained the appointment. As a matter of course, the Treasurer chosen by the Governor was selected for his fitness to bring order out of the existing chaos, to uncover his predecessor's thefts, and to manage the city's finances with an eye solely to the public interest. Now the thing which might have been anticipated has happened. We learn from the Philadelphia *Press* that Treasurer Wright has mortally offended the local Democratic "bosses" by selecting his assistants without consulting them. He has made his selections from the ranks of ex-Custom-house clerks and heads of bureaus who lost their places when a new Collector went into office. It is even asserted that one of the most important places under Treasurer Wright is filled by a man who is a resident of New Jersey, and whose only qualification is the good reputation he made in the Custom-house during President Cleveland's Administration. For all, this the taxpayers of Philadelphia have reason to be profoundly thankful. Although that city is Republican, it contains, of course, a good many Democrats, and, equally of course, Democratic "bosses." What kind of men these "bosses" are was demonstrated at last fall's election. Quay depended largely on them to elect his candidate for Governor, and, so well did they carry out their bargain with him, that large blocks of Democratic votes were cast for Delamater in Philadelphia, and on this account it was believed in that city early in the evening of election day, before the country returns began to come in, that Quay had secured his vindication. If the city treasury, at this juncture, had been placed at the disposal of these treacherous politicians, Quay would have had his say in the matter as absolutely as if he had named the Treasurer himself. The value of these "bosses'" friendship was so well tested last November that the Governor can now afford to laugh at their displeasure.

The peaceful and quiet way the Bering Sea quarrel is hastening to a conclusion is very creditable to both nations. With Mr. Fish, or Mr. Frelinghuysen, or Mr. Bayard, or Mr. Evarts in the State Department, this conclusion would undoubtedly have been reached two years ago, and we should have been saved much humiliation. Mr. Blaine's rumpus in this matter has had to be dropped by President Harrison, just as his Nicaraguan rumpus and his Peruvian rumpus had to be dropped by President Arthur. The "bonos mores," and the 100-mile limit, and the Russian rights, and the ocean game laws, have all been stowed away in our diplomatic garret, to be smiled over by future generations. How it was that President Harrison did not feel called on to interfere sooner, it is difficult to see. The common sense which has put an end to the rumpus now surely had a lodgment in the Presidential brain two years ago. We trust he will now apply some of it to the Chilian business. It will never do to let "Pat" Egan commit us to the support or countenance of the worst attack on republican government

yet made on this continent. We can, by a very little display of sympathy, hasten the restoration of the normal working of constitutional government in that country. Balmaceda's "Congress" has just authorized him to make a determined onslaught on private property, by levying $12,000,000 on such rich men as he can get hold of within his jurisdiction, which looks as if he were getting near the end of his tether.

The threatened chaos in Connecticut, owing to the failure of the discordant Legislature to vote the supplies, seems to have been avoided in a way which has some novel, not to say serious, bearings on the subject of constitutional government. When the crisis was seen approaching some weeks ago, Comptroller Staub asked the legal opinion of Mr. William Hamersley of Hartford, a prominent lawyer of the State, who has acted as Democratic counsel through the legislative broil. That opinion has just been given *in extenso*, with the concurrence of ex-Judge Loomis, a Republican who lately retired, under the limitation of age, from the bench of the State Supreme Court. Both gentlemen, after laying much stress on the exceptional gravity of the situation, hold that the specific appropriation acts, while exceedingly strong in language and prohibitory in form, nevertheless do not apply if the regular appropriations have not been voted; and that consequently the State reverts to the condition of affairs under what are known locally as the "general" appropriation acts before the specific acts were passed in 1884. The two authorities agree that "the subject is full of difficulties, and perhaps no conclusion can be reached which may fairly be said to be free from doubt," but conclude, on the whole, that the Comptroller can go ahead paying what he considers "necessary" State expenses, as to which, however, they admit "it may be found difficult in practice to draw the line." This opinion, which the Comptroller will undoubtedly accept, keeps the State gear in running order, saves the Senate from passing supply bills to be sent to the "usurper" Bulkeley, and, incidentally, solves the problem which has met the same "usurper" of finding funds to run the State with. But in what a strange constitutional plight does it put a New England commonwealth.

The Iowa campaign this year, which was opened by the Democratic Convention last week, will be watched with interest throughout the country. For the first time since the origin of the Republican party, the Democrats enter the canvass in possession of the Governorship, and the whole party is enthusiastic in the renomination of the incumbent. For the first time, too, they take the aggressive in opening the canvass before the Republicans, and their Convention was by far the largest and most spirited they have ever held. Iowa has always been a Republican State in national elections, but the majority in Presidential years has been steadily falling off. On State issues the Democrats have been gaining ground ever since the question of prohibition came to the front, and two years ago they elected their candidate for Governor on that issue. This year they push it again to the front, declaring for the repeal of the prohibitory law and the substitution of "a carefully guarded license-tax law," with a minimum impost of $500, which may be increased by the municipality. As the coming election is for the choice of a Governor, other State officers, and a Legislature, and as the liquor question is the chief issue in State affairs, it ought to control the result. If such proves to be the case, the Democrats will carry the State, for there can be no doubt that a majority of the voters are opposed to the continuance of the prohibition policy. It was carried by less than 30,000 majority nine years ago, and has been losing strength ever since.

One feature of the mortgage business in such States as Kansas is not generally understood in the East. This is the fact that many mortgages have been contracted by men who only "squatted" upon the land long enough to get a loan, and then left to repeat the same process elsewhere. The Topeka *Capital* goes so far as to "venture the statement that there have not been 500 foreclosures against industrious farmers in Kansas in the last three years." The other day a number of foreclosures occurred in Cowley County, and it was shown that in not a single case was a farmer actually evicted thereby. Men had borrowed with the deliberate intention of abandoning the land. Of the sixty-eight farm mortgages released of record in Labette County in May last, the Register of Deeds states that not one was released by reason of foreclosure. There were forty-one foreclosures in Cloud County from January 1 to June 18, and these foreclosures, with scarcely an exception, and with actually no exception, the *Capital* believes, in the case of farms, were on farms and lots abandoned by the borrowers, who, having obtained all the land was worth, made no effort to pay the mortgages. In western Kansas the *Capital* declares that "in 99 per cent. of the foreclosures the land was abandoned directly after the loan was made, the borrower sought pastures new, and the loaner 'held the bag.'" The Topeka newspaper thinks that "great injury has been inflicted upon Kansas by such financiering, in which 'Wall Street' has been taken in by adventurers"; and, in view of such facts, it very properly holds that "the less said by the calamity organs about plutocrats who evict the downtrodden farmers of Kansas from their homes, the better for the State."

The city of Atlanta, Ga., has had an interesting experience with the liquor question. For some time there were lively contests over the question of prohibiting the traffic by law. Finally the majority of the people decided in favor of license, but under certain restrictions. No saloon can be maintained or opened on a residence-street, or in any locality outside the business portion of the city, which confines them to a narrow space in the centre of town, where they are under the strict surveillance of the police, thus minimizing all the possibilities of drunkenness and disorder. The saloons are open to public view, with no blinds, screens, or curtains. They pay a high license. They are compelled to close at ten o'clock at night. An attempt has recently been made to break over the rule as to residence sections by allowing beer saloons outside of the business limits, but the Mayor vetoed the proposition and the City Council, which had hastily endorsed it, has by a decided majority sustained him. The *Constitution* hopes that this will settle the matter for a long time to come.

There seems no longer any doubt that St. Paul and Minneapolis are to be practically united at no distant day. The street-railway systems of the two cities are in process of consolidation, and the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* declares that this "very clearly foreshadows the practical union of the two cities, the blending of their people together in a common business and social life." The St. Paul journal says truly that there never was any basis for ill feeling between the two cities except the accident of their physical separation, and consequently their physical conjunction will necessarily be their social and business union. Whether they are united under one city government or not it considers of little consequence, though it would seem inevitable. The rivalry between St. Paul and Minneapolis, humorous as its manifestations often were, has been growing rather tiresome and discreditable of late years, and the whole country will be glad to see them living harmoniously together as the metropolis of Minnesota.

The acquittal of the Directors of the New Haven Railroad on the indictment found some time ago, for allowing the cars to be heated by stoves, was doubtless what every one expected. To fix personal responsibility on them, in such a way as to convince a jury that they were morally, as well as legally, guilty of a misdemeanor, was a hopeless enterprise from the beginning. The result is, of course, a defeat for the District Attorney which has some mortification in it. But before censuring him for the attempt, it would be as well to ask what would have been said if he had not tried to put the law in motion. There is hardly a doubt that three-fourths of the press would have insinuated or alleged that there was no law for millionaires, and that this was a fair illustration of the way in which the public prosecutor crouched before capital. The trial has, however, brought out some defects in the law which should be remedied next winter. The statute should designate some officer or officers of a railroad as personally responsible for a failure of the corporation to obey the law. This would make him or

them keep a pretty sharp eye on the statute-book, but it must be admitted that there might be plenty of abuse in it. There is or was a statute of North Carolina which provided for the imprisonment without bail of the president of a railroad whenever a cow was killed on the track.

The erection of a statue to Henry Ward Beecher in Brooklyn is one of the fittest things the Brooklyn people have ever done. He was the greatest man the city has produced. It was from Brooklyn that his fame spread over the whole country, and in truth it was largely through his fame that Brooklyn became first known to the civilized world. He was, too, by far the most prominent orator of the civil war. No man's tongue did so much to support the operations of the army in the field, and no oratory of that struggle will probably live so long in men's memories. Even his clerical career was largely public property. His sermons were addressed to the whole nation rather than to his own congregation, and they were the first widely and eagerly read sermons issuing from a nominally orthodox pulpit which had little or no theology in them. What his creed was has, we believe, never been distinctly discovered, nor was any denomination ever able to make out a clear title to him. In short, no more remarkable figure has made his appearance in American religion or politics within the present century. The troubles which clouded the latter years of his life—and for which, in any view of the result, he must be held largely responsible—grew out of his qualities. He had the oratorical temperament in a degree rarely seen, and the oratorical temperament is never remarkable for judgment, or discretion, or moderation. But, unfortunate as these troubles were for his name, no community which had witnessed and profited by the lifelong labors and triumphs of such a man could let them cloud the memory of his best days, for these days were long and carried him very nearly to the end of his career.

Amherst College is just completing the thirtieth year of physical culture under the charge of Dr. Edward Hitchcock, who instituted the system of regular exercise as a part of the curriculum in 1861. The classes have thirty minutes' drill in marching and the use of dumb-bells four days in the week, and interest is stimulated not only by an accompaniment of lively music, but also by an annual prize to the class doing the best work, which was won this year by the Juniors. Careful records have been kept from the first, and they show that the regular exercise produces a perceptible improvement in health during the college course, the percentage of sickness among the Seniors during the last twenty-five years having been almost one-fourth less than among the Freshmen. Another interesting thing brought out by these statistics is the fact that students as a class are more vigorous young men now than a quarter of a century ago. From 1861 to 1865 each student lost an average of 2.18 days during the college year on account of sickness, while from 1885 to 1889 the average was only 1.75 days—one-fifth less.

An interesting study has been made at Amherst of the effects of smoking upon the members of the graduating class. In this class 71 per cent. have increased in their physical measurements and tests during the four years, while 29 per cent. have remained stationary or fallen off. Separating the smokers from the non-smokers, it appears that those who do not use tobacco have gained 24 per cent. in weight more than the smokers, 37 per cent. more in height, and 42 per cent. more in chest-girth, while in lung capacity there is a difference of 8.36 cubic inches in favor of the non-smokers. These figures show the same tendency as those compiled by Dr. J. W. Seaver, the instructor in athletics at Yale, who found that the non-users of tobacco among the Seniors show a gain over the users of 20 per cent. in height, 25 per cent. in weight, and 66 per cent. in lung capacity. Dr. Seaver has kept statistics of this sort for eight years, and finds that they show an equally decided advantage for the non-smokers during the whole period. He notes the interesting fact that not only do all the candidates for the crews abstain from tobacco, but that only one man smokes among all the prominent athletes in the different fields of activity. This is a highly significant, though seldom considered, tendency of the passion for college athletics.

Parnell's reported expectation that his marriage with Mrs. O'Shea will qualify him to resume his leadership of the Irish party without opposition, is, if he really entertains it, another sign of his want of mental balance. If his relations with Mrs. O'Shea had been the only cause for his deposition, his marriage might possibly have enabled him to resume his old place; but, unfortunately for him, during the late row he produced an entirely new plan of action for the Irish party, in which all alliance with the English Liberals was repudiated, and home rule was to be won simply by denouncing the English connection in strong language. The number of the Irish politicians who would enter heartily into a movement of this sort must now be very small, even if it were started by a leader of unstained repute. But even if the whole party accepted it, it would soon cease to produce much effect or even excite much attention. Interest in Irish affairs has greatly declined in England, and although the Liberals hold on to home rule as part of their platform, if Mr. Gladstone were to disappear before the next election it would probably not occupy a very prominent place in the contest. Nor, if they won, would Mr. Gladstone's successor be very eager to draft a home-rule bill and face the responsibility of carrying it through Parliament. In fact, there is nothing which the Irish party needs so much from Mr. Parnell just now as "silence, and very little of that," as the Irish policeman remarked. His power as a leader is gone, and if he lags on the stage, it must be as a mere agitator.

Servia, having temporarily solved her internal difficulties by the expulsion of ex-Queen Natalie, is now engaging the attention of European diplomacy by a Utopian attempt at establishing a Balkan confederation. M. Tricoupis, the former Greek Premier and present leader of the Opposition party, who recently visited Belgrade and was most cordially received by the Regents, has declared that the time has come for Greece and Servia to make common cause in Macedonia as against Bulgaria; Gen. Ignatieff has followed M. Tricoupis in his pilgrimage to Belgrade, and Prince Nicholas of Montenegro will also be in the Servian capital before long. Of these three visits, that of Ignatieff alone has a well-defined object. His imperial master is incensed at Bulgaria, whose ruler, Ferdinand of Coburg, relying on Austria's approval, dares to defy Russia, and he also looks with disfavor on Rumania, whose king is amenable to German influences. Hence Ignatieff's departure for Belgrade in his old rôle as chief apostle of Panslavism—as understood in St. Petersburg and Moscow—that is to say, of the spread of Russian power by whatever means. He pursues to-day, as President of the Slavic Charity Committee, the same policy which nearly twenty-five years ago procured for him, while Russian Ambassador at Constantinople, the sobriquet of "Menteur Pasha." This time he is to unite Servia, Montenegro, and Greece in a Balkan Confederation against Bulgaria and Rumania, and he finds a convenient support in the restless ambition of Tricoupis. As for Nicholas of Montenegro, he has had his eye on the throne of Servia ever since he married his daughter to the Pretender Kara-Georgevitch, and although his daughter is dead, his interest in the Servian succession survives, and he is said to be more than willing to reserve his second daughter for the youthful King Alexander.

While Servians and Montenegrins may join hands, at the behest of Russia, in opposing Bulgaria, they will meet with scant sympathy on the part of their fellow-Slavs. The Bosnians are content with the rule of Austria after the yoke of Turkey, and Croats and Slavonians, Slovacks, Ruthenians, and Rascians have learned to bear with Magyar chauvinism. Of all the Slavic populations of Austria which, sixty years ago, listened with patriotic fervor to the voice of Kollar, who so eloquently advocated the literary and political union of all Slavs, only a portion of the Czechs still look to Russia as the legitimate representative of the national cause. The Poles of Galicia are to-day the principal allies of the Liberal Germans in their struggle with Czech insolence, and the Poles of Russia, some of whose leaders after 1830 were willing to forget Russian barbarities and to join in the general cry for Slavic union, have all outlived their magnanimity and their Panslavist dreams.

MR. WANAMAKER'S KEYSTONE STOCK.

In the carefully prepared statement which he read before the Investigating Committee on June 8, Mr. Wanamaker said concerning his Keystone Bank stock:

"I have been a depositor only; never was an incorporator, officer, or director. I never owned a share of the stock. I held until recently twenty-five hundred and sixteen (2,516) shares as collateral, as hereinafter stated."

"Upon several occasions when I notified Mr. Lucas that under our agreement [for a joint speculation in Reading stock] money was needed, he brought me stock of the Keystone Bank, which he requested me to use in lieu of the money, as it was not convenient for him to furnish cash at the time. As a result, when he died I had in my possession 2,516 shares of the Keystone Bank, so received by me from him."

"I held this bank-stock subject to an adjustment of the account, and Mr. Marsh and Mrs. Lucas called on me in relation to it, but no settlement was made, though the former was very urgent. No intimation was ever given that the stock was irregularly issued until Mr. Marsh, shortly after the run on the bank in December last, called it in question and desired to have the stock returned to the bank. This I declined to do, first, because I had not obtained it from the bank, but from John C. Lucas individually as his private property; secondly, because I did not believe the stock in my possession was overissued, and no proofs were ever offered that such was the case; and thirdly, because I was by no means certain that if the stock was overissued, as alleged, my title against the bank would be in any way affected."

On his cross-examination, Mr. Wanamaker was asked when he received this stock from Lucas, and replied: "I received it from Lucas a long time previous to his death, at different times. Perhaps he would bring me 200 shares. He would say when I wanted to buy a thousand shares of stock, he would bring it. *I kept it in my pocket-book.*" And again, when asked if he was ever a stockholder: "Never. I had no business to have this stock had Mr. Lucas kept his agreement. He should have given me money, but he did not."

The Receiver of the Keystone Bank, Mr. Yard, took the witness-stand on June 24, and gave the story which the books of the bank tell about Mr. Wanamaker's connection with its stock. It is in conflict in many important respects with that of Mr. Wanamaker cited above. In the first place, the books show that he had held, in addition to the 2,516 shares of fraudulent stock handed to him by Lucas as collateral, certificates for 2,625 shares which had been issued to him directly. All the latter certificates were anterior to the Reading speculation of 1887, their dates running from March 3, 1886, to May 31, 1887.

In the second place, it appears from the books that only one of the 17 certificates for the 2,516 shares of fraudulent stock was issued to Lucas. This was dated January 19, 1882, more than five years anterior to the Reading speculation, and was for 200 shares of stock. The next one was also for 200 shares, was dated July 5, 1887, about the time of the speculation, but was not issued to Lucas, but to Howard Spencer Jones. Another one on the same date for 225 was also issued to Jones. Then on July 6 came two certificates, one for 241 shares and another for 200 shares, issued to Edward Irwin. Howard Spencer Jones was Mr. Wanamaker's secretary, and Edward Irwin, we are informed, was an assistant in and afterwards the head of Mr. Wanamaker's credit department. How did it happen, if this was Lucas's stock, and he was giving it to Wanamaker as collateral for a loan to be used in a joint private speculation, that it was not issued in Lucas's name?

In the third place, only the certificates enumerated above as having been issued to Lucas, Jones, and Irwin, for an aggregate of 1,066 out of the total of 2,516 fraudulent shares, bear dates anterior to Lucas's death on August 18, 1888. Wanamaker said on his cross-examination, as quoted by us above, that he received the stock a "long time previous" to Lucas's death, yet the books show that between June 29, 1889, and December 3, 1890, no less than twelve certificates, for an aggregate of 1,150 shares, were issued to persons more or less intimately connected with Wanamaker in a business way, either as clerks in his own employ or that of his brokers. Some of these clerks, when put on the stand, profess almost entire ignorance of the transaction.

In the fourth place, it is shown by the testimony of his brokers that instead of keeping this stock in his pocket-book, as he said he did, Wanamaker handed it to his brokers to be used as collateral with which to raise money, and that it was used continuously for this purpose from the dates of its issue till about the last of February, 1891, or shortly before the failure of the bank. In February, Wanamaker began to gather it in, and sought to use it to obtain $100,000 or more from Mrs. Lucas on his claim against Lucas's estate.

In the fifth place, it is shown by the testimony of Wanamaker's brokers that he did, in one instance at least, sign a power of attorney on a certificate for 625 shares of the 2,625 of the regular issue which he held prior to the Reading speculation, thus giving evidence that he was a stockholder of record and could transfer the stock. Yet he declared solemnly in his written statement, "I have been a depositor only. I never owned a share of the stock."

In a statement which he has since given out for publication in Washington, Mr. Wanamaker declares again that he "never owned a share of Keystone stock by purchase or gift"; that if the books of the bank were properly kept, they will show that he was never recorded as a stockholder, but that "it is possible if a bank could over-issue stock, it could do queer things in bookkeeping"; that in his testimony before the Committee he confined himself to the stock held by him in the Reading operation, which was the only stock he had interest in, and then only as collateral, and that the facts remain as he stated them. This does not cover all the points raised by the Receiver's revelations, or, in fact, meet the most serious of them at all, as will be apparent to any one who reads the full text of the Receiver's testimony.

There is nothing for Mr. Wanamaker to do but to take the stand and offer himself for fresh examination. He has admitted that when he denied that he had sought to delay the appointment of a receiver of the bank, he forgot that he had sent two telegrams to the Comptroller advising delay, and he seems to have forgotten entirely, when he prepared his written statement for the Committee, that he had once been the holder of 2,625 shares of Keystone stock which he had used precisely as a stockholder would have used it. He forgot, also, that he did not keep the Lucas stock in his pocket-book, but used it as collateral for raising money. His memory must now be refreshed on these points, and his testimony will be of greater interest in consequence. He ought to have a chance to explain also how it happened that there was so much subterfuge resorted to by Lucas in issuing that fraudulent stock, and how it happened that he hit upon so many of Wanamaker's business employees as suitable persons for dummies in the bogus transaction. A public moralist ought to be very careful about the strict accuracy of his statements, and to avoid even the appearance of evil in his most intimate business transactions.

"THE FUNDAMENTAL FALLACY"

The continued revelations concerning the affairs of the Keystone Bank of Philadelphia, coupled with the complete betrayal of the public by the local press of both parties, has at last impelled a large body of conscientious Republicans to print an address which appeared on Tuesday. They examine Quay's record and his "elaborate defence in the Senate," applying to it the test which dissolves it in thin air—namely, his failure to call the only witnesses competent to refute or confirm the charge, that he robbed the State Treasury, Messrs. Cameron and Wayne MacVeagh. This failure converted his vindication in the Senate into so much twaddle, to which neither his colleagues, nor the public, nor his accusers paid any attention. The address touches also on the treatment of the Ballot Reform Act by the Legislature, under Quay's direction, and finally reaches "the recent robbery of the city and State Treasury by its dishonest guardian." On this the signers say:

"Not only must the citizens of Philadelphia suffer a tarnished name, a direct loss of a million dollars or upwards, while thousands of depositors lose their earnings through the failure of banks connected with the defalcation, but those untold and untraceable losses resulting from the shaken confidence in the community must also ensue.

"There is a fundamental fallacy in the theory of politics which has for years obtained in this State, and of which Mr. Quay has been the leading exponent. It is that public offices are spoils, the lawful property of the politicians who capture them and by whom they are dispensed in turn to their underlings as the prizes of war. But the truth is that these offices are a public trust, which should be held in stewardship by the politicians for the people.

"The disaster of a looted Treasury is explained by the fact that the step from this fallacy to the startling and bold appropriation of public funds to the private uses of public offices is a long one in appearance only, not in reality. That step has now been taken."

There then follows a solemn and emphatic appeal to the public conscience of the State, which certainly loses nothing from being

made in language of studied dignity and sobriety. The document is signed by a large body of Republicans who are prominent in the business and professional world, including twenty-two clergymen, which shows that the example of courage set by the Independents in the late canvass has not been thrown away.

There is hardly an expression in it we should wish to alter except one, and that is the reference to "the fundamental fallacy" of Quay's theory of politics. That fallacy is, that "public offices are the lawful property of the politicians who capture them." It is true that "the step from this fallacy to the startling and bold appropriation of the public funds to the private uses of public offices is a long one in appearance only, not in reality." It is also true that "this step has now been taken" in Pennsylvania with a vengeance.

But the fallacy is not really the "fundamental" one, as far as that State is concerned, of the Quay theory of politics. The fundamental fallacy is that the tariff, such as it is at any given period, must be defended at any cost and against all comers. It is this fallacy which not only maintains Quay in power, but has produced Quay and all his followers. It is this which has debauched and silenced the press, and has deadened the public conscience of the State during the past twenty years. Quay and Quayism are not novelties. They have been steadily growing under the public eye for fifteen years. Quay's character and methods were as well known in 1885 to all Pennsylvania politicians and to a large body of business men in Philadelphia as they are to-day. How have they been defended and covered up both by his henchmen and by the party generally? Simply and solely by denouncing those who sought to expose them as enemies of the tariff, and representing the exposure as an attempt of "British free-traders" to ruin American industry. This has been the strong tower of defence, the *tutissimum refugium*, of the whole gang who have been concerned in the looting of the Keystone Bank and of the Treasury. This was their answer to every warning or remonstrance touching their operations, no matter from what quarter it came, and Pennsylvania politics cannot be permanently purified until there is a general recognition of its absurdity.

There is, however, another fallacy which lies lower still, to which the roots of Quayism run down, and from which it draws a large part of its sap and vitality. To mention it in Pennsylvania is, however, to discredit one's authority on all subjects as effectively as the authority of a philosopher would have been discredited in the Middle Ages by a denial of the existence of witches. But the truth must be spoken, nevertheless, even if here and there, and now and then, it produces a little nausea. This particular truth, too, is not so much an economic as a political truth. It affirms nothing as to the value of a tariff in building up industries or accumulating wealth. There is nothing in it inconsistent with the Pennsylvania industrial gospel. What it affirms is simply that you cannot, in a country of universal suffrage, have pure politics as long as prices are raised and lowered by legislation at every session of the Legislature. This system would eventually corrupt a community of angels. As long as the business man looks to Congress to provide a good market for his goods, he will inevitably invest money in the high-tariff party, just as he would invest in a mill or in a coal mine, and he will give the money to the man who, he thinks, will put it where "it will do most good." That man will always be a Quay, and nothing but a Quay. The Quay will have under him a swarm of Delamaters, Wanamakers, Bardsleys, and Marshes to do his bidding, and blow his trumpet, and defend his methods. Politics, in short, will, under such conditions, inevitably become "business" in the very lowest sense of that term. The party having won the Government by promising to enable everybody who gave money for the canvass to make a handsome profit on what they gave, the underlings who gave not money but work, will claim the salaries of the public offices as *their* reward, and they will get them. They will not listen to the "trust" doctrine from people who openly acknowledge that they themselves are in politics mainly and solely to increase their own incomes. And gradually the whole machinery of government will come to be looked on simply as the machinery of a mill is looked on, as investment of capital to be returned with interest, profit, and something for superintendence and wear and tear. Everything will be considered marketable and divisible among the stockholders—treasury funds, offices, contracts, pensions, subsidies; and the work of the Quays will be mainly the work of deciding who got in on "the ground floor" and who on upper stories.

It is from this view of the province of legislation that the first step to treasury-looting is taken. The spoils view of offices is simply the second step. The looters are always members of the new "historical school" of political economy. They all hold to the paternal theory of government, and think the State cannot do too much for all its inhabitants, and especially for those of them who keep the keys of the public safe. No high or noble view of politics can long survive the practice of annually estimating what effect your vote will have on your bank account. The great capitalist takes a little longer to succumb to it than the poor laborer whose vote he purchases, but he succumbs in the end, and hires a Quay to manage the political department of his business. The newspapers, too, speedily catch the contagion. There must be something for them in politics as well as for everybody else, and the manna reaches them most palatably in the form of "ads." For "ads" they denounce the "British free-trader"; for "ads" they certify to the honesty of all the able rogues and the truthfulness of all the useful liars, and for "ads" draw the veil of silence over the unfortunate ones who are found out. It is all "business."

If the Philadelphia reformers will look a little more deeply into the matter, they will find, we warrant, that this is a fair description of the situation. Their fallacy is not the fundamental fallacy. They have not reached the lowest depth. If they will dive down a little, they will come on what is the cancer of popular government.

THE PRECURSORS OF PEFFER.

Mr. Charles Francis Adams, soon after the Greenback craze of 1874, made in the *North American Review* a most interesting collection of opinions on currency questions uttered by various members of Congress during the debates on the Inflation Bill vetoed by President Grant. Put together in this way in brief compass, they made a comic article of extraordinary drollery, not very unlike the schoolboy answers to questions on various topics which Mark Twain published a few years ago. Nothing could surpass their amusing absurdity.

The greenback movement was virtually killed by the veto, and its oddities passed out of the public mind. But the silver movement which arose in 1876, on the discovery that silver had become cheaper than gold, and that it might be advantageous to pay outstanding debts in it if it could be made a legal tender, speedily proved fully as rich a contribution to the gayety of nations. The assertion that silver had been secretly demonetized in 1873, by a conspiracy of the gold-bugs, which was seriously put forward, even by Mr. Kelley, the Chairman of the Committee which had reported and supported the demonetization bill, was in itself a joke of huge proportions. The bill was before Congress from April, 1870, until February, 1873, during which period action of some kind was taken on it, in one house or the other, nineteen times. Its enactment was in fact one of the most public proceedings which have ever taken place in Congress. Why, then, did it not attract more attention at the time? Simply because in 1873 coinage was still considered a quasi-scientific question, to be settled by experts, and the opinion of some thirty experts was taken on the bill. Mr. Kelley, in reporting it, admitted this when he said (June 9, 1872):

> "It is impossible to retain the double standard. The values of gold and silver continually fluctuate. You cannot determine this year what will be the relative values of gold and silver next year. They were 15 to 1 a short time ago. They are 16 to 1 now."

When, three years later, silver having fallen heavily in value, it was found out that it might be made to furnish "cheap money for the poor man," and also for the farmer to pay off the rascally mortgagees who had lent him gold, there occurred the most extraordinary episode in the history of American demagogy—a history which somebody ought to write. Mr. Kelley and several members of his Committee, and a large number of the majority who passed the bill, actually took the stump to denounce its passage as a

fraud on the American people, secretly accomplished. It was intended to rob them of a beloved kind of money left them by their deceased fathers as a precious legacy, to say nothing of its having been, as Mr. Kelley pointed out in a lecture, the money of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, and used by the Patriarchs in the purchase of burying-lots and other real estate.

What this meant was that the currency had got into politics, and its effect on the politicians was very like the effect of the entrance of Satan on the Gadarene swine. They fell over each other in their eagerness to invent new forms of absurdity and tomfoolery about the precious metals. No place was too steep for them to rush down. Republicans of all degrees of party standing vied with each other in the concoction of puerilities about the place of their favorite metal in civilized society. They became the precursors and indeed the producers of the Simpsons and Peffers. We are all laughing over Peffer's absurdities now, but where did Peffer get them? Why, he got them from Republicans like Blaine, and Allison, and Ingalls, and Kelley, and Matthews. Mr. Matthews denounced "the blindness of the conspiracy which had sought to exalt gold as the god and king of money." The present Senator Allison made the following amusing statement, for a man pretending to be an economist:

"Who does not believe that if it [silver] is made a legal-tender, or rather if silver dollars be coined, these colored people [the negroes of the South], like the people of China and the East Indies, will hoard this money in considerable sums, so that we shall be able to go on coining at the rate of $30,000,000 per annum for many years to come without disturbing the relative value between gold and silver?" (*Globe*, vol. 136, p. 175.)

This suggestion that the negroes would save us from silver inflation and keep the two precious metals at par, by hoarding, owes its ridiculousness, as Prof. Laughlin, to whom we are indebted for the quotation, points out, in large part to the failure to explain how the negroes were to get hold of the silver when they wanted to hoard it, having little or nothing to give in exchange for the $30,000,000 a year which they were to hoard. But the assumption, absurd as it is, contains the seed of the Peffer doctrine which is now ravaging the South and West, that if plenty of silver dollars are coined, they will find their way into the farmer's pockets without his having to pay for them in goods; that is, that the owners of the silver will let people have some of the coined dollars for nothing. Mr. Allison confined his proposition evidently to colored men. It was only Chinamen, Hindus, and negroes who were to seize the silver and hoard it. But Peffer very naturally says that not "niggers" only, but white men, will take a hand in helping the free-coinage policy, by pocketing the dollars or burying them in the earth.

Mr. Blaine was very diverting on this same point. Denouncing the policy of coining the old trade-dollar of 420 grains of silver for use in the Oriental trade, while demonetizing our own old dollar of 412 grains, this statesman remarked:

"It will read strangely in history that the weightier and more valuable of these dollars is made for an ignorant class of heathen laborers in China and India, and that the lighter and less valuable is made for the intelligent and educated laboring man who is a citizen of the United States." (*Globe*, vol. 186, p. 822)

This contains the seeds of the Peffer doctrine, that money is not so much a medium of exchange as a commodity useful in itself which it is well to have in the house, like pie or a rocking-chair, and not a thing to be parted with for something else; so that the manufacture of it in any quantity, however great, is a blessing. It contains, too, the suggestion that the ignorant heathen laborer would get the big dollar for nothing, while the light small one would be bestowed, also for nothing, on our own educated and intelligent laboring men, which, of course, would be grossly unfair. In a gratuitous distribution of dollars, our own citizens ought to be preferred. Senator Ingalls, as might have been expected, contributed a mighty virile generalization to the discussion when he said:

"Gold is the money of monarchs. Kings covet it; the exchanges of nations are effected by it. Its tendency is to accumulate in vast masses in commercial centres, and to move from kingdom to kingdom so as to unsettle values and disturb the finances of the world." (*Globe*, vol. 187, p. 1052.)

But the best point of all for silver was made by the late Senator Howe, who perhaps would hardly be worth quoting but for the fact that we thought so much of him as an authority that we actually sent him as a delegate to the International Monetary Conference in Paris, to meet the foremost currency experts of Europe. See how easily he disposes of the famous "Gresham's Law":

"But we are told the cheaper metal will drive out the dearer, and gold will be banished from our circulation. Silver will not drive out anything. Silver is not aggressive; it is so much like the Apostle's description of wisdom that it is first pure, then peaceable, then gentle. . . . Put a silver and a gold dollar in the same purse and they will lie quietly together." (*Globe*, vol. 186, p. 765.)

We might fill a volume with humorous exposition of the same sort. The above are abundantly sufficient to show that if Peffer be foolish, he is not original. All these Kansas heresies which are frightening the Republican party from its propriety are the concoctions of Republican leaders when engaged in the folly of trying to keep up the price of silver in 1878, on a falling market, by imposing it as a legal tender on the American people.

THE STRIKING FEVER.

THE strike of the butchers, bakers, and grocers in Paris, without any defined object, is a good illustration of the contagiousness of the striking state of mind. Managers of railroads and some other large establishments which have great staying powers, recognized this long ago, and many or most of them, therefore, make it a cardinal rule of their business never to yield to a strike, whether it be reasonable or unreasonable, because, they say, to yield to one is to invite a series of others in rapid succession. The London Dock Companies have had a melancholy experience of the soundness of this rule from a business point of view. They yielded, under pressure from philanthropists and clergymen, to a strike got up by a body of laborers not regularly employed by them, but absolutely necessary to them now and then on pressing occasions, and agreed to pay wages which they really could not afford. This was two years ago, and they have never since had a week's peace. The laborers, having discovered, as they thought, their power over the companies, speedily broke loose from the control of the outside agitators who managed the first strike, and struck every day or two against the application of the commonest and most essential rules of order and discipline, and have come near achieving the ruin of the port of London. Things have grown quieter lately, but the loss has been enormous and the experience bitter.

In Paris there was apparently a very reasonable strike the other day of the omnibus-drivers against long hours and small pay. The companies resisted for a while, and could undoubtedly have filled the strikers' places, but they were prevented by mob violence from moving their vehicles. The police were overpowered, and the Government, under the influence of the obloquy excited by the use of the army in suppressing a strikers' riot at Fourmies a short time ago, was afraid to call out the troops to clear the streets, and the companies surrendered. What the men asked for was undoubtedly fair enough. The Parisian public has no good claim to the service of any human being on an omnibus box for fifteen hours a day, and no corporation ought to undertake to provide such service.

But unfortunately there is little likelihood that the surrender has ended the trouble. In fact, judging from American and English experience, these troubles are only beginning. The drivers will probably soon strike again, either for further shortening of their hours, or further additions to their wages, or to procure the dismissal of some obnoxious person or persons from the company's employment. In other words, the companies will probably find that the strike has sensibly diminished their control of their property. The effect on the other trades is already visible. The bakers, butchers, and grocers have all struck, not through sympathy, but contagion. The French dearly love a "manifestation"—that is, a march through the streets as an expression of some sort of discontent—and this manifestation was probably intended, like "the general strike" which used to be proposed here, to show the community its dependence on a particular class of service, and bring it to its knees before the manual laborers. The threat of the Government to put soldiers into the bakery, butchery, and grocery business to supply the places of the strikers for the moment, gives an additional touch of comedy to the crisis, and an idea of what a funny place the world will be when Labor gets "on top," as many philanthropists assure us it will before long, although they never tell us how much room exactly there is "on top" for permanent residents.

It is this inability of labor organizations, as at present managed, to bear success, that does most to prevent their usefulness to the

laboring class. When a strike succeeds, the effect either on the leaders or on the rank and file is very like the effect on many an industrious man of a lucky turn on the Stock Exchange or at a gambling-table. Drudgery and slow gains at once become intolerable to them. They cannot bear to go on obeying orders and keeping regular hours, in the old humdrum fashion. They want to make the bosses and the foremen "stand round" and mend their manners, and, if nothing else, to infuse a little excitement or variety into their own lives. We passed through this phase of "the labor problem," through which France and England are now passing, in this country five years ago. Up to 1886 the presumption always was that a strike against a corporation was reasonable, and that there was a certain justice in the stoning or clubbing of "scabs," and that strikers were entitled to as much rioting facilities in the streets as their occasions might require. But this state of things was speedily changed by the excesses of the strikers. The strikes were badly managed. They occurred so often, and were attended with so much clubbing and stoning and interruption of public traffic, that the community had in self-defence to turn the presumption against strikes, and relieve the "scabs" from their dolorous liability to have their heads broken. So it will be by and by in Europe. The social bond is too strong for any one class to break it.

There are various signs that Labor itself is waking up to the discomfort of trying to be "on top." The last report of the Michigan Board of Labor Statistics contains 1,212 answers to the question, "Has your labor organization been of any financial benefit to you?" Sixty-four per cent. said "Yes;" but thirty-five per cent. said "No." To the question, "Has your labor organization been of any other benefit to you than financially?" 1,125 answers were received. Forty-one per cent. said "Yes," but fifty-nine per cent. said "No."

A similar inquiry by the Wisconsin Labor Bureau some time ago showed the same frame of mind. A number of machinists, printers, carpenters, etc., were asked their opinion of the value of trade unions. Barely half unhesitatingly endorsed the union system, while a full quarter were outspoken against it, and the other quarter qualified their approval of the principle by saying that "they are good if properly organized and managed," or that "they are good if not carried to excess," or that "they are just what we need, provided they are carried on upon good principles." It would probably be found, on more minute inquiry, that the failure to benefit was in the great majority of the cases due to bad management.

IRISH LEGISLATION AT WESTMINSTER.

DUBLIN, June 9, 1891.

BALFOUR'S Land Bill has now been practically passed, the committee stage having been completed. It was described by John Morley as the worst land bill ever introduced into Parliament. That remark applies to the details, not to the principle of the measure, upon which a majority of both parties are in accord. It is another example of the British legislation which we resent so much.

The bill is prepared on the instructions of Balfour, a strong and determined man, but totally ignorant of Ireland, and imbued with contempt, which he takes little trouble to conceal, for the Irish. The information necessary to the construction of the measure is derived from "the Castle," *i. e.*, from Anglo-Irish officials entirely devoid of sympathy with the Irish people. In Parliament three-fourths of the members know little and care less about the measure; English members who engage in the debate do so from a party standpoint, more anxious to embarrass their adversaries than to pass a good law. The arguments of Irishmen are addressed to empty benches; the Committee, as Tim Healy remarked, are in the smoke-room, not in the House. The Irish Conservatives dare not vote against a Government measure, or any of its clauses, but, to satisfy their constituents, they occasionally abstain from voting.

I attended the debates on some of the more important clauses. Balfour and the Irish Attorney-General sat for the most part alone on the Treasury Bench. It was evidently impossible for them to accept the most reasonable amendments, urged both by argument and entreaty, by the Irish Nationalists, without having entirely to recast their bill. The few Irish Conservatives who took part in the debate said in substance, We object to these provisions, but we won't vote against the bill if you insist on them. The division bell rang, and the English majority, who had either not listened to the debate or were impervious to argument, hurried from all parts of the House to register the Chief Secretary's decisions. Irish members in vain pointed out that mistakes in English acts were easily remedied by amending measures, while it was hopeless to expect even a hearing for amending bills brought in by Irish members.

The bill provides a sum of £30,000,000 to be loaned to tenant farmers for the purchase of their landlords' estates. As guarantees against loss, grants from the imperial revenue in aid of local taxation for education and maintenance of the poor may be withheld from Ireland; the Lord Lieutenant may order special taxes to be levied; he may also require for a series of years that the borrowers shall pay an annuity on their loans in excess of the normal annuity of 4 per cent. Without reference to the capital value of a farm, or the price at which the landlord is willing to sell, every purchaser is obliged to pay for five years an annuity equal to 80 per cent. of his legal and often nominal rent. Large classes of farms are excluded from the benefits of the act, so that few landlords will be able to dispose of their entire estates.

On the whole, the bill offers less inducement than the existing law to landlords to sell or to tenants to buy. It imposes taxation on ratepayers who derive no benefit from the act; it makes these unwillingly guaranteeing ratepayers liable to pay the debts of borrowers who may under certain circumstances hold their lands without payment. It encourages tenants to borrow and buy, by providing possibilities of their escaping repayment. Though the bill is of moderate length, the multitude and complexity of the guarantees are such that some English members declared that the effort to comprehend their action and effect had almost reduced them to idiocy; and this complexity, involving a vast amount of book-keeping, will be a serious difficulty in administration. As an example of British legislation, the bill is no worse than the Liberal Land Law of 1881; that was passed in defiance of Irish opinion. Amending measures were year after year rejected by the House of Commons with contempt, and some of its most manifest defects were not corrected until 1889. Balfour's present bill furnishes another argument in favor of Irish autonomy, drawn as it is on the principle that, though the British taxpayer is to run no risk in the transaction, British members are to prescribe the terms and conditions of the purchase of Irish landlords' estates by the tenants with the Irish taxpayers' money. Under the Purchase Act that has been operating since 1885, £8,500,000 have been allotted among 20,500 farmers to enable them to buy their farms. For the last three years the rate at which landlords and tenants have agreed upon terms of sale has reached about £2,000,000 a year, and it does not seem likely that more than this amount will be required annually, as the new act is less favorable to both buyers and sellers than the former one.

Balfour's other Irish legislation during this session has consisted wholly of acts for the relief of distress. $1,000,000 were granted for the construction of light railways, and $500,000 for relief works in the shape of roads, harbors, and drainage. Loans of public money free of interest for two years were granted to the boards of poor-law guardians for the purchase of seed potatoes, the partial failure of that crop last year having caused one of the periodical scares on the subject of this precarious crop. The result of this latter measure was that the price of potatoes rose to $45 a ton for a short time, and considerable quantities were bought under the act at prices so high that, if next season is one of ordinary yield and prices, the value of the entire product will scarcely amount to that of the seed. The construction of railways which can only be worked at a loss, is a matter of very doubtful policy, even though the locality benefited pays no interest for the capital outlay. Several light railways have already been built by means of public loans at low interest, guaranteed by mortgage of the local rates, in districts of greater promise than those now being opened up; and in scarcely any instance has a railway earned sufficient to pay interest on its cost. The increased taxation in the districts liable has made these railways very unpopular, more especially as the rates are pledged by the county grand juries—non-elected and non-representative bodies. Irish business has, as usual, taken up an amount of time quite disproportionate to its importance in the Imperial Parliament, and no advance whatever has been made towards settling the Irish question.

From the preliminary report of the census, which has been brought out within two months of the enumeration, Ireland does not appear to have prospered during the last decade, so far as prosperity is indicated by population. The natural increase in the number of inhabitants, arrived at by subtracting 879,779 deaths from 1,147,432 births during the period, would have been 267,653; but the absolute decrease is 468,674. This diminution of 9.1 per cent. is double that of the period 1871-'81, when it was only 4.4 per cent., and is accounted for by the emigration of 768,105 persons. Previous inquiries have shown that two-thirds of the emigrants are persons between the ages of twenty and forty-five; and there can be no doubt that the wholesale departure of the young and vigorous leaves the remaining population with an undue proportion of infirm and aged persons. The natural increase of population is very small, and, as the two last enumerations have shown, early marriages are excessively rare, and the Irish birth-rate is abnormally

low when compared with that of England and other European countries.

No single detail of the census indicates any advance in prosperity. Dublin and Belfast, as is natural, and three smaller towns, have increased their populations; all other provincial towns show a decrease. Inhabited houses have diminished by 4.5 per cent., and uninhabited houses have increased 13 per cent. Since the enumeration in 1841, the total population of the island has diminished from eight and one-quarter millions to less than four and three-quarter millions, and still emigration is put forward every year in Parliament as the most desirable of all remedies. A continuance of the present decennial rate of diminution would leave Ireland uninhabited before the end of the next century. AN IRISHMAN.

THE CORINTH CANAL.

ATHENS, June 2, 1891.

AFTER visiting the field of Marathon and most of the celebrated ancient places and things in the vicinity of Athens, I decided to make a personal inspection of the greatest of the works of modern Greece. I was the more moved thereto since I could find nobody in Athens who had seen the Corinth Canal except from the summit of a high railway bridge which crosses it. I afterwards found one person, a lady, who had walked through it, at considerable risk of being dumped and carried off as refuse material, in manner as will be explained hereafter.

When I expressed to the *portier* of the hotel my desire to visit the Corinth Canal, he said that the most convenient railway station was Kalamoki. This is the ancient port of Schoenus, on the Saronic Gulf, and is very near the site of the old Isthmian games, traces of the Stadium and of the Sanctuary wall being still visible. The *portier* advised me to take my luncheon with me, as I should not be able to procure any there. I said that I would go to Corinth for my luncheon. He replied that I would find things worse at Corinth than at Kalamoki. This was a surprise to me, as I had expected to see a flourishing modern town with several good hotels there. In fact, there are only a few hovels and not even an inn at the place where Timoleon was born, and where Alexander the Great was invested with the command of the Greek expedition against Persia. There is nothing left of ancient Corinth but seven dilapidated Doric columns, an amphitheatre of late Roman construction, and the citadel or Acro-Corinthus.

It is two and a half hours by rail from Athens to Kalamoki. The road passes through a beautiful country so full of historic interest that one is bewildered at every turn. The first considerable station is Eleusis. I observed that the conductor in calling out the name put the accent on the first syllable. The next station of importance is Megara. Great room here for the learned, but I shall restrict myself to what I saw with my own eyes, going and returning, for the train made a considerable stop here each way. I saw the Grecian process of gathering the wheat harvest. In front of the railroad station—*i.e.*, between it and the Strait of Salamis—are the Megarean threshing-grounds, consisting of several acres. Here the labor of threshing and winnowing was going on, fifty to one hundred men and as many horses being briskly at work. The wheat was cut with the sickle, a handful at a time, mostly by women. It was then put together in bundles by men and loaded on the backs of donkeys. These carried it to the threshing grounds, where it was arranged in circles to be trodden out by the hoofs of horses, after which the straw was removed and the grain tossed in the air by means of long-handled shovels until the wind had entirely separated the chaff from the wheat. This happened to be a windy day, and the greater part of Megara was improving the occasion. The process of grinding the wheat I did not see, but that of baking was visible at every front door (outside, of course), the oven consisting of a large clay retort, first heated to the proper temperature by a fire of sticks inside. These processes, I imagine, have undergone little change since the Homeric period. The Megareans of to-day, however, are to be accounted a happy people as compared with their predecessors, since they enjoy the inestimable blessing of security. Their fields are not ravaged in wars with their sister cities as they were in the days of Thucydides and Xenophon, nor are their coasts swept by corsairs as they were in the Middle Ages. A writer who visited Megara in 1676 records that the inhabitants "stand in such great fear of the pirates that upon sight of every boat in the day-time, and but hearing their dogs bark in the night, they presently fall to packing up their few goods, which they hide as well as they can, and run away."

From Megara to Kalamoki the railway skirts the edges of a succession of cliffs overlooking the waters of the Bay of Egina. The carriage road does the same. Both together make a very good reproduction of the Cornice, but the Grecian highway is the more beautiful of the two by reason of the softness of the coloring of both land and water.

Arrived at Kalamoki station, we found one carriage in waiting for anybody who might wish to ride to Kalamoki village, a quarter of a mile distant. I had with me a polyglot dragoman whom I had taken into service at Constantinople. Our only fellow-passenger was a tall Montenegrin, gorgeously dressed and heavily armed, with whom my dragoman entered into conversation. The Montenegrin said that many of his countrymen were employed as laborers on the canal. He was going that way himself and would be happy to assist us. He led the way to the entrance of the canal. We had not gone more than a dozen steps before we were accosted by the engineer in charge, Mr. Mavrocordato, who spoke the dialect of London so perfectly that I at once took him for an Englishman. He explained to me that his mother was an Englishwoman. Mr. Mavrocordato put himself at my service, and politely offered to take me through the entire work. As this was what I had come for, the offer was gladly accepted.

Here we were at the entrance of one of the most stupendous works of the nineteenth century, or of any century. I looked upward and inward. The prism of the excavation is a little less than four miles long and perfectly straight. The ground rises rather abruptly at either end, and continues to rise gradually to a point about midway, where it is 260 feet above water level, *i. e.*, 100 feet higher than Niagara Falls. The cut is to be carried twenty-two feet below water level, and the width at bottom is to be eighty-six feet. The slope of the bank is sixty degrees, the material, a calcareous tufa having the appearance of an indurated clay, being perfectly secure at that inclination, and not washing perceptibly by rain.

Engineers will understand what is implied by a cut of this magnitude, but laymen can appreciate it only by standing at the base of the excavation and looking upward. I did not get the full effect as it will be eventually, because there is still about sixty feet vertically to be taken out, but the impression one receives when passing through the canal in its present state, and reflecting that this is all the work of man and not of the Cyclops, is quite overpowering.

Looking inward, that is, toward the western end, the canal seemed to be filled with fog, and I supposed that there must be a mist driving in from the Gulf of Corinth. But this appearance was due to the dust caused by the workmen who were digging down the sides of the prism, standing on a series of steps extending from bottom to top. There was a shower of earth falling along a space of half a mile near the centre of the cut. This material was disposed of by steam dredges which lifted the loose earth in buckets on an endless chain and deposited it in cars to be drawn by locomotives to the dumping-grounds. This is the widening process.

The deepening process is quite different. For the latter a trench is first sunk, wide enough and long enough to receive a train of cars. At the end of the trench inward a tunnel is excavated to receive the train. From the top of the tunnel to the surface of the superincumbent ground, where the laborers stand, may be twenty or twenty-five feet vertically. Then shafts are sunk at regular intervals down to the tunnel, along the line of the railway track, and the earth is shovelled into these openings and finds its way with the least amount of manual labor into the cars. The openings gradually assume a funnel shape like mill hoppers, extending the full width of the prism, and accordingly a person desiring to traverse the canal must skirt the perimeter of these hoppers at the risk of depositing his mortal clay along with that of the Corinthian isthmus in the cars below. Experience had made Mr. Mavrocordato an adept in this kind of spiral exercise. Nor did he seem to be at all disturbed by the blasting operations that were going on both overhead and under foot. My own nerves were somewhat shaken. My Turkish dragoman was the first to retire, which he did on a plea of sore eyes and affliction thereunto from the dust. With some help from the shovellers, I surmounted eight of these funnels, all that were then in operation, and soon found myself on the Corinthian side of the cut. I knew that returning would be as tedious as go o'er, and so I found it, but there was no mishap and no great fatigue in either direction.

The material taken out, as I said, is a calcareous tufa, but is not of uniform color. It is firm enough *in situ* to require blasting, but the blasts are of low power, merely loosening, not shattering the material. In one place only a wall of true limestone is encountered, a part of the backbone of Greece, but here it is only a few feet in thickness. Probably the material is of the kind that an engineer would choose for such a work if he could have his choice, as it is not really refractory, and yet has no tendency to slide.

The present Corinth Canal—there was an old one begun by the Emperor Nero, A. D. 67, on exactly the same line—was initiated by a French company in 1882, the Comptoir d'Escompte being its financial agent. When the latter failed in consequence of the great copper speculation, the work on the canal stopped for want of funds. After an interval of two years it passed into the hands of a Greek company which has found the means for completing it. Twelve hundred men are now employed upon it. These are Armenians, Italians, and Montenegrins. The wages paid is equal to sixty cents per day of our money. I saw them taking their mid-day meal. It consisted only of bread, water, and a few olives. Mr. Mavrocordato tells me that the canal will be

finished within three years, and that it will admit the largest merchant ships now in use in the Mediterranean and will enable any two of them to pass at any point. Being a sea-level canal, it can be operated at the lowest cost. HORACE WHITE.

AMERICA IN ITALIAN LIBRARIES.

VENICE, May, 1891.

I HAVE never failed in the Italian libraries of a hearty welcome as an American librarian, and have been made to stand more than once in rendered courtesies as the representative of what the American people have contributed by administrative methods to the science which it is becoming the fashion to term bibliothecal. It has been gratifying to see how closely American usages have been watched, and how every new development has been studied with a disposition to adopt, perhaps too readily, methods which have sprung out of a condition unbondaged by tradition, and which do not always find the most rapid assimilation to conditions not yet emancipated from centuries of sloth—or what to the American librarian seems like sloth. I found the other day, in looking over some plans which had been prepared for a prospective new building of the Biblioteca Nazionale at Florence (which is to occupy a site in the regenenerated area of the mid-town, where the Ghetto till recently still preserved the flavor and odor of the past), that some of our most recent constructions had contributed ideas as to the disposition of rooms in the administrative parts of the building. When all these technical matters had been seen and talked over, the librarian would say, "Now come to-morrow and look over our old maps."

It is a surprising wealth of sea charts and world maps, representing the growing cosmographical notions which preceded and followed the era of Columbus, which these Italian libraries possess. I have long been familiar with their different geographical types, for with all their numbers—and there must be at least five hundred aggregated in these Italian libraries—they run into distinct groups, characterized both by new acquisitions of knowledge and by personal interpretations of scant data, so that school and individual among the draughtsmen are readily marked as a rule, though there are some puzzling and anomalous exceptions which put the critical functions to task. As specimens of these maps have come to me at home in published or drawn facsimile, and have been accompanied by conjectures as to their date and authorship, I have had previous views to approve or question. I well remember the delight with which, a few years ago, I had the opportunity of subjecting a *portolano* of the sixteenth century to a virgin scrutiny. A dealer in Leipzig had sent to an American collector a beautifully executed little sea atlas on parchment, which was submitted to me to ascertain its authority and date. It was the first time I had seen one of these atlases in America, and very likely it is the only one in the country to-day. I had little difficulty in ascribing it to Battista Agnese, and in placing it not far from the middle of the sixteenth century. I knew Agnese's work from some colored facsimiles and from a photographic reproduction of one of his sea atlases, which Ongania here in Venice had published some years before. The searcher in these Italian libraries confronts the work of Agnese in great profusion. I should judge that he found with navigators, and with those interested in the geographical developments of those days, a better market than the publishers of engraved charts secured with their rapider reproductions.

There may yet be in private hands some of these fifteenth and sixteenth-century atlases which have not come to the attention of scholars, and Nordenskiöld, within these last dozen years, in wandering over Europe and ransacking the shops of the lesser as well as the greater towns, has succeeded in discovering two or three early maps which have confirmed doubtful and established new points in the progress of geographical knowledge, from the time when the dangers of the Atlantic were first tempted. I remember a note which some years ago I got from this Swedish scholar—for it will be remembered he was a professor before he was a navigator—when he had stumbled in an old shop in Warsaw upon an old map which carried back the cartographical history of Greenland (and thus of America) to the fourteenth century. I experienced a sympathetic delight in his communication of the fact. I found the other day in Florence that he was still at work on the subject, and when my eye lighted upon a delineation of Greenland singularly like that of the Warsaw map, it was no surprise to learn that Nordenskiöld had been ahead of me, and that a photographer in the town had recently taken a negative of the map and sent it to Stockholm. It struck the eye at the same time of Prof. Willard Fiske, who was with me, as containing, in an island neighboring to Greenland, a very early mapping of Iceland, which was necessary for his marvellous Icelandic library, and a second negative was ordered.

There are two of the Old World maps which mark important stages in the development of cosmographical knowledge before the fifteenth century, with which I was perfectly familiar from drawings, but of which I was eager to see the originals. One of these is the curious map, showing how England had been responsive to the tidings which travellers had brought from the East, which hangs on a wall of a side aisle in the Cathedral at Hereford, and last summer I made a pilgrimage there to see it. I confess to some annoyance as the good verger, unlocking the doors which concealed it, began to drone his story, which had gone into one ear and out of the other of so many chance tourists. He did not fail to remark that my senses wandered from the course along which he directed them, and I am afraid I left him with an opinion of his visitor's unaccountable indifference. The other of these old maps I saw yesterday in one of the halls of the Doge's palace. This is the famous map of Fra Mauro, embodying, about the middle of the fifteenth century, the results of the Portuguese explorations in the Atlantic, which led the way to the voyage of Columbus. It brings them down to a period when Prince Henry the Navigator had done his work, and Columbus was but a mere lad about the docks in Genoa or rambling through the alleys of Savona. This map, as it is shown at present to the traveller, has been taken from the Marciana, and is placed near the middle of the floor in one of the Palazzo halls which is given to geographical monuments. It stands upright under glass in a large frame, with the north near the floor, so that the legends are conveniently read, for it will be remembered that it was well on in the progress of modern cartographical science before the north became invariably the top of the map. I was surprised at the remarkable clearness and freshness of the lines and the color, and there is little of it that one need puzzle over in deciphering. It is much clearer than the photographs, though I found at Naya's, the photographer under the arcade in the neighboring piazza of St. Mark, two sizes of a photograph, one of the original size in four sheets, and the other a reduction to one sheet, which was sufficiently clear to be satisfactory in most studies of it. It is the larger size which Ongania has included in his series of reproductions of about fifteen of these old maps, under the editing of a distinguished German student in this department, Prof. Theodor Fischer of Kiel.

The walls of the hall where this Mauro map stands are covered with painting on the plaster of cartographical delineations of different parts of the globe. I find no statement in the books of the date of them, but I should say they were executed not much, if at all, before 1600. Rather obscurely placed in one corner, and the smallest, I think, of them all, is a sketch of the coast of North America from Labrador to Florida, giving the Great Lakes as far as Huron, and including Erie, which was so long left out in the early configurations, since the watercourses that connect the Ottawa and the Georgian Bay for a considerable period diverted the westward explorers from the directer course by the Niagara. I should not place this map earlier than the others, and the purpose of it seemed to be to illustrate the claim to North America which England, under Elizabeth, not far from that time, was basing on the right which she had acquired through the Venetians, John and Sebastian Cabot. This seemed to be the purpose of one inscription on a scroll near a long-bearded and begowned figure which I suppose stood for Cabot. It was drawn beneath the map.

The habit of decorating a hall or gallery in these old Italian palaces with such maps seems not to have been unusual; but it was at rather a late stage of discovery that the habit came in, and here, as well as in similar maps in a corridor at the Vatican and in the Palazzo Vecchio at Florence—where they are made to cover the doors of cabinets around a large hall—the student finds little that increases his knowledge as distinct from what he could get from the engraved maps of the period.

Besides what I have already indicated, the hall in Venice contained some Arab and Chinese maps of the sixteenth century, which showed how closely, for the American coasts at least, they had studied the best European sources, though it is possible that they may have been aided by independent knowledge. This is a point to which the student of the comparative cartography of the sixteenth century needs to give further study, for I do not think that all has been made yet that can be out of these Oriental maps, which are not unknown in other European countries, for I looked at some in the Bodleian and at the British Museum.

Of the two large globes which one sees in the photographs of the Hall of the Great Council in the palace of the Doges, one is terrestrial; but it has suffered from age, and is in parts undecipherable. I made out enough, however, to place it too late for much original interest. It offered the huge Californian island which is characteristic of much of the sixteenth-century hydrography of the Pacific regions of America.

The enumeration of the early maps and atlases preserved in the Italian libraries makes a good-sized octavo volume, as published a few years ago on the occasion of the assembling of the Geographical Congress in one of the Italian cities. It is a useful guide to the searcher for these relics, and I found an advantage in keeping it at hand as I looked at such objects in the Laurentian and National Libraries at Florence. One day when I went to the latter

library, the attentive keeper of the manuscripts had got together and assorted the library's wealth of these old maps. They made formidable piles on the tables, for they had in the main come from the old Palatine Library, where it was a fashion to mount these drawings on hinged boards, so that they folded up like screens and made a considerable bulk. At the Biblioteca Laurenziana the loose maps were generally rolled with a thin silk shield following the convolutions. I found among these last a "Carta nautica circa 1524," which deserves more study than I could give it at the time. It will, I conjecture, throw some light on the cartographical history of the Bay of Fundy. It showed the Papal line of demarcation, as modified by the Treaty of Tordesillas, much as it is given in many of the official maps of about that period. A *portolano* of Agnese dated "xii. Feb. MDXLIII." is almost identical, in numbers, variety, and character of the maps, with one which is now in the Carter-Brown library at Providence. Another large map, marked "Salvator Oliva fecit in civitate Marsiliæ anno domini 1620," though the work of a cartographer of recognized authority in his day, shows significantly how the student of these early maps needs to be unceasingly wary, and to make due allowance for the slowness with which geographical knowledge sometimes travelled, or perhaps for the national prejudice which rejected the reports of rival nations. Oliva's knowledge of the coast line of the present United States was a half century at least behind his times.

The development which has been made in the cartographical history of the New World in the interval since Dr. Kohl contributed so much to a knowledge of it, has been so marked that when the United States Coast Survey printed a few years ago an account which Kohl had prepared for the Survey with the knowledge of thirty years before, a grievous wrong was done to a careful and conscientious student, who was well aware before he died that his labors were those of a pioneer, and his results but tentative. Some of the most crucial productions of the geographical studies of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries have been brought to light since Kohl's day. The great collections of Santarem, Kunstmann, and Jomard now need constantly to be supplemented by later discoveries of sources, particularly as regards the New World. I could but think of this when, the other day, I stood in the Piazza di Spagna at Rome. There one looks on the pillar which Pio Nono erected to commemorate his promulgation of the dogma of the Immaculate Conception, and one at first wonders why this column was set up in the centre of that quarter of Rome given to the occupancy of strangers so largely Protestant; but he understands the reason when he looks beyond and his eye falls upon the College of the Propaganda. The student rarely fails to remember how much he owes to the missions of the Catholic Church for the preservation of cartographical monuments, and how barren the field would be but for the devoted labors with rude instruments of the wandering fathers of the different orders along the ocean, lake, and river sides of the American continent. I referred in my last letter to the help which the map of Hieronymus-Verrazzano had been in rectifying the over-hasty views of Murphy and Bancroft respecting the voyage of another Verrazzano along our Eastern coast in the early years of the sixteenth century. This cardinal map is still preserved in the archives of the Propaganda.

I was glad to find Mrs. Nuttall at work on the two Mexican manuscripts which are preserved in the Laurentian library. Signor Biagi, the librarian, had kindly told me of their possessing a manuscript of Sahagun, the priest who has preserved for us one of the most valued accounts of the Spanish Conquest of the Mexicans and of the Mexican people; and as I found Mrs. Nuttall in the library, she kindly pointed out to me the important features which her study of the manuscript had revealed to her. The printed text which scholars have is, it seems, a condensed one, in Spanish only, and omits some of the descriptive chapters which are found in the present copy. This Laurentian manuscript has, moreover, a Mexican text, in parallel columns, and it is curiously illustrated. It has much additional value from sundry marginal annotations in Sahagun's own hand, attested by his signature. Mrs. Nuttall, who has collated the text word by word with that ordinarily known to scholars, tells me that its value as an improvement on what its editors have heretofore evoked is considerable, and she cannot find that any one of them has used it. The result of her examination, when published, will be a gain to scholars in a field wherein Mrs. Nuttall has already put them under obligations.

Another manuscript which this lady has found in the Laurentian is likely to be of quite as striking importance, as the students of Aztec archæology will of themselves judge when the facsimile reproduction which she is having made is completed. It is a textual and graphic elucidation of the Mexican divinities, and I am not aware that it has ever before been brought to the attention of scholars.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

Correspondence.

THE PENNSYLVANIA BALLOT-REFORM LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While the Pennsylvania Ballot-Reform Bill, now a law, since its approval by Gov. Pattison on the 19th inst., is a very deformed and unsatisfactory measure as compared with what it was originally, it hardly merits the wholesale condemnation which it received in your issue of the 18th. The Executive Committee of the Ballot-Reform Association could not take the responsibility of advising the approval of the bill, nor could they avoid pointing out its defects in a published letter to the Governor, but they are, I believe, satisfied that he did well to sign it. Defective as it is, it is too good to suit the Quay element in the Legislature. As reported by the Senate Election Committee, it was in far worse shape than now, the merest travesty of ballot reform, and it was only by hard, persistent fighting that Mr. Baker of Delaware County succeeded in getting it into its present shape and in having it passed. The Senate, where the Republican majority was almost a unit against the bill, at first voted not to accept the conference report, hoping thereby to induce the House to do likewise; but, failing in this, they reluctantly decided to reconsider their action. A bill which was so strenuously opposed by the Quay element must have had some good left in it.

You are probably correct in saying that it is inferior to all the other ballot-reform laws except New York's, but I should say that it was much better than this latter both as to facility of independent nominations and the form of the ballot, though far from perfect in either respect. The form of the ballot, while grossly unfair to independent candidates, is but little worse than that in use in all the other States which have adopted the system of grouping the names of candidates by parties (a system at variance with the Australian principle, and which only needs to be thoroughly understood in order to be heartily condemned), and, if I am not mistaken, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Rhode Island are the only ones which have not done so.

A great deal will depend upon the care with which the blank forms, cards of instruction, etc., are drafted, and there is every reason to suppose that this will be properly done. Upon the whole, therefore, though the reform we hoped for has not been obtained in all its completeness, it has gained a foothold, and one may confidently expect that the same popular feeling which has advanced the cause of ballot-reform so far will in the future carry it on all the way. CHARLES C. BINNEY.

PHILADELPHIA, June 23, 1891.

PRESIDENT WALKER ON THE ECONOMISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly give me space for the ungrateful task of trying to prove that it is not I but you who are in error in the matter of your article, "The Economists and the Public," on the 25th inst.?

You have understood me to reproach the economists with the unreal character of their assumptions, and to object to the cultivation of political economy as a pure science. Referring to me, you say, "Nothing ever taught by the economists is so unreal as the principles of physical science taught in the institution over which he presides."

Now, without inquiring whether there is not a good deal of exaggeration in the last sentence, let me say that I have never questioned the advantage of building up a system of political economy upon a comparatively few, simple assumptions. In my 'Political Economy' of 1883, I said:

"Political economy should begin with the Ricardian method. A few simple assumptions being made, the processes of the production, exchange, and distribution of wealth should be traced out and be brought together into a complete system, which may be called pure political economy, or arbitrary political economy, or *à priori* political economy, or, by the name of its greatest teacher, Ricardian political economy. Such a scheme should constitute the skeleton of all economical reasoning; but upon this ghostly frame-work should be imposed the flesh and blood of an actual, vital political economy, which takes account of men and societies as they are, with all their sympathies, apathies, and antipathies, with every organ developed as in life, every nerve of motion or of sensibility in full play."

My quarrel with political economists is not that their premises are partial and incomplete, but that having, to their own satisfaction, deduced certain principles from such premises, they have gone straight down into the forum or the press, and have there set up those principles as absolutely true and as conclusive upon the public in present practical issues, without admitting that those principles are subject to qualifications in their application to actual affairs, and without confessing the doubtful origin of some of their high-sounding "laws." This is exactly what the leading English economists have habitually done; and in this they have been closely followed by some of their American disciples.

It is true, as you say, that in a school of technology we teach abstract principles. We not only do this laboriously and long, but we train

our students in dealing with such principles, so that they may become capable of sustained reasoning upon any series of assumptions. But it is equally true that we teach the young inquirer never for a moment to think of applying these principles in practice without the most careful reference to the conditions of the case, the materials to be used, the resistance to be encountered, the contingencies that may beset the work; and after all this has been considered, we teach him to introduce a "factor of safety," as well as to make allowance for uncertain elements of expense. And it is precisely for NOT doing the corresponding thing in their department that we blame the economists.

The comparison which you have instituted between the qualifications requiring to be made in practice of the physical laws taught in the Institute of Technology, and the qualifications requiring to be made in practice of the economic principles taught by the college professor, affords an excellent opportunity to illustrate the point in dispute between the two schools of political economy. The physicist, indeed, teaches that water tends to a level; but he also instructs his pupils that, if water be placed in a very small tube, it may be sustained for an indefinite time at about any height above the general level, the attraction, more properly, cohesion, of the walls of the tube being greater than the attraction exerted upon it by the earth below. Now, here is an instance of a physical law which admits of an exception that requires to be distinctly expressed to every student to whom the law itself is taught; for, although the column of water in the tube be small, the principle of capillary attraction is not. The whole earth, in its relations to life, would be revolutionized did this principle fail to operate. To teach that water tends to a level, without adding the exception which exists through capillary attraction, would be unworthy of any physicist.

Now for a corresponding principle and its necessary qualification in economics. Money tends to flow from the place where it has the lower value to the place where it has the higher value. In popular phrase, money, too, seeks its level. This is so generally true and is so important, the movement required takes place so promptly and proceeds so strongly as long as the difference in value subsists, that the statement just made is entitled to be considered one of the chief "laws" of political economy. Yet there is a distinct exception to this. The quantity concerned may be so small as to fall under a kind of monetary law of capillary attraction. A "nickel" containing, say, one cent's worth of metal, passes easily in exchange for five cents, partly, and indeed mainly, because the number of pieces is judiciously restricted, but, in part, also, because the value involved is not sufficient to make it worth taking any pains. Even if these coins were issued in some excess over the real demand for them, they might continue to pass for a long time without obstruction or discount, simply "because the amount concerned would not be worth much thought or effort."

Just here was the error in Mr. Wells's remark about a silver three-cent piece sufficing to do all the money-work of a great people, which, in my Washington address, I commented upon with what you deem undue severity. Mr. Wells made a mistake in that case for want of properly qualifying an economic principle. So small a quantity of silver as that he spoke of would come under the law of capillary attraction. The downward tendency would be neutralized by the influence of the walls of the tube. Hence the statement of Mr. Wells was scientifically inaccurate, while it was politically inexpedient, being one of those remarks which are peculiarly exasperating to opponents. It would have answered Mr. Wells's real purpose just as well had he said that a comparatively small quantity of the precious metals would circulate as money just as freely and effectually as a larger amount.

Two points more, if I may be indulged. (1.) You seem disposed to excuse the economists for not further qualifying their more general propositions, and not guarding their readers against mistaken applications of them, by the plea of insufficient opportunity. Twice in your article it is said that people generally have "time" only for brief and unqualified statements of economic doctrines. Permit me, as a teacher of many years' experience, to suggest that, while it is easier for the professor to prepare himself to teach political economy by the method of abstract reasoning, the easier way of learning for the pupil is that which proceeds by concrete illustrations and by the discussion of actual "cases." The additional time which one might expect would be consumed in this way of studying political economy is really not lost, on account of the greater attention and interest of the pupil. (2.) I think you mistake the relation which exists between pupil and teacher, in schools like this, to which you have referred. You say that "among the essentials of the relation of scholar and teacher are that the scholar shall feel that he does not know and that the teacher does know." Excuse me if I say that, while this is doubtless a correct characterization, so far as the classical colleges are concerned, the most successful teachers of science are those who put themselves in the attitude of studying with their pupils, and of finding out, with them, the objects of their common search. Indeed, it is said that Socrates himself used to employ this method. So far as political economy is concerned, I do not think anything is to be gained, in the way either of discovering the truth or of commanding popular respect, by the teacher pretending to know anything he does not, or even concealing the fact that he is still, on this or on that point, in uncertainty, perhaps in perplexity. It is a sad truth that the airs of the political economist no longer impress the public mind, and that the writer on money, or wages, or taxation, must rely for the effect he would produce upon the force and reasonableness of what he writes.

FRANCIS A. WALKER.

MASS. INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, June 24, 1891.

[We can only say in answer to this that we read these charges against "the political economists," as we have read the original ones in the address which we criticise, with wonder as to who these political economists are whom Gen. Walker is showing up, and whom he holds responsible for "the wild and vague schemes of human regeneration upon an economic basis" which, he says, are now afloat. In spite of considerable and long acquaintance with the literature of "pure political economy," "arbitrary political economy," and "Ricardian political economy," we confess we have not the least idea who it is that he has in mind, except Mr. Wells, who used that illustration of the three-cent piece. Mr. Wells is the only one he mentions, but surely that three-cent illustration cannot have done all this mischief, by addling the brains of "the benevolent clergymen and ecstatic ladies and prophets and disciples of the industrial millennium," who are producing the existing economic confusion. If Gen. Walker would give us a few references to the works of those who have, for instance, "opposed wholesome measures of reform on the grounds of laissez-faire *alone*"; who have "greeted with contumely *every* suggestion of an exception to the rule of individualism *from whatever source proceeding*"; who have "declared that inconvertible notes, however freely and fully circulated, were not and could not become money"; who have asserted that "money measured value as the yard-stick measures length and the bushel capacity," without regard to "such things as the [effect of] supply and demand" on the money; who have "declined to give *any* consideration to the possible mischief to be wrought by contraction"; who have "refused to concede *any* importance to the possible effects of demonetization" of silver—if, we say, he would put us on the track of these authors of mischief, he would greatly add to the value of his address. The charges are grave, and the culprits should be made to stand up.—ED. NATION.]

THE ONLY NATIONAL POWER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: M. Carnot, the President of the French Republic, in pursuance of his established policy, has been making a tour in the south of France. There, as everywhere, he has been received with respect and even enthusiasm, and there is no doubt that these visits have done much to establish the republic and substitute the prestige of the Presidential office for that of royalty. In his response to an address of the President of the Council-General at Tarbes, M. Carnot used this expression:

"Whatever your opinions, I welcome you with the same sympathy, for I represent here France as a whole."

About the same time, President Harrison was making a much more extended trip in this country, with the same result of welcome and enthusiasm for the office, without regard to party. In view of this the London *Economist* makes the following remarks:

"The population of the Union has so enormously increased, and personal influence is so localized—each populous State being a sort of kingdom in itself—that the only man audible to the whole nation is the President. A President's message, or even his address, spoken as Mr. Harrison has recently been speaking in the South, is read and weighed by every voter in the States, and that cannot be said of any other person in the American territory. He, and he alone, if an able man, could create rapidly a fresh opinion or secure for a new and broad proposal an attentive hearing. That is an enormous power, and it is one which, as Mr. Cleveland's action about protection shows, can be so exerted as to affect every fortune in the land. A position of that kind in a land without hereditary social eminence is a dazzling one, and no one can wonder that the contest for it shakes the Union."

Here is a tremendous power growing up in both countries for good or evil, and the question is, How can it be best guided and controlled, if at all, in the former direction? Few persons who passed through the period of our civil war can fail to remember, with gratitude and emotion, how important a part was played by Lincoln's personal character and influence. And yet these were far less important in a

contest in which the country was sharply divided into two sections almost unanimous in their opposition to each other, than they would be where the lines of division were horizontal instead of perpendicular. Suppose violent dissensions, coming to blows, were to arise in one region upon questions which more or less affected all the rest, such as labor agitation, protective tariff, inter-State commerce, taxation, race jealousies, or even a mere division upon party names like Democrat and Republican. Think what a difference it would make whether the man at the head of all, and whom all looked up to, was a commonplace intriguer, owing his success to the manipulation of local caucuses, and his support to those whom he had bound by offices, or lucrative jobs, or other political and social favors, or was a broad and high-minded man of honor, ambitious, indeed, of success, but more ambitious of a pure and lofty reputation with the country, with posterity, and with the world—in short, a Washington or a Lincoln.

In selecting a man, like a grain of sand from the millions on the seashore, to hold such a high position above his fellows, there are two ways open. One is that which we pursue now of building up, like coral insects, from below, sending delegates practically selected by local party managers to conventions; choosing by these party delegates in conventions a candidate negatively available from a party point of view—that is, a lay figure upon which can be hung a label with "Democrat" or "Republican," of such a kind that nobody can paint it out; then, when the people have been worked up to select the least of two evils, making their choice a "mayor of the palace," a puppet registering the decrees of powerful cliques in Congress, having little or no positive power either as to legislation or administration, limited to a negative upon the schemes of Congress, or (if he has the superb audacity to have an opinion of his own) able only to fire it off, like Cleveland's tariff message, as a shot in the air; and then, when four or eight years have passed without definite achievements of any kind, resuming the process *de novo*.

The other method requires some appeal to the imagination. Under it Congress would be made an arena for testing the abilities and character and integrity of public men. Under the guidance of high executive officials, the public business would be prepared, taken up, and debated publicly at the opening of the session. Members, instead of being lost in the committee-rooms, would appear as individuals before their constituents and the country, the strongest working to the top and creating a public opinion which would sooner or later dictate to the nominating conventions. The mode of obtaining this result is set forth in detail in the unanimous report of a committee of eight to the United States Senate on February 4, 1881.

With this line of thought a spectre presents itself in the person of President Balmaceda of Chili, and the question follows: "Is that what we are coming to?" A prompt negative meets it as far as appreciable time is concerned. The suffrage is limited in Chili, the population poor and ignorant, and exercising no such control as that of this country. Yet of the two methods above indicated, the first has unquestionably the most decided tendency to produce such a result. Balmaceda certainly could not have done what he has unless through a band of followers bound to him by ties of private interest as against the mass of the people, just as Louis Napoleon did in France in 1851. If his whole public life, in every action and almost every thought, had been kept before an intelligent people of voters by a free press and the public criticism of Congress, it would have been easy for that body to arouse a tempest of opposition before which even he must have quailed. The danger to this country is from Presidents made by rings of selfish and scheming politicians. It must be averted, if it is averted, by Presidents made by the voice of the nation, and compelled to turn frankly to the nation for confidence and support. G. B.

BOSTON, June 20, 1891.

ESPRIT D'ESCALIER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have noticed some discussion in your journal of the phrase "esprit d'escalier." I find in *L'Illustration* for June 13 the following passage, which may have some interest for your readers and some bearing on the question discussed. It occurs in an article entitled "Amis et Ennemis," and signed by Marie Anne de Bovet:

"J'en ai été toute décontenancée; aussi est-ce seulement en descendant l'escalier que j'ai trouvé ce qu'il y avait à répondre. Cette mésaventure arrive quelquefois: on appelle cela 'l'esprit du palier'!"

Is this the true French form of the phrase?

Yours truly, KENYON COX.

NEW YORK, June 26, 1891.

[Littré does not notice it among his proverbs under *palier*. Between the landing and the stairs there seems little to choose.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT Co. have in press a Supplement to Allibone's 'Critical Dictionary of English Literature and British and American Authors,' in two volumes, containing more than 37,000 author titles and more than 93,000 subject titles, by John Foster Kirk; a 'Life of Benjamin Harris Brewster,' by E. C. Savidge, M.D.; 'The Swiss Republic,' by Boyd Winchester, late United States Minister at Bern; 'Harmony of Ancient History,' by Malcolm Macdonald; and 'Atlantis Arisen: or, Talks of a Tourist about Oregon and Washington,' by Mrs. Frances Fuller Victor.

'Practical Morals,' two essays which divided the prize of $1,000 offered by the American Secular Union for the best work calculated to aid teachers in imparting moral instruction on a scientific basis, will make a book to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The authors are (of "The Laws of Daily Conduct") Nicholas P. Gilman and (of "Character Building") Edward P. Jackson, both already known as writers.

The humorous serial lately running in *Harper's Weekly*, with illustrations by A. B. Frost, 'Farming,' by R. K. Munkittrick; and two novels, 'St. Katherine's by the Tower,' by Walter Besant, and 'My Danish Sweetheart,' by W. Clark Russell, are announced for publication by Harper & Bros.

Macmillan & Co. will bring out a new illustrated volume, by Joseph Pennell, on the River Thames, 'The Stream of Pleasure,' in two editions, one limited on large paper; and 'The Filibusters of the Spanish Main,' by James Jeffrey Roche.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'The Gate to Cæsar,' by Wm. C. Collar, Principal of the Roxbury Latin School. It is a novel editing of the 'Gallic War.'

Salmon's 'School Grammar' (Longmans) possessed such preëminent merit as to cause its speedy adoption in many of our schools as soon as it made its appearance on this side of the water. Naturally the illustrative sentences were chosen in some cases with reference to British eyes, and in this particular the work was susceptible of adaptation to American use. A revision has accordingly taken place, and the publishers have just brought out a fresh edition, with a commendatory introduction by Prof. E. A. Allen of the University of Missouri. The Grammar deserves to supersede all others with which we are acquainted.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. send us the twelfth edition of Sweetser's 'New England: A Handbook for Travellers,' a work without a peer, save the others by the same hand on the White Mountains and the Maritime Provinces.

Last year we chronicled Mr. William Martin Conway's 'Climbers' Guide to the Central Pennine Alps,' a little volume for the pocket, giving the most minute directions for independent explorers in that part of Switzerland. He follows it up this year with a 'Climbers' Guide to the Eastern Pennine Alps,' likewise published in London by Unwin. The edition is but 400 (that magic society number with us), and it appears that everything conspires to increase the body of "Centrists"—the mountaineers who start from the great centres of fashion—at the expense of the "Excentrists," on whom, Mr. Conway insists, "the future welfare of mountaineering so largely depends." His scheme for treating all the divisions of the Alpine chain in a series of little books like these guides was rejected by the Alpine Club, which has preferred to reprint Ball's Guide. Mr. Conway consequently locks up in his drawer his prepared 'Climbers' Guide to the Lepontine and Ticino Alps,' and bids good-bye to guide-book writing—and to Zermatt. It is much to be regretted that his disinterested labors have met with such a chilling reception.

E. Schuberth & Co. have reproduced in book form two lectures by Dr. F. L. Ritter on "Music in its Relation to Intellectual Life" and "Romanticism in Music." The second of these will be found the more readable, discussing as it does the principal composers of the Romantic School, and pointing out the qualities which distinguish them from older schools.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have done well to compile a second series of 'Speeches, Lectures, and Letters by Wendell Phillips.' This collection really antedates the former one, beginning with Mr. Phillips's maiden speech in the anti-slavery cause at Lynn, a few months before his burst of eloquence at the Lovejoy meeting in Faneuil Hall. The volume ends with personal obituary tributes to Theodore Parker, Francis Jackson, Abraham Lincoln, the Garrisons, and Harriet Martineau, his last public utterance. Here also is the famous lecture on the "Lost Arts," which Mr. Phillips omitted from the series of 1863, perhaps because there was still a call for it from the lyceums; the oration on Daniel O'Connell on the Liberator's hundredth birth anniversary; the address at Harvard College at the centennial anniversary of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, "The Scholar in a Republic"; and a great variety of discourses on capital punishment, woman's rights, labor, the Chinese, temperance, etc. In short, while the cream of Mr. Phillips's oratory is to be looked for in his own collection, this fresh and for the most part later gleaning is indispensable to a just estimate of the thinker and agitator. Its value is enhanced by the slender prospect of any adequate Life of Phillips being written. A copy of Vinton's oil painting serves as a portrait

frontispiece, and suggests a better likeness than the "process" gives back.

No. 42 of the Bibliographical Contributions of the Library of Harvard University deals with the "Orators and Poets of Phi Beta Kappa, Alpha of Massachusetts," and is due to the labor of Mr. William Hopkins Tillinghast, Assistant Librarian, in connection with a new edition of the catalogue of the Harvard chapter. The catalogue of 1855 proves to have been untrustworthy, but a complete record seems now impossible. The list is a very distinguished one, and while the chapter has not been independent of foreign talent, the list has a marked Massachusetts and Harvard complexion. George Bancroft's poem (1823) is not discoverable in his volume of verse published in the same year. Edward Everett, Caleb Cushing, Emerson, Holmes, and Hedge were poets and orators by turns.

Joel Munsell's Sons, Albany, have prepared on their own responsibility a supplement to Durrie's 'Index to American Genealogies' issued in 1886. It makes a thin volume of sixty-one pages in double columns, and includes, among other works of reference, the three volumes of 'American Ancestry' published by the same firm a few years ago.

From the Historical Printing Club, Brooklyn, we receive two brochures, 'The Press of North Carolina in the Eighteenth Century,' by Stephen B. Weeks, and 'Wills of George Washington and his Immediate Ancestors,' edited by Worthington C. Ford. The North Carolina press began its productions in the middle of the century, and these were not more appetizing than laws and journals except for an occasional political tract or sermon or text-book. With the Washington wills our readers are, thanks to Mr. M. D. Conway, already partly familiar. Mr. Ford has added a number of cognate letters from Washington, with the later wills of Bushrod and John Augustine Washington, and John Custis; and has provided a convenient index of proper names. The editions in both cases are limited.

The latest volume to appear of the excellent but slightly unequal series of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" is the Comte d'Haussonville's brief biography of Mme. de La Fayette (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern). M. d'Haussonville's narrative is not quite as flowing as that of certain of his predecessors in this series, but his subject is as interesting as any, and his task has been conscientiously performed. Certain letters to Ménage are now for the first time printed, and the date of the death of M. de La Fayette is also for the first time declared, revealing that Mme. de La Fayette was not a widow when her long intimacy with La Rochefoucauld began. Her chief title to remembrance now, nearly two hundred years after her death, is not that she was the friend of La Rochefoucauld or the intimate of Mme. de Sévigné, but that she was the author of the 'Princesse de Clèves,' one of the masterpieces of French fiction, popular to this day, and holding its own beside the later studies of sensibility by M. Paul Bourget and other nineteenth-century analysts. M. d'Haussonville, in discussing its charms, likens it in turn to the 'Crime d'Amour' of M. Bourget and to the 'Supplice d'une Femme' of MM. Dumas and Girardin.

The first *fascicolo* of the reproduction of Leonardo da Vinci's 'Codice Atlantico,' preserved in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, has left the press. This disorderly compilation of a fraction of Leonardo's MSS. which escaped the neglect of his heirs was the work of a sculptor, Leone Leoni. It contains more than 1,700 designs of inventions, etc., and consists of 402 folios. The forty heliotype plates of the first instalment of the reproduction represent the first fourteen folios. The plan of editing is to copy punctiliously Leonardo's notes as written, and to subjoin a modern reading for the common understanding. This codex has suffered many vicissitudes: it was an object of envy to Charles I. of England, who offered a large sum for it in vain, and it was among the spoils of the French in 1796, who restored it to the Ambrosian Library with reluctance after nineteen years' possession. Twelve other codices of Leonardo, carried off at the same time, the French held on to.

A characteristic straining of the law to the restriction of the freedom of the press is the recent decision of the German Reichsgericht, or Supreme Court of the Empire, making proof-readers as well as editors legally responsible and liable to prosecution for the contents of newspapers. The Court argues that the proof-reader, in performing the duties of his office, must come to a knowledge of thoughts, expressions, and statements which any given article contains, and by permitting them to pass renders himself an accessorial agent for the dissemination of the same, and thus becomes *particeps criminis*. As the functions of the proof-reader are not at all editorial or critical, and as he has no right to erase a single word because the idea it expresses is displeasing to him, it seems the height of injustice and absurdity to punish him for what he cannot possibly prevent and is no more responsible for than the type-setter.

In an academical dissertation entitled "Die Ursitze der Indogermanen und das westindogermanische Zahlensystem," Johannes Schmidt of Berlin endeavors to show that the Germanic numerals are the hybrid product of a crossing of the decimal and duodecimal systems, which took place in prehistoric times. From this mixture of Aryan decimalism and Babylonian duodecimalism (the latter having an astronomical origin) he infers that the primitive seat of the Indogermanic race must have been in Asia and near ancient Babylon. As this conclusion is opposed to the most recent researches on this subject, scholars will be inclined to approach it with caution.

The study of medicine at Oxford has made great progress and attracted a steadily increasing number of students since the passing of the Medical Statutes in 1886. This increased demand for the facilities at hand has just been met by the appropriation of £7,000 which has been made by the University for the better and more permanent accommodation of students in anatomy. The training thus given may not become too one-sided and special, because every student of medicine, before entering on the scientific and preparatory part of his professional studies, must, in addition to whatever other examinations may be required for the degree of B. A., have satisfied the examiners in the Natural Science School in physics, chemistry, animal morphology, and botany. Nor is the work done at Oxford in danger of curtailing the necessary practical schooling to be had only in large hospitals, for it relates exclusively to the scientific or preparatory part of the course, and leads up to a first or theoretical examination in human anatomy, physiology, organic chemistry, and pharmacology. As a rule, the student of medicine leaves the University as soon as he has passed this examination, and proceeds with his professional studies elsewhere.

One of the features of the summer courses at Harvard which we mentioned last week, is the presentation of a series of twenty-seven lectures and conferences by various instructors on the methods of instruction in the several departments of the summer schools. The list includes Shaler on geology, Sargent on physical training, Davis on meteorology and physical geography, Bartlett on German, Sanderson on French, Chaplin on applied science, Bergen and Sabine on physics, Torrey on chemistry, Ganong on botany, Royce on the teacher's profession, Manly and Lathrop on English, Lincoln on physiology, and Byerly on mathematics. The lectures will be given late in the afternoon, when all members of the various summer courses will be free to attend them. As most of the summer students are teachers, the conferences promise to be of much practical value in spreading the methods of instruction adopted at Harvard.

The June Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an account of an excursion among the mountains of Daghestan, including an ascent of the peak Shalbuz, famed in the 'Arabian Nights' as the home of the fabled roc, whose wings, when spread, obscured the sun. Although the country has been under the nominal control of Russia for over sixty years, the Turkish language is still universally spoken by all, Georgians, Tartars, Armenians, and Lesghians. This paper is followed by a description of two journeys made by Mr. A. E. Pratt to the western frontier of China for the purpose of making natural-history collections. This was very successfully accomplished, about 700 species of plants having been brought to Kew from the mountains near Ta-tsien-lu, notwithstanding the superstition of the natives, who attributed the unusual severity of the weather to the fact that a stranger was living in the forest, and compelled him to leave. On the sacred mountain Omei Mr. Pratt "more than once witnessed the curious phenomena known as the glory of Buddha. Standing on the edge of the precipice and looking down into the sea of mist which generally fills the valley below, I saw, about 150 feet beneath me, the golden disk, surrounded by rainbow-colored rings of light, which is the chief marvel of Mount Omei and the clearest evidence of its sanctity. Every year many pilgrims commit suicide by throwing themselves down this cliff."

Arminius Vámbéry's suggestive paper on "British Civilization and Influence in Asia" is the leading article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June. After dwelling upon what has been accomplished in India, he expresses his astonishment at the English "indifference to, and want of information coning, matters connected with the East." He also maintains that to the cold reserve and haughtiness which the British trader, soldier, and civil officer too frequently exhibit in their intercourse with Asiatics must be ascribed "the unmistakable decrease of British influence in those parts of Asia where your countrymen have to face the competition of other more pliant and less rigid representatives of the West, and where British manufacturers, in spite of their unquestionable superiority, have lost more than one market." Mr. E. G. Ravenstein discusses the history of the cartography of the Lake Region of Central Africa, in which he scouts the idea advanced by Mr. Stanley that the Ruwenzori range is Ptolemy's Mountains of the Moon. Accompanying the paper are reproductions of Ptolemy's and other early maps of this part of Africa. The closing article, on the definitions of geographical names, is by K. Ganzenmüller. It will prove suggestive and helpful to all teachers of geography.

—The July *Atlantic* is indebted to Prof. Lanciani for a paper which shows what light has been thrown upon early Christian history in Rome by recent excavations. He writes particularly of the Acilian family, and uses the instance to illustrate the spread of the new religion among the patricians, and incidentally he touches upon the interesting tradition of the friendship of Seneca and St. Paul, a subject which will be fully treated hereafter. The inference that primitive Christianity was not so exclusively a possession of the poor and humble as has been thought, is the most important result of these researches. Mr. W. J. Stillman continues the subject of Rome in an article which divides interest between the prehistoric days of the city and its present attractions as a place of refuge and sentiment. He predicts that the disfiguration of old Rome by the Parisian style of the "new quarter" will pass with as little injury to the "Eternal City" as the old Gothic and Bourbon devastations; and meanwhile he assures the tourist that the common fear of the Roman climate is a superstition. Under the enigmatic title of the "Story of a Long Inheritance," Prof. M. Davis follows the "whirl" of a tornado through its causes till he derives it from the "whirl" of the original nebula. Miss Repplier contributes the most readable paper in an amusing account of her researches in the desert of the literature of the Unknown Public. She explored in particular the penny fiction of the English railway news-stalls, and discovered that it was very dull and tame; but therein she found her account, inasmuch as occasion was thus given her for some very pertinent criticism of those who think they know what the Unknown Public wants, and write on the subject to their own confusion. Prof. Shaler makes an attack on the examination system in colleges with great vigor.

—The *Century* easily excels in variety of interest while maintaining its serial features and furnishing a copious supply of short summer fiction; but it offers few papers for special comment because either of their novelty or significance. The student of municipal government will find an excellent account of how Paris is organized and administered, with details of its budget and some useful comparisons with our own ways and means; and those interested in Indian affairs will do well to consider how Indian warfare looks from the army point of view as set forth in a paper upon the campaigns of Gen. Miles, also attractive as mere history. Provençal bull-fights, the geography of the moon, and the always welcome cuts after the Italian masters by Cole, with Mr. Stillman's commentary, illustrate the unusual range and contrasts of the matter and also of the illustrative art which fill the pages. A curious historical relic is given in a eulogy of Lincoln from the long-silent lips of Horace Greeley. This speech was written about 1868, and is strangely reminiscent of Greeley's strong character, with that living-voice quality in the phrase and mode of thinking which vitalizes the text only to remind us how completely the great journalist has passed away. The praise he gives Lincoln is measured, but it is sincere and full, and follows the direction that criticism of Lincoln has since taken; it is, from Greeley's point of view, singularly just. He holds to his belief that Lincoln did not realize the imminence of the war, nor its severity until after Bull Run, and he criticises his policy in some particulars; he emphasizes the view that events controlled him in the Presidency, and that he was not of exceptional ability by nature. The comparison of the eulogy with that by Carl Schurz will bring out the influence of the last quarter century in defining Lincoln's fame.

—*Scribner's* has evolved so strongly an individualized type that the character of each number can be anticipated with perhaps more certainty than is the case with its rivals, and in the present issue it is needful only to mention the ocean-steamship serial, the two sporting articles on the Izard and the Black Seabass, and the end-paper, a criticism of Landor, or more accurately of the critics of Landor, in which Mr. Clymer pleads for the literature of the coterie, as if any one meditated disturbing the Brahmins of taste in their contemplative mental habits. The world is as careless of them as of the Epicurean gods, and if they enjoy themselves with him who covertly boasted that he "neither lived nor died with the multitude," no one will trouble the fine seclusion of their lofty pleasures; indeed, some of us who are not out of contact with the "multitude," may occasionally take a half-holiday in the trim gardens without jostling any of the unworldly philosophers who there abide. The sacrosanct ideal of taste, however, though not without justification in certain relations, has, like most mortal sanctities, a wonderful affinity with humbug; as soon as comparative criticism begins, its idols usually fall down. The opening of the Japanese Parliament offers material for an entertaining sketch by Prof. Wigmore; and Denmark, Hayti, and the Mexican border also come within the geographical survey of this number, and there is the usual fiction. If there be anything for which the habitual reader is unprepared, it is where the frontispiece exposes to the pitying eye what seems a lost explorer, insufficiently clothed, sitting on a glacier. Can this be Horace's "Faunus"? And those poor women, without even the decency of a shiver upon them in the white waste of Greenland's icy mountains—are they our old friends the nymphs?

—*Harper's* is distinguished by the friendly comment of Mr. Curtis upon Dr. Holmes, as a poet and as a writer of prose, in which he defines the veteran author's most prominent traits, and expresses the popular appreciation of the Autocrat and the Phi Beta Kappa poet very nearly as it exists in the mind of the public, who read the terse sayings and smooth verses with gusto now as much as formerly. It is doubtless true that no author of our own day, with an intellectual snap, tells more on the average mind. Mr. Curtis, in the course of his paper, gives an entertaining and sympathetic account of the taste of the town of Boston in the epoch of Dana and Pierpont, and does something more than justice to the episode of N. P. Willis in its literary annals; but the sketch is characteristic in its light touch and slightly veiled humor. In the remainder of the number we find nothing so noticeable as Mr. Brander Matthews's "Briticisms and Americanisms," in which he gives examples of the development of English in its colonial homes, and rejects the authority of London in the use of words. On some of his examples more might be said than he ventures, and in his manner of address there is a touch of irritability, a disposition to lecture our cousins a little, that show how imperfect still is our self-possession in the use of our mother-tongue as we learned it on this side. The bulk of the magazine is made up of serial papers.

—The advocates of the higher education of women may claim for their views the weight of a century more of existence than is usually accredited to them. In a brief monograph, reprinted from the April and May numbers of the *Journal of Education*, Karl Bülbring reviews the relation to more modern thought of the works of Mary Astell, a brilliant woman of the seventeenth century, whose name has fallen into undeserved oblivion. In her spirited protest against the "plaything" or "upper servant" conception of her sex, Mary Astell preceded the supposed protagonist of the rights of women, Mary Wollstonecraft, by a hundred years. It is interesting to be able to decipher in a 'Serious Proposal to the Ladies' (of the year 1694!) the outlines of the first scheme of a college for women. Mrs. Astell sets herself to prove, in her 'Essay in Defense of the Female Sex,' the revolutionary doctrine that Providence and nature intend woman to be a companion and equal to man. She does it, however, in conciliatory fashion: "A Man ought no more to value himself upon being Wiser than a Woman, if he owes his Advantage to a better Education and greater Means of Information, than he ought to boast of his Courage, for beating a Man when his Hands were bound." To Mrs. Astell justly belongs the distinction of "the first expression of the opinion that lasting happiness in marriage is best secured by intellectual intercourse." This is the burden of her 'Reflections upon Marriage.' It is an indication both of her own robustness of mind and of the self-evidence of her main conclusions that she is able to draw them from premises which are commonly believed to lead only to contrary ones. That her books are so scarce as to be practically inaccessible is to be regretted. They deserve to be known by those who prefer to reconcile the departures of the present with the traditions of the past, as well as by those to whom the history of the progress of the sex is in itself a matter of interest.

—Most of the older States now have, or have had, State geological surveys. Specialists in other departments have been attached to many of these surveys, and the reports upon geology and upon various branches of natural history have been numerous and valuable. It has remained, however, for the State of Illinois to organize upon a permanent basis a State Laboratory of Natural History of much wider scope than the so-called "State Geological Surveys," and to connect it closely with the public educational system. The Laboratory may be said to be the direct offspring of the State Natural History Society, which originated in 1862 and terminated its useful career in 1871, when its museum was transferred to the State. The collections were then formed into the State Museum of Natural History. In 1877, the Museum proper was transferred to Springfield, and the Laboratory was left in the State Normal University at Normal, to enter upon its present functions under the able directorship of Prof. S. A. Forbes. Its chief objects, in the language of its Director, are "the prosecution and aid of original work on the natural history of the State (preference being given to subjects having special educational or economical value), the publication of the results of such work for the information of the people, the training and instruction of teachers of botany and zoölogy for the public schools, and the supply of the necessary scientific material to these schools, to the State Museum, and to the State educational institutions. It affords a place to which any specialist or scientific student may come with the assurance that he will find everything necessary for special study or original

work on the natural history of Illinois, to which any teacher may come for preparation to teach these subjects intelligently, and upon which the officers of any school may draw for material to illustrate the scientific work of their school." We have received from the Laboratory examples of its publications, which are numerous and of a high order, and attest the amount and quality of the work done by, or under the directorship of, Prof. Forbes. A number of the bulletins are technical in character, being descriptions of new species, or are lists of the plants and animals living within the State; but a glance at the titles shows that Prof. Forbes has interpreted the law providing for the institution as chiefly designed to foster investigations having an economic bearing. Accordingly, a large number of the reports are upon subjects that have a practical value to the farmer or that relate to the food supply. We believe this example will not be lost on other States.

JAMES'S PSYCHOLOGY.—I.

The Principles of Psychology. By William James, Professor of Psychology in Harvard University. [American Science Series, Advanced Course.] Henry Holt & Co. 1890. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xii+689, and vi+704.

Upon this vast work no definitive judgment can be passed for a long time; yet it is probably safe to say that it is the most important contribution that has been made to the subject for many years. Certainly it is one of the most weighty productions of American thought. The directness and sharpness with which we shall state some objections to it must be understood as a tribute of respect.

Beginning with the most external and insignificant characters, we cannot much admire it as a piece of bookmaking; for it misses the unity of an essay, and almost that of a connected series of essays, while not attaining the completeness of a thorough treatise. It is a large assortment of somewhat heterogeneous articles loosely tied up in one bag, with tendencies towards sprawling.

With an extraordinarily racy and forcible style, Prof. James is continually wresting words and phrases of exact import to unauthorized and unsuitable uses. He indulges himself with idiosyncrasies of diction and tricks of language such as usually spring up in households of great talent. To illustrate what we mean, we will open one of the volumes at random, and we come upon this: "A statement *ad hominem* meant as part of a reduction to the absurd." Now a *reductio ad absurdum* is a species of demonstration, and as such can contain no *argumentum ad hominem*, which is merely something a man is obliged by his personal interests to admit. On the next page, we read: "This dynamic (we had almost written dynamitic) way of representing knowledge." On the next page: "They talk as if, with this miraculous tying or 'relating,' the Ego's duties were done." It is the same with the technical terms of psychology. Speaking of certain theories, our author says they "carry us back to times when the soul as vehicle of consciousness was not discriminated, as it now is, from the vital principle presiding over the formation of the body." How can anybody write so who knows the technical meaning of *vehicle*? On the same page occurs this phrase, 'If unextended, it is absurd to speak of its having space relations at all," which sounds like a general attack on the geometry of points.

Prof. James's thought is highly original, or at least novel; but it is originality of the destructive kind. To prove that we do not know what it has been generally supposed that we did know, that given premises do not justify the conclusions which all other thinkers hold they do justify, is his peculiar function. For this reason the book should have been preceded by an introduction discussing the strange positions in logic upon which all its arguments turn. Even when new theories are proposed, they are based on similar negative or sceptical considerations, and the one thing upon which Prof. James seems to pin his faith is the general incomprehensibility of things. He clings as passionately to that as the old lady of the anecdote did to her total depravity. Of course, he is materialistic to the core—that is to say, in a methodical sense, but not religiously, since he does not deny a separable soul nor a future life; for materialism is that form of philosophy which may safely be relied upon to leave the universe as incomprehensible as it finds it. It is possible that Prof. James would protest against this characterization of his cast of mind. Brought up under the guidance of an eloquent apostle of a form of Swedenborgianism, which is materialism driven deep and clinched on the inside, and educated to the materialistic profession, it can only be by great natural breadth of mind that he can know what materialism is, by having experienced some thoughts that are not materialistic. He inclines towards Cartesian dualism, which is of the true strain of the incomprehensibles and modern materialism's own mother. There is no form of idealism with which he will condescend to argue. Even evolutionism, which has idealistic affinities, seems to be held for suspect. It is his *métier* to subject to severe investigation any doctrine whatever which smells of intelligibility.

The keynote of this is struck in the preface, in these words:

"I have kept close to the point of view of natural science throughout the book. Every natural science assumes certain data uncritically, and declines to challenge the elements between which its own 'laws' obtain, and from which its deductions are carried on. Psychology, the science of finite individual minds, assumes as its data (1) *thoughts and feelings*, and (2) a *physical world* in time and space with which they coexist and which (3) *they know*. Of course these data themselves are discussable; but the discussion of them (as of other elements) is called metaphysics, and falls outside the province of this book. This book, assuming that thoughts and feelings exist, and are the vehicles of knowledge, thereupon contends that Psychology, when she has ascertained the empirical correlation of the various sorts of thought and feeling with definite conditions of the brain, can go no farther—can go no farther, that is, as a natural science. If she goes farther, she becomes metaphysical. All attempts to *explain* our phenomenally given thoughts as products of deeper-lying entities (whether the latter be named 'Soul,' 'Transcendental Ego,' 'Ideas,' or 'Elementary Units of Consciousness') are metaphysical. This book consequently rejects both the associationist and the spiritualist theories; and in this strictly positivistic point of view consists the only feature of it for which I feel tempted to claim originality."

This is certainly well put—considered as prestigiation. But when we remember that a natural science is not a person, and consequently does not "decline" to do anything, the argument evaporates. It is only the students of the science who can "decline," and they are not banded together to repress any species of inquiry. Each investigator does what in him lies; and declines to do a thousand things most pertinent to the subject. To call a branch of an inquiry "metaphysical" is merely a mode of objurgation, which signifies nothing but the author's personal distaste for that part of his subject. It does not in the least prove that considerations of that sort can throw no light on the questions he has to consider. Indeed, we suspect it might be difficult to show in any way that any two branches of knowledge should be allowed to throw no light on one another. Far less can calling one question scientific and another metaphysical warrant Prof. James in "consequently *rejecting*" certain conclusions, against which he has nothing better to object. Nor is it in the least true that physicists confine themselves to such a "strictly positivistic point of view." Students of heat are not deterred by the impossibility of directly observing molecules from considering and accepting the kinetical theory; students of light do not brand speculations on the luminiferous ether as metaphysical; and the substantiality of matter itself is called in question in the vortex theory, which is nevertheless considered as perfectly germane to physics. All these are "attempts to explain phenomenally given elements as products of deeper-lying entities." In fact, this phrase describes, as well as loose language can, the general character of scientific hypotheses.

Remark, too, that it is not merely nor chiefly the "soul" and the "transcendental ego," for which incomprehensibles he has some tenderness, that Prof. James proposes to banish from psychology, but especially *ideas* which their adherents maintain are direct data of consciousness. In short, not only does he propose, by the simple expedient of declaring certain inquiries extra-psychological, to reverse the conclusions of the science upon many important points, but also by the same negative means to decide upon the character of its data. Indeed, when we come to examine the book, we find it is precisely this which is the main use the author makes of his new principle. The notion that the natural sciences accept their data *uncritically* we hold to be a serious mistake. It is true, scientific men do not subject their observations to the kind of criticism practised by the high-flying philosophers, because they do not believe that method of criticism sound. If they really believed in idealism, they would bring it to bear upon physics as much as possible. But in fact they find it a wordy doctrine, not susceptible of any scientific applications. When, however, a physicist has to investigate, say, such a subject as the scintillation of the stars, the first thing he does is to subject the phenomena to rigid criticism to find whether these phenomena are objective or subjective, whether they are in the light itself, or arise in the eye, or in original principles of mental action, or in idiosyncrasies of the imagination, etc. The principle of the uncritical acceptance of data, to which Prof. James clings, practically amounts to a claim to a new kind of liberty of thought, which would make a complete rupture with accepted methods of psychology and of science in general. The truth of this is seen in the chief application that has been made of the new method, in the author's theory of space-perception. And into the enterprise of thus revolutionizing scientific method he enters with a light heart, without any exhaustive scrutiny of his new logic in its generality, relying only on the resources of the moment. He distinctly discourages a separate study of the method. "No rules can be laid down in advance. Comparative observations, to be definite, must usually be made to test some preëxisting hypothesis; and the only thing then is to use as much sagacity as you possess, and to be as candid as you can."

PERRY'S GREEK LITERATURE.

A History of Greek Literature. By Thomas Sergeant Perry. Henry Holt & Co. 1890.

In this large and handsome volume Mr. Perry has chosen a good model, and his publishers have done everything to assist him. They have given him "ample room and verge," fair paper, wide margins; they have permitted him numerous illustrations, which are generally interesting, well chosen, and well executed. In these respects the work is an improvement upon its model, Albert Wolff's 'Pantheon des Classischen Alterthums.' An octavo of nearly 900 pages might have been much more handily divided into two volumes; some of the full-page landscapes might have been spared without loss; the restoration of the theatre of Dionysus at Athens (p. 227) belongs apparently to the age of Phædrus, and presents some features that are distinctively Roman. In general, however, the pictures are from authentic sources, and are a tasteful and harmonious embellishment of the literature they illustrate.

Another excellent feature which Mr. Perry's plan shares with his German model is the abundance which it offers of extracts from the more important authors. The usefulness of these extracts even for the superficial reader might have been increased by noting the title and portion of the work from which they were taken; in many cases we have no indication whatever of this or of the English translator. The translations are usually well chosen, and are sometimes new; in particular, Mr. Louis Dyer's versions from Euripides are as spirited and scholarly as might have been expected. Some specimens of hexameters, like Dr. Hawtrey's or Mr. Matthew Arnold's, would have illustrated to the unlearned reader the movement of Homeric verse, which is here almost exclusively represented by the Spenserian stanza and by Chapman's vigorous but involved expression and occasionally rugged numbers.

When we come to the history proper, we find less to say that is favorable. Mr. Perry has read much about Greek literature and thought, but has failed to learn what the Greeks are supposed to teach first and foremost—the sense of measure and proportion, the lesson of clearness and directness. It is not easy to convey an impression of the meanderings, the rambling excursions which our author permits himself, because we should be obliged to cite whole pages of irrelevant discussion. Some of this is introduced by way of comparison and illustration; a large part simply sets forth loosely the author's own philosophy, his notions, his moralizings—in fine, his recollections. The result is a great waste of space which might have been more economically devoted to the business in hand. The brief sketch of Theophrastus affords a miniature of this method and its results. The reader gets from it no clear idea of the nature of the work called 'The Characters,' which might have been given in a very few words. He gets no information as to the interesting personal relations which subsisted between Aristotle and his disciple; none as to the fact that two important botanical works, the 'Researches about Plants' and 'Principles of Vegetable Life,' have been preserved and handed down to us. Yet Prof. Jebb, in his primer, has found room for nearly all of this in a dozen lines. On the other hand, the reader is treated to certain reflections, neither very important nor very pertinent, which fill a quarter of the whole space allotted to the successor of Aristotle. This is a larger allowance than Mr. Perry generally claims for his philosophizing—a tithe is often sufficient for him; but a tithe out of 800 pp. is a large proportion. It is a larger allowance than Thucydides receives, or Plato, or Aristotle, and it is made to an author who is not yet distinguished as a classic or as a philosopher.

No careful writer or thinker ever managed his pronouns with Mr. Perry's daring and fine disdain of context. On p. 619 we read: "It is to the credit of Greece that, when everything else failed them, they held true to things of the intellect." On the preceding page we encounter this luminous comparison: "Just as a medical student does not need to dissect everybody to know human anatomy, so we may find in Isocrates the specimen of the majority of his citizens, just as Demosthenes is the vivid example of the impotent opposition"; or again, "The orator urges Philip to undertake his old hobby." This carelessness of expression corresponds often with vagueness of information and thought, and is accompanied by a self-confident, jaunty philosophy and an unfailing didactic vein. Mr. Perry has himself "undertaken" several hobbies, and he is constantly careering on one or another of them through these pages. In the first place, he has borrowed M. Taine's hobby—a theory of which a recent careful writer has remarked that it probably was never strictly true of the literary development of any country except Egypt. Again he is carried away by the scientific hobby—the conviction that literature as well as everything else not only can be reduced to law, but has been already summarized in some perfectly simple and satisfactory formulæ, which the expert can apply with the greatest ease in the world. The expert is the student of comparative literature, in a large and comprehensive way, who can detect at a glance the resemblance between remotely separated epochs and authors, and can generalize upon its laws and causes. Mr. Perry feels himself equal to this task, and so he rides the hobby of comparison with great freedom and hardihood.

This wandering method and these prepossessions often lead to very unsatisfactory results. It is impossible for the ordinary reader to gather from the confused and somewhat contradictory notice of Aristotle the reason why he has been called "Master of those who know," not only by Dante, but also in some of the most recent appreciations of his scientific labors. It was not, perhaps, necessary in a treatise on literature to touch on these labors at all; but, since this was done, some attempt might have been made to convey an idea of the difficulties that beset an investigator who undertook more than the encyclopædic task of Herbert Spencer, in a region as benighted in respect of physical science as China or Thibet; some idea might have been conveyed "of the enormous range of Aristotle's work within the four corners of biology, his amazing instincts of scientific method, and his immense power of grasping generalizations." The strong expressions we have quoted are not the language of a literary critic—they are the words of Dr. Romanes, who certainly in the matter of biology has some right to speak with authority, and who bases his estimate on facts which he specifies. It is interesting to contrast this language, as well as the testimony of Lewes and of Darwin himself, with the condescending tone of Mr. Perry, with his vague depreciation and misapprehensions.

Another instance of the way in which Mr. Perry's philosophy colors his presentation of the facts may be seen in his account of what was accomplished by Wolf for the Homeric question. Mr. Perry cannot away with the word "genius." From time to time he turns aside to remind us all that there is no such thing; and he does this in that abrupt and casual manner which Mr. Matthew Arnold calls a lack of urbanity, a violence to the reader. It would be hard to gather from page 21 exactly what conception Mr. Perry had of Wolf's contention. In three different passages on that page it is implied that his opponents maintained the 'Iliad' to be "the work of a creative genius," and that somehow Wolf maintained the reverse of this proposition. It is needless to say that the question of genius was not in dispute at all. Wolf never thought of impugning the genius shown in the 'Iliad'; he lived half a century too early for the notion to enter his head. It is true he conceived of the 'Iliad' as the work of several poets, and, in so far, as a growth; but his express words are that "the greater part of the songs must be assigned to Homer, the poet who first took up the theme," and he speaks of "the divine force and breath of natural genius" which the original Homeric poetry displays. But Mr. Perry is probably here, as often elsewhere in his book, belaboring a man of straw, a creature of his own fancy. However, once Mr. Perry has entered his protest, he praises Homer as ordinary people do who still retain "the now vanishing idea of genius as an inspirer of literary composition." Indeed, he seems to lose the calm spirit of scientific criticism. "Homer first and almost alone," he says, "has seen nature"; and again, in a torrent of surprising metaphor, "The astounding brilliancy of the Greeks is here, as it were, in the bud, and we find it fascinated by the spectacle of the world in its newness before literature had left its trail of associations over the whole face of nature."

To this sample of Mr. Perry's critical quality we may append some apparently slight but suggestive slips. Deinarches, and Iotros (for Ister), may be due to the printer, "Kointos Smurnaios, or Quintus Smyrnaeus, as he is commonly called," rouses deep misgiving in the mind of the scholar; it is just as possible to speak of "Kaligolas, commonly called Caligula." "Orpheus is a pure invention, as mythical as his Sanskrit compeer, the ideal poet Rithu." "Rithu" is, of course, meant for Ribhu; but Ribhu was not "the ideal poet," he was a semi-divine artisan, inventor, and priest—a Daedalus rather than a poet; and it is not accurate to call either Ribhu or Orpheus "a pure invention." A good deal of misinformation on the duties of the Choregus is suggested in a few lines on page 231. Why, moreover, in a popular treatise, raise the mooted question of the origin of the Greek hexameter? Who knows positively "that the Greeks already possessed, in common with the rest of the Aryan family, a rudimentary measure out of which they developed this favorite form"? This theory has been strongly controverted of late by M. Kawczynski, in his elaborate treatise on rhythms, as is also the derivation of poetical rhythm from music, of which Mr. Perry says the origin is "not far to seek," meaning by this that we are to find it, with Darwin, in the inarticulate musical sounds of earliest man when influenced by love or some strong emotion. Most people would think this was seeking very far. Our point, however, is simply this, that in a popular history of literature such questions and digressions are a chase after will-o'-the-wisps.

Memoir of Jenny Lind-Goldschmidt: 1820–1851. By H. S. Holland and W. S. Rockstro. Scribners. 2 vols., pp. 458 and 506.

Perhaps no other profession contains so large a proportion of bunglers and charlatans as is

to be found among teachers of singing. Hundreds of promising voices are ruined every year by incorrect training of the vocal organs, and the result is a painful scarcity of good singers, and the consequent slow growth of popular interest in good music. Even Jenny Lind, who, taking everything into consideration, may perhaps safely be pronounced the greatest vocal artist that ever lived, had a narrow escape from coming early to grief, owing to an incorrect training of her voice. She was as precocious as some of the great composers, and she used to relate that her earliest distinct memory of childhood was how, one day, she crept to the piano and strummed out the fanfare that she had heard the military buglers play in the street. She was discovered by her grandmother, who, when her mother returned, exclaimed: "Mark my words, that child will bring you help." She herself wrote that "as a child I sang with every step I took, and with every jump my feet made"; and the audience for which she sang at that time was her pet cat.

"Her favorite seat with her cat," her eldest son writes, "was in the window of the steward's rooms, which look out on the lively street leading up to the Church of St. Jacobs; and there she sat and sang to it; and the people passing in the street used to hear and wonder, and amongst others the maid of a Mlle. Lundberg, a dancer at the Royal Opera-house; and the maid told her mistress that she had never heard such beautiful singing as this little girl sang to her cat. Mlle. Lundberg thereupon found out who she was, and sent to ask her mother, who seems to have been in Stockholm at the time, to bring her to sing to her. And, when she heard her sing, she said, 'The child is a genius; you must have her educated for the stage.'"

Her mother and grandmother had a prejudice against the stage, but consented so far as to allow her to appear before Singing-Master Croelius, who took her to Count Puke, the head of the Royal Theatre. That settled the matter. The vocal gem, once discovered, could not be lost sight of again; and as Jenny's mother was very poor, she was educated at the expense of the State, which also paid for her board while she remained with her mother. At this time she was nine years old, and at seventeen she was playing as a regular actress at the Royal Theatre at a fixed salary. Her talent as an actress was indeed fully as remarkable at an early age as her vocal skill, and to this early dramatic training she owed much of her subsequent success as an opera-singer. It was the part of *Agathe* in the "Freischütz" that first showed her the true sphere of her talent. "I got up that morning one creature," she used to say, "and went to bed another creature. I had found my power." And she always celebrated the 7th of March as a second birthday.

Her fame as an opera-singer now grew apace rapidly, and her reputation soon became national. But she had an instinctive feeling that though all Sweden was singing her praise, she still had much to learn before she could consider herself a perfect artist. So she resolved to go to Paris, at that time the musical centre of the world; and a wise move it was, of which a much longer postponement would probably have frustrated all her future triumphs. Her voice had been over-fatigued by a provincial tour, and she had never known how to take proper care of it; the result being that when she sang before Signor Garcia, she broke down, and the eminent teacher had to tell her frankly, "It would be useless to teach you, mademoiselle; you have no voice left." This was a terrible blow, but Garcia advised her to rest completely for six weeks, and promised then to reconsider her case. She did so, was subsequently accepted, and the result of the best voice in the world trained by the best teacher was the future Jenny Lind. But it was a narrow escape, for a few years—perhaps a few months—more of her unguided singing would have ruined her voice for ever.

This is not the place to enter into details regarding Signor Garcia's method of teaching his gifted pupil; but we earnestly recommend every student of vocal music to read this memoir, and to ponder especially chapter ii. of Book II. and chapter xi. of Book VIII., which contain more useful hints than a great many long treatises. They show, also, that Jenny Lind was willing to work patiently, and that in her case, as in that of so many others, genius was largely "an infinite capacity for taking pains." During her enforced idleness, while waiting for her voice to recover from its fatigue, she devoted her hours to learning Italian and French; and subsequently, when in Germany, she did the same with the language of that country, so that she finally could sing in these languages as well as in her native Swedish. And, unlike Patti, she was always most careful in pronouncing her text and not slighting shades of emotion in the poetry. While in Paris she also carefully studied the great actresses. The following brief note to Lindblad throws light on this, as also on her extreme modesty, which was real and not assumed:

"Shall I tell you my thoughts? The difference between Mlle. Rachel and myself is that she can be splendid when angry, but she is unsuited for tenderness. I am desperately ugly, and nasty too, when in anger; but I think I do better in tender parts. Of course, I do not compare myself with Rachel. Certainly not. She is immeasurably greater than I. Poor me!"

The reference to her own "ugliness" recalls what she wrote to the editor of a Swedish cyclopædia regarding her appearance before the Stockholm operatic director at the age of nine, describing herself as "a small, ugly, broad-nosed, shy, *gauche*, undergrown girl." She won her successes in spite of a lack of personal beauty, for which the expressive play of her features amply atoned; and as for the awkwardness to which she refers, that was overcome by careful study in the class-room even before she left Stockholm, so that her biographers could write that "her perfect walk, her dignity of pose, her striking uprightness of attitude were characteristic of her to the very last."

The one thing to be regretted in Jenny Lind's career is that she won most of her triumphs in an inferior class of operas—the works of Bellini, Donizetti, Rossini, and Meyerbeer—as is illustrated by her two seasons in Vienna, 1846 and 1847, when she appeared in opera thirty-one times, all but one of which were in Bellini, Donizetti, and Meyerbeer operas. This, however, was not her own fault, but that of the audiences, which at that time preferred these flimsy operas to those of Weber, Gluck, Mozart, and Beethoven. She sang altogether, during eleven years, 677 times in 30 operas, including most of those then famous, except "Fidelio." Inasmuch as "the rich, sustained tones of the *soprano drammatico* were far more congenial to her voice than the rapid execution which usually characterizes the lighter class of soprano voices," there can be no doubt that she would have felt happier on the operatic stage, and would not have left it twenty years before the close of her career for the concert stage, had she lived to-day, when operatic audiences have a higher taste for real dramatic music. When she did appear in a Weber, or Mozart, or Gluck opera, the effect was unrivalled, and she was also, what Patti could never aspire to be, a wonderful interpreter of the most poetic and melodious of vocal compositions—the German *Lieder*. On pages 389–391, vol. ii, are printed some letters by Clara Schumann, in which she states that Jenny Lind sang all of her husband's songs in the manner which she had pictured to herself as ideal, but in which she had never dreamed of hearing them sung. "Nothing escapes her, not even the softest harmonic change. I need scarcely mention that Robert is equally charmed with her; for a composer it is a special delight to hear his songs rendered as coming from the depths of his own heart. She left, and each time she left, I stayed behind in a state of intense excitement, her notes and words continuously quivering in my soul."

Nothing, indeed, is more noticeable in the records of Jenny Lind's life than the unqualified and enthusiastic approval bestowed on her by those supreme judges in music, the composers themselves. "But what remains for your friends to wish to say, for you whom heaven has so richly endowed?" wrote Meyerbeer. "It has given you that great and sympathetic voice which charms and moves all hearts; the fire of genius which pervades your singing and your acting." This composer even consulted Jenny Lind when writing his operas, over and over again (I., 221). Chopin wrote, after hearing her in London: "This Swede is indeed an original from head to foot. She does not show herself in the ordinary light, but in the magic rays of an *aurora borealis*. Her singing is infallibly pure and true; but, above all, I admire her *piano* passages, the charm of which is indescribable." But the most enthusiastic admirer among the composers was Mendelssohn, whose correspondence with the great singer fills up more than two chapters of this memoir, and who wrote: "She is as great an artist as ever lived; and the greatest I have ever known."

Enough has been quoted from this biography to show that it is a good thing. Indeed, the only fault that can be found with it is that it is too much of a good thing. The accounts of operatic triumphs in various cities could have been profitably reduced in number. There is a good index and a valuable twenty-four-page supplement, containing cadenzas and other passages used by Jenny Lind in her version of various famous songs.

The Memoirs close with the singer's retirement from the operatic stage, and therefore do not give an account of her marvellous doings in America under Barnum's management; but as there is already a volume covering that part of her career, the omission is pardonable. Special mention must be made, finally, of Mr. Rockstro's admirable remarks, in the seventh chapter of Book IV., on Weber's 'Euryanthe.'

Excursions in Art and Letters. By William Wetmore Story. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

MR. STORY'S new volume is practically a supplement to the 'Conversations in a Studio,' and is made up of five papers none of which is particularly novel or attractive. The first three are upon Michel Angelo, Phidias, and the Art of Casting in Plaster among the Ancient Greeks and Romans, and these are somewhat elaborate, and have the exterior look of learning. The discussion of Phidias and of Plaster-casting is controversial, and is directed to showing in the one that Phidias was not a worker in marble, and should have no part of the credit for the Elgin marbles and other

sculptures of the Athenian age in this material, but that he used ivory and gold, and was a kind of Cellini on a grand scale; and in the other case Mr. Story concludes that plaster-casting was not known to the ancients. The latter portion of the volume is occupied with a religious discussion supposed to take place as an imaginary conversation between the author and Marcus Aurelius, and also with a criticism of "Macbeth." The religious essay belongs to a stage of interest in the subject which among persons of education is so far past as to have become merely historical, and we can see no useful purpose it can serve in the present day, when its touch of Voltairean crudity removes it from our intellectual sympathy. The paper upon the character of *Macbeth* and his lady is more attractive, and engages a certain interest by presenting a paradoxical view; it is always open to a writer on Shakspere to win attention by contradicting the accepted interpretation of the characters of the plays, and arguing in favor of the new conception with a plausibility which the nature of the subject permits, just as one can maintain that Judas was a martyr and Napoleon a myth. A similar value appertains to Mr. Story's reading of "Macbeth," though we would not be understood to imply that there is anything of such artifice in his argument as is in the Judas and Napoleon cases. The volume as a whole is narrow in interest.

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Blake, J. V. St. Solifer. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Burnett, Frances H. Earlier Stories. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Cambridge, Miss A. The Three Miss Kings. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Crane, W. Renascence; A Book of Verse. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Church, A. J. The Greek Gulliver. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40 cents
Conway, W. M. Climbers' Guide to the Eastern Pennine Alps. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Davidson, R. T. Life of Archibald Campbell Tait. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $12.
Deighton, K. Shakspere's Antony and Cleopatra. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Eleven Possible Cases. Short Stories. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
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Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. X. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
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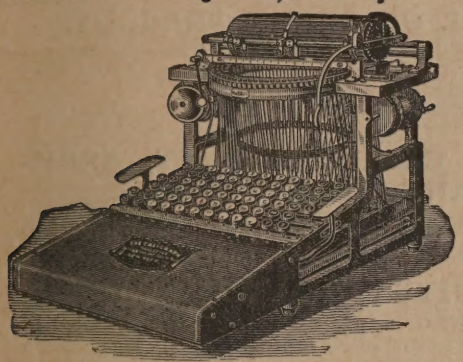

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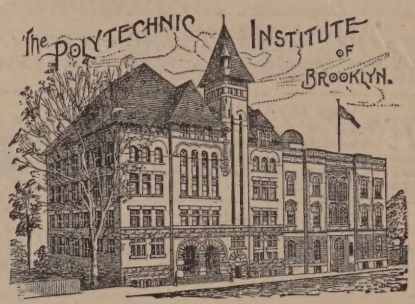

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 9, 1891.

The Week.

THE change in the form of the Treasury statement adopted by Secretary Foster consists mainly in the relegation of the greenback-redemption fund of $100,000,000 gold to the general resources of the Government, instead of a special fund set apart for a special purpose. This change is of no great importance except as a symptom of the state of mind prevailing at headquarters. This state of mind is certainly wrong if regard is had to the intention of Congress in creating the one-hundred-million fund, for that intention was clearly set forth in a debate in the Senate on the 21st of June, 1882, when the rather blind paragraph relating to this fund was enacted. The paragraph reads in this way:

"That the Secretary of the Treasury shall suspend the issue of such gold certificates whenever the amount of gold coin and gold bullion in the Treasury reserved for the redemption of United States notes falls below one hundred millions of dollars."

The history of this clause is as follows: It was introduced by Senator Aldrich at the date above mentioned as an amendment to the National Bank Act of that year, and the object was, as stated by the members of the Finance Committee, to prevent the holders of greenbacks from drawing gold from the Treasury and redepositing it and taking gold certificates instead; or rather it was to put a limit to that operation. Whenever the Treasury gold should be reduced to one hundred millions, this operation should be no longer possible, although of course there was no limit to the amount of gold that could be drawn by the holders of greenbacks for their own use, or for deposit in bank or in their own private vaults. They would not be allowed to use the Treasury vaults for the safe-keeping of the gold so drawn.

This amendment brought up for the first time the question, What is this hundred-million gold fund anyway; where did it come from, what was it intended for? Senator Allison said that it was a fund specially accumulated for greenback redemption, and he asked Senator Sherman, who, as Secretary of the Treasury, had accumulated it, whether that was not the fact. Mr. Sherman replied in the affirmative. The exact amount of bonds sold for this special purpose was $95,500,000. The Secretary was authorized by the Specie Resumption Act to do this. When this was clearly brought out, Senator Ingalls was struck by the fact that there was no provision of law clearly indicating that the $100,000,000 gold which had been obtained by a special issue of bonds for the redemption of greenbacks was *reserved* for that purpose. Such remissness, he said, was "radically and absolutely wrong." To meet the *casus omissus* he proposed to insert the words "*reserved* for the redemption of United States notes," in place of the words "*available* for the redemption of United States notes," as Senator Aldrich had prepared his amendment. The matter was debated through four pages of the *Congressional Record* of the date mentioned (pp. 5,165–5,169), at the end of which, everybody being perfectly informed of the character and object of the amendment, Mr. Ingalls's motion was adopted without a dissenting vote, and the Aldrich amendment as amended was adopted by a like vote. This history shows with sufficient clearness that Secretary Foster's state of mind touching the legislative intendment of the act of 1882 is wrong. Treasurer Jordan was right in putting the $100,000,000 gold fund in a special place in the monthly statement of assets and liabilities.

For upwards of eleven years, ever since Secretary Windom put the Treasury bookkeeping into business-like form, the daily statement has specified the amounts of gold coin and bullion, silver coin and bullion, United States notes, and fractional coin held by the Government, and the certificates outstanding against them, together with the account of Government deposits in national banks. This furnished material for an accurate and ready computation of the actual situation of the Treasury. When the purchase of silver under the act of July 14, 1890, was begun, the account of silver held under this law was introduced, with a record of Treasury notes outstanding against such bullion. Last Friday's statement broke away from all these business-like precedents, and undertook to lump together in one item the entire Government account in silver, comprising not only the dollars and bullion accumulated under the Bland law, but the trade-dollar bars which are not yet melted up and recoined. Distinction is no longer made between these separate accounts, though they actually tell the history of three radically different experiments in Government coinage. It is impossible, from the figures presented, to strike balances which tally within several millions with the balances of the last statement under the old form. This simply means that hereafter no citizen is to have the opportunity of knowing how much silver bullion has been accumulated under last year's act, or what is the increase or decrease in the older stock of standard dollars. If there should be a sudden and startling change in the net Treasury balance on the silver account, we must take the word of Treasury officials as to its real nature and cause. The public statement will tell us little or nothing. This juggling with the books has secured on the face of the reports an increase in the surplus of six to seven millions, and, apparently, Secretary Foster cares for nothing else. In business circles, men with peculiar ability for creating abnormally large surpluses by manipulation of the bookkeeper's accounts are looked upon with profound suspicion.

The failure to put Prof. Nipher, of the chair of physics of Washington University, Missouri, in charge of the Weather Bureau, as appears to have been practically settled, was preceded by a very remarkable telegraphic correspondence, which ran as follows:

"WASHINGTON, D. C., June 29.

"*Prof. Francis E. Nipher:*

"What are your politics? Answer by telegraph.

"——, Secretary of ——."

To this Prof. Nipher telegraphed:

"Replying to your telegram as requested, I respectfully state that I am not a politician and do not intend to engage in politics."

The result, apparently, of this was that Mr. Mark Harrington, the editor of the *American Meteorological Journal*, got the place. We must say we think Prof. Nipher's answer was, from a worldly point of view, a very ill-judged one. He ought to have answered somewhat in this way:

"*Secretary* ——, *Washington.*

"Have been meditating so much during the last six weeks on the farmer that I have had but little time to follow current political events. Am a firm believer in such protection for the national industry as will secure to the laborer the fruits of his honest toil and an abundance of leisure, to the capitalist a reasonable profit on his investments, and to the farmer, a market close to his house, but with very cheap transportation to distant markets should he prefer them. Believe strongly in making foreign importers pay the duty on all foreign importations, so that the price shall not be raised to the domestic consumer, but am in favor, also, of making the domestic consumer pay a sufficiently high price for his commodities to preserve his self-respect and that of his family and poor relations. I firmly believe, also, that the manufacture of American tin plate is being carried on extensively in various places in this country, which, however, on public grounds, I decline to name or describe more specifically. I am in favor of the circulation of all the gold and silver money the mints can coin at par, and despise the variations in the value of those metals reported from monarchical countries by interested parties. The slanders on eminent public men now current in a neighboring State excite my deepest indignation, and I cordially hate Mugwumps, and have not for many months admitted one to my house. Should I be put in charge of the weather, I shall give my best endeavors to making it suit the farmers of all sections, being well aware of the indifference to their just demands hitherto shown by the so-called meteorologists.

"FRANCIS E. NIPHER."

From the time that Bardsley, the thieving City Treasurer, appeared in court and read a confession which confessed nothing, there have been rumors in Philadelphia that he had at first prepared a confession which was a very different kind of document, but had been induced by powerful influences of some kind to suppress it. Mr. McKean, the editor of the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, has admitted that the supression took place in his

office. He says that he received no "confession" from Bardsley, but merely a "statement," and that, "instead of being a paper that would be of service to the public, it was a repetition of accusations and scandals against reputable persons upon no better authority than two witnesses wholly unworthy of credit—John Bardsley and Gideon Marsh—and in large part hearsay testimony at that." He adds that it is the *Ledger's* habit to "decline to publish scandalous attacks upon individual character upon any such testimony," but that if the Investigating Committee desires him to appear before it, or to place the statement in its hands, he is ready to do so. We observe that the other Philadelphia newspapers are inclined to the view that the document will not only have to be handed to the Committee, but to be published in full, because its suppression is breeding suspicions far more damaging than its contents are likely to prove.

It looks very much as if the so-called Citizens' Republican Association of Philadelphia, which started out a few weeks ago with the avowed purpose of driving from the Republican party "all that is bad, dishonest, and wrong," were a bogus reform movement in the interest of Senator Quay. We had grave suspicions of its character when one of its leaders made haste to explain that the movement was not directed against any particular person, but was designed to secure reform on broad general lines. That is the kind of reform movement which all political rascals are warmly in favor of. Now the Secretary of the Association goes a step further in broadening the scope of the organization by declaring that it "has nothing whatever to do with the movement against Quay" which took such a formidable shape a few days ago. "We," says the Secretary, speaking officially, "are not striking at any individual. We will direct our efforts to bringing about reform within the party lines." That is to say, they will stay within the party lines with Quay, and submit to his leadership without question when he shall have gone through the easy and familiar process of ignoring their wishes in the primaries and nominating conventions. "Reform within the party" is the kind of opposition which the Quays of every party most delight to see.

The action of the Iowa Republican Convention last week simply emphasizes the position previously taken by the Democrats, viz, that the campaign of this year must turn on the State issue of prohibition and the national issue of McKinleyism. The silver question and other issues are touched upon in the platform of each party, but none of them will count for anything. As regards what is rightly called "the conspicuous issue in the State campaign this year," the Republicans endorse prohibition, but the party cannot be held solidly to support a ticket which stands for the maintenance of the law. No less than eighty-four members of the Convention, with a member of the State Senate as one of their spokesmen, stood up to be counted against this plan and in favor of a substitute resolution declaring for local option and high license. Some of the Republican newspapers will work openly for the election of an anti-prohibition Legislature. The Keokuk *Gate City*, for instance, said the other day: "We should prefer a local-option platform, but we do not expect to get it. We and other Republicans hereabout will try and repeal prohibition if we can." In another editorial article upon the same subject, the *Gate City* says: "If there is prohibition in any shape in the Republican platform, it means that several thousand Iowa Republicans who have not yet voted against the party will do it this time."

All this goes to sustain the judgment expressed by the Des Moines *Register* last December, that "the Republicans of Iowa must contest the next campaign on national issues, or defeat is certain." In other words, they are foredoomed to defeat if the State issue of prohibition controls the casting of the votes, because a majority of the voters are opposed to the policy which the Republicans promise to maintain. But can they carry the State if they convince the voters that they ought to cast their ballots with reference to the national issue of McKinleyism? That remains to be determined. An incident of no little significance for its bearing upon this question occurred in the recent Henry County Republican Convention. Resolutions were introduced which said, among other things: "We endorse the doctrine of home protection in the interests of agriculture and labor in all its departments, and recognize the McKinley law as the ablest expression of the principles of protection, and we pledge ourselves to its support." But the convention was in no mood to accept such a deliverance without question. Says the report in the Burlington *Hawkeye*, a Republican organ: "Mr. W. R. Cole, one of the clearest-headed Republicans, objected to binding themselves to the McKinley law. He was in favor of protection, but the method of bringing it about was a debated question, and the McKinley method might possibly fail. He preferred protection to McKinley." Mr. Cole's substitute resolution was lost, but the really important fact is that "one of the clearest-headed Republicans" openly opposed the endorsement of McKinleyism. In last year's Congressional elections 185,783 voters in Iowa supported the McKinley policy, while 194,832 opposed it. The question this year, if the election can be made to hinge upon that issue, is whether McKinleyism has gained ground during the interval. Whatever the result, an "educational campaign" of the sort that benefits the people is certain.

When the advocates of the admission of Idaho as a State were presenting their arguments in Congress, a year ago last spring, the lowest estimate as to the population of the Territory which they would admit was 120,000, exclusive of the 4,500 Indians. Mr. Dubois, then the delegate from the Territory, and afterwards elected Senator from the State, declared it "certain that the population is somewhere between 120,000 and 140,000 persons, and between those limits it must rest till the new census shall be taken." The Census Bureau on Thursday gave out the official figures, and the number of inhabitants proves to be only 84,385. As the population in 1880 was nearly 33,000, the gain has been at the rate of only about 5,000 a year, a rate at which it will be nearer 1900 than 1890 before the total reaches the lowest estimate put forward by the advocates of admission last year. However, if it never rises above 84,385, there will be as many United States Senators from the State as from New York or Pennsylvania.

Bad as is Idaho's case, the condition of Nevada is far worse. The population of that sage-brush tract, according to the new census, is only 45,761. As there were 62,266 inhabitants in 1880, there has been a loss of more than one-fourth during the decade. Between 1870 and 1880 there was a slow growth from 42,491 to 62,266, but the total is already back nearly as low as in 1870, and there is no telling but it may continue to fall until it sinks to the 6,857 of 1860. No matter how far it sinks, however, there will always be two United States Senatorships for San Francisco millionaires to buy at private sale.

The reverence with which the McKinley tariff is regarded by the protectionists very nearly equals that entertained by the followers of Mohammed for the Koran. The more preposterous the absurdities, the flatter the contradictions, the greater the exhibition of faith on the part of true believers. The latest deliverance of the New York *Tribune* upon the subject of the duty on linseed oil is a very good example of this *credo quia impossibile* kind of political religion. The duty upon this article was increased in spite of the existence of a Trust; the duties upon sugar, upon steel rails, and upon steel beams were decreased because of the existence of Trusts; but the infallible tariff works out its beneficent end of cheapness for the consumer with equal certainty in every case. The increased duty upon linseed oil sent down the price; the decreased duties upon sugar and steel rails also sent down the prices. The *Tribune* confesses with penitence that in a moment of weakness it doubted if it were wise to increase the duty upon linseed oil—not that it questioned the inspiration of the tariff, but because it was apprehensive of the outcry of monopoly from unbelievers. But an overruling wisdom decreed that the duty should be increased, and now the *Tribune* declares, with contrite tears, that it will no more venture to make use of fallible human reason in criticism of the sacred and supreme authority. According to its belief, any measure enacted by a Republican Congress is perfect. Everything inconsistent with it is false. Everything added to it is superfluous.

Switzerland has been slow to learn that the appetite for protection grows with eating, but the lesson is at last being brought home with considerable force. When, in the tariff of 1884, the Federal Government first departed from the economic policy which it had pursued until then, it simply paved the way for demands which have since been growing louder and louder. Three years later the protected interests succeeded in saddling greatly increased duties upon the country, and on the 14th of April last a new tariff was adopted increasing the duties on the necessaries of life, such as coffee, sugar, butter, eggs, lard, etc., to such an extent as to lead to the formation of a league whose object it is to prevent the obnoxious duties from going into force. This may be accomplished by resort to the *referendum*, that safeguard by which any new law may, on the demand of 30,000 citizens, be submitted to popular vote, and almost at the eleventh hour—for the appeal must be made within three months from the adoption of any measure—the League decided to collect the necessary signatures. That it was not sooner induced to take this action was due to the pressure exercised on all the political parties of Switzerland by the impending commercial treaties with Germany and Austria-Hungary, the negotiations for which it was hoped would be concluded by the end of May. In reality, however, these negotiations were almost brought to a stand-still by the very tariff expressly framed to further them, in the expectation of exacting more favorable terms from Germany and Austria-Hungary by the threat of onerous duties on the imports from these countries.

The outcome of the appeal to the *referendum* ought not to be doubtful, if the laboring classes can be made to see that the taxes on the necessaries of life, including clothing, have increased five-fold since 1884, without a corresponding increase in wages. In fact, the increase of taxation in Switzerland during the last thirty years, in proportion to the increase in population, has been entirely out of keeping with the traditional reputation for economy which Switzerland enjoys. Prof. Georg Schanz, in his work on 'The Development of Swiss Taxation since the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century,' has shown that republican Switzerland, in spite of its almost total freedom from military burdens, has in the increase of taxation outstripped Prussia. Thus in 1851 the taxes in Prussia amounted to 10.76 marks per head, and in 1884 to 30.12 marks, whereas in Switzerland the taxes were 7.9 francs per head in 1856 and 37.3 francs in 1886. The agitation carried on in Germany against the retention of the corn duties has undoubtedly stimulated the zeal of the Swiss League; and now that the eyes of the laboring classes are being opened to the benefits of protection, the agrarian associations, both in the east and west of Switzerland, are likewise beginning to repudiate the alliance with the protected interests which the latter have so assiduously cultivated.

France is following the example of Germany and Switzerland in framing laws regulating the manner of paying the wages of factory hands. The French Government intends to embody in its project the Swiss feature of semi-monthly payments, and to limit deductions for fines, or for the purpose of guaranteeing employers against uncalled-for stoppage of work, etc., to three-tenths of the amount due the laborer. In Germany, factory wages are paid indifferently weekly or bi-weekly, and in some establishments only once a month; and deductions for any cause whatever are limited to the amount of one week's wages. In both Germany and Switzerland the principle of these regulations is being attacked by the labor parties, and in the former country the Social Democrats based their opposition to the law for the protection of workingmen on the ground of its involving a recognition of the right of the employer to retain any part of the stipulated wages. It will be interesting to watch the fate of the French measure in the Chamber, and to note the attitude of the French laboring classes towards regulations which, in spite of their adoption in Switzerland, have hitherto been pointed to as opposed to the spirit of liberal institutions.

The recent session of the Prussian Landtag was one of the longest and most fruitful on record, and has had the general approval of the press. According to the Constitution, the deputies must be convoked between November 1 and January 15 of each year. Under Bismarck the session commonly began as late as possible. The excuse was that the financial relations of Prussia to the Empire made it difficult to legislate till the imperial budget had been made out. In other words, the deputies did little save to pass routine appropriations. The Minister found it more convenient to administer the Government without their assistance. The new Ministry was diligent during the summer, and, although it had been in office but seven months, it was able to lay before the Landtag on November 21 a scheme of legislation so comprehensive that it might almost be called a programme. In delicate but unmistakable terms it was intimated that much had been neglected in recent years, and that the houses must make up for lost time. Of the many bills introduced, three principal ones proposed a reform of the system of primary schools, a change in the income and other taxes to pave the way for the eventual transfer of the land tax to the local units, and a plan to make possible the abolition, by administrative measures, of the pocket boroughs in the seven old provinces. The School Bill met almost universal opposition, though on very different grounds from different factions, and lies over the session. The tax reform was adopted with some modifications, and the Communal Regulation Act, in spite of persistent obstruction by the conservative elements, finally went through both houses. This law, which carries out, virtually on the lines that Stein proposed, a reform begun by that statesman more than eighty years ago, is naturally displeasing to the representatives of the country landholding interest. In the eastern part of Prussia, where the influences of feudalism are still distinctly discernible, there exists a system of farm communes (*Gutsgemeinde*). These communes, although as independent as the towns, stand under a local Government administered almost exclusively by the owner of the estate as communal magistrate. Many of them are of pigmy size, and even if, as a rule, they have not been badly governed, the owner, nevertheless, possesses almost absolute power over his peasants, and the nature of the relation is contrary to the fundamental principles of Prussian administration.

Above the chorus of approval with which the leading journals of Germany, Austria, and Italy greet the renewal of the Dreibund rises the protesting shriek of the Ultramontane *Osservatore Romano*. Its mournful utterances over the isolation of France are marked by the same want of reserve which has been noticeable of late in its columns, and particularly in a recent article predicting a miraculous alliance between the true Church and the Christian Democracy of France. This prediction went far to justify the apprehensions expressed by Signor Crispi in a speech delivered at Florence last October, as to the outcome of the Radical agitation against the Triple Alliance. His argument that the Radicals were in reality serving the ends of the Church was then indignantly characterized as a slander by democratic orators and journals, as well as by clerical papers. Significantly enough, however, on the very day when the *Osservatore* proclaimed the solidarity of interests between the Church and the French Republic, the Democratic Association of Rome issued a manifesto condemning the Dreibund and calling on the people to decide between armed misery and "sovereign liberty." The appeal was to have been followed by a series of public meetings protesting against a renewal of the Dreibund, which, however, were promptly prohibited by the Ministry. It ought to be said that both in the camps of the Clericals and of the Radicals may be found critics who regard the utterances of the *Osservatore* and the Irredentists as ill-timed. Thus, the radical *Tribuna* fears that the attitude of the Democratic Association may cast doubts on the sincerity of its motives, inasmuch as the agitation against the Dreibund, to be effective, ought to be carried on by all the political parties of Italy. And the outspokenness with which the *Osservatore* disclosed the inmost thoughts of the Vatican has even given rise to the suggestion that possibly a friend of Crispi's succeeded in smuggling into its columns the article bearing out the assertions of his Florence speech.

BUSINESS FAILURES IN 1891.

MESSRS. R. G. DUN & Co. publish the statistics of business failures for the six months just ended. The number who failed was 6,074 for the United States, as compared with 5,385 for the same period in 1890. Liabilities in 1891 were $92,416,000, and in 1890 $65,319,000, an increase in number of traders of 689 and in liabilities of $27,000,000. In the list given are many States which show fewer failures than last year: New York, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, and Minnesota especially so. The cities of Chicago, St. Louis, San Francisco, and New York also show a cleaner record. For these States and cities we may conclude that, in spite of our last winter's stringency, business has been conducted on a conservative basis with a reserve of financial resources. Boston, indeed, shows greater losses than last year, but much less than in 1889. More interesting is the following table of States whose failures the present year are larger than in the corresponding six months of 1890 and 1889:

States.	Amount of liabilities.		
	1891.	1890.	1889.
Alabama.....	$1,386,063	$523,050	$468,317
Arkansas.....	1,365,933	544,384	352,100
Connecticut....	1,745,991	828,894	866,972
Georgia.....	3,074,360	362,930	689,376
Kentucky.....	3,200,981	708,966	701,929
Massachusetts..	3,897,207	1,642,523	2,565,110
Mississippi.....	914,481	591,164	289,374
Missouri.....	9,232,045	1,089,923	736,620
New Jersey	3,153,537	805,184	541,129
City of Cincinnati.....	1,032,406	544,026	376,764
Oregon.....	431,000	244,500	93,700
City of Philadelphia.....	8,942,309	3,651,227	4,220,912
Tennessee.....	3,567,075	683,061	613,351
Texas.....	3,393,762	885,037	1,464,590

The Kansas failures in 1891 are not much larger than in 1890, contrary to the general impression, nor are those in Nebraska much greater. Dun's Kansas City report on this point says "a considerable portion of the revenue from the abundant crops will be absorbed in clearing away mortgage debts; still, the belief is that the residue will be amply sufficient to sustain an increasing commercial trade." A glance at the table shows the main losses to be in the Southern States. There must have been hard times in Georgia, Kentucky, Missouri, Tennessee and Texas, since the liabilities for 1891 exceed so greatly those in the two previous years. Dun's circular is accompanied by reports from all the business centres of the country. Their tone is generally hopeful because of the abundant crops in prospect and the expected demand for our cereals abroad. But in the Southern States just mentioned the reports, while not at all pessimistic, still point out the need of caution. Nashville, for example, says: "Collections have been on the whole poor and money hard to get. Farmers have been poor and the country merchant cramped. There is a conservative feeling all along the line." In the same way Louisville reports the worst past and the outlook for the future brighter.

In the cotton States the fall prices for that staple are awaited with some anxiety. Augusta, Ga., reports, "A decrease in values [of cotton] might be attended with serious consequences to those country merchants who are carrying the farmers; still, prospects are considered good." From all points come the reports that the farmers are carrying over large quantities of cotton—a dangerous experiment in view of the expected large crop this year. Thus Savannah says: "In two counties there are at least 2,000 bales of last year's production yet unsold. These will have a tendency to glut the market if not got rid of previous to baling the new crop." Added to this is the increased price which Southern farmers must pay for Western grain not raised by them. Mobile reports: "Some regard the coming season as one fraught with more danger than usual because of the large amount of grain required by the farmers throughout this section."

The South is still laboring under the disadvantages and dangers growing out of its dependence upon one crop. Low prices received for cotton, and high prices paid for corn and other commodities not grown or produced, make a very unfavorable combination. The holding over of cotton or other farm products by the farmers seems to have been done by the advice of the Farmers' Alliances, which issued circulars recommending that course in order to compel the factors to pay more to the farmers. The best advice to farmers would be to sell their products soon after harvesting. Farmers are not capitalists in the business sense of the word, and are not well enough informed upon the general conditions which enter into the question of future values, to make a success of speculating. In the competition of capitalists for their product lies the farmers' hope of getting the highest price that trade conditions will permit. For the farmer who harvests in a month the whole supply of cotton or wheat for the year, the question of value for his crops six months hence is one of great importance. Since this value so far in the future is a matter of opinion wherein men will differ, there must of necessity be speculation; yet this speculation becomes the direct means of giving the producer at harvest a larger price than the immediate consumptive demand would warrant. There is, no doubt, too, that the system of borrowing in the South is enormously wasteful, compelling the farmer to pay practically such high rates of interest as to half ruin him when prices for cotton rule low. No business could long stand it, and cotton-raising cannot. Still, hard as it is to say so, there seems no real remedy except through failures, by which the business may fall into hands financially strong enough to follow it successfully.

Aside from the States mentioned, Connecticut shows increased losses, Massachusetts still more, and New Jersey very large liabilities. Certain lines of manufacturing in New England seem to be unsuccessful this year for causes not yet fully stated. Boots and shoes and rubber goods are examples. Hartford, Conn., reports, "The general tone of business has been of a rather depressing character, though a good deal of inquiry among prominent manufacturers and others has failed to reveal any good reason for the disappointment which is freely admitted." The New Haven report thus fairly sums up the general feeling regarding the business outlook: "Business men are not inclined to view with alarm the present somewhat depressed condition of trade. Though business as a whole is not quite up to last season at this time, a general feeling of confidence and satisfaction seems to be shared by all."

THE NEW PRUSSIAN INCOME TAX.

IN the brief speech from the throne with which the King of Prussia recently adjourned the Landtag, he thanked the members emphatically for accepting so many of the new Ministry's measures, and especially for laying "necessary and excellent foundations for the improvement of the tax system," which is to achieve "a just distribution of the public burdens according to ability to bear them." Nevertheless, of the three parts in which Dr. Miquel's tax-reform scheme was laid before the Deputies, they refused the inheritance tax outright, they largely modified the income tax, and allowed only the tax on trades and industries to go through approximately in the same form in which it had been presented by the Government.

The first assessment for the income tax under the new law will take place in 1892. The mode of assessment is substantially as follows: The communal magistrate (*Gemeindevorstand*) makes a list of all taxable persons in the commune, and estimates, from such data as he can obtain, the income of each. This list is revised and corrected by a board of provisional assessment (*Voreinschätzungscommission*), consisting of the magistrate as chairman and a number of assessors, the majority of whom are elected by the town, the minority appointed by the Minister of Finance. The lists, thus corrected, go to a board of county (*Kreis*) assessors, also composed of a majority of elected and a minority of appointed members, who hold office for six years and are eligible for any number of successive terms. In addition to the corrected assessment-roll furnished by the communal assessors, the county board has another source of information, viz., the direct declaration of the taxpayer himself. Each taxpayer who has an income of 3,000 marks or more, must fill out an official blank giving the amount of his income from each of four sources: capital, real estate, and rent (including the rental value of his residence if he owns it), trade and industry, earnings from professional or other occupation, so far as they are not already included in the first three classes. He must also specify the amount of his income from property or industry situated outside the *Kreis*, and the amount of the debts or the other burdens on account of which deductions from the assess

ment are expected. After comparing these declarations and the provisional assessment-rolls with its own knowledge of each taxpayer, the county board makes definitive assessments. The aggrieved taxpayer may appeal, as may the chairman of the Board, to a special tax court.

Thirty-six such tax courts are formed, one for each department (*Regierungsbezirk*). A majority of their members are chosen by the Executive Committee of the elected provincial Legislature from among the citizens of the Department, and a minority, including the chairman, are appointed from Berlin. From these tax courts there is an appeal to the Superior Administrative Court, the tribunal of last resort in cases involving the official conduct of a member of the civil service. All persons concerned in the assessment take an official oath of secrecy, and the records of the boards are inaccessible save to officials who have taken this oath.

How this mode of assessment would have worked if the rate of taxation had not been raised, is difficult to say. It might have worked well. Prussians are already accustomed to an income tax. They surrender willingly to officials much that an American considers very decidedly his own business. Respect for public officers is, justly, with them much greater than under the dominion of the spoils system; and to be convicted of tax-dodging by means of a direct lie, instead of being considered a praiseworthy evidence of "smartness," would be a social disgrace. In addition, the legal penalty for being caught in an untruthful declaration is high, and the probability of its enforcement is great. These inducements to honesty might have been sufficient, at the old accustomed rate of 3 per cent. as maximum tax, to improve the present assessment, perhaps to improve it largely.

But a way lay open to make assessment by declaration substantially just. Had the Government, at the same time that it made false declaration dangerous, also made true declaration attractive; had it reduced the maximum tax to 2½ or even to 2 per cent., it is likely that many taxpayers, pleased by this mark of confidence in their honesty, would have told the truth. The detection of false declarations would then have been greatly facilitated, both by means of comparison with the true ones and by the support which favorable public sentiment would have lent the assessors in fulfilling their duty. The assessment, in all probability, would have been so much sharper that no deficiency would have been caused by lowering the tax-rate. And even if a deficiency were caused, it could not embarrass the Government seriously, since the whole income tax produced last year but sixteen million dollars, only a small part of the public revenue of Prussia. The Government might well have run the risk of a small temporary deficiency in order so to introduce the declaration that honesty should become from the outset part of its nature and soon grow part of its tradition. If the deficiency actually occurred, it would have been easy, after a short time, to raise the tax to its old rate, or, as the temper of the Landtag showed, even higher. Meanwhile, the most important point would have been gained. Honesty would have been established as a necessary, even a natural, part of the declaration.

This opportunity, really great both as a matter of just taxation and of eventual increase in revenue, has been lost. The Landtag allowed the rates on incomes less than 30,000 marks to remain at the figures proposed by the Minister, but introduced by amendment a further progression for larger incomes beyond the long-established rate of 3 per cent., so that hereafter the tax will be 3⅓ per cent. on an income of 50,000 marks, and will reach 4 per cent., the maximum rate, at an income of 100,000 marks. The upper chamber refused for a long time to consent to the bill, but finally gave way, and the Finance Minister, unwilling to add another to the long series of unsuccessful attempts at reforming the income tax, assented to the change. Now, entirely apart from the question how far Prussia can justly carry an income-tax progression which in itself she considers just, and without suggesting that, as a matter of theory, 4 per cent. is too high, we regard the introduction of the 4 per cent. rate at the same time with the new declaration as very doubtful policy. Heretofore many wealthy people have been able to secure an under-assessment simply by keeping quiet. That hereafter, unless they are deliberately dishonest, they will be assessed if not higher than they should be, still higher than they have been, will be in itself a grievance. When to higher assessment is added a higher tax-rate, the temptation to declare falsely will be strong. For the absolute difference caused by this higher rate is larger than at first sight appears. The cities and towns generally raise a considerable portion of their revenue by a surtax upon the national income tax. One hundred per cent. surtax is the rule, 200 per cent. is not unusual; in some of the democratic cities in the industrial district of Westphalia and the Rhine province 300 per cent. surtax and even more is levied. City taxes seldom fall in rate. It is not, therefore, simply a question whether the Elberfeld manufacturer who has an income of 100,000 marks shall pay the 3 per cent. he once expected to pay under declaration, instead of the virtual 2 per cent. he paid in the days of under-assessment, but whether he shall pay for national and local purposes 12 per cent. instead of the previous 6 per cent.

A PLAIN MORAL QUESTION.

Some aspects of the current theological controversies lend themselves to the professional mystification of experts who warn off the ordinary man as incompetent to discuss such technical questions. One position, however, assumed by some of the advanced liberals is so stripped of technicalities and brought down to so simple an issue of right or wrong that one man's moral sense is as competent as another's to pass judgment upon it. We refer to the idea which the *Christian Union* keeps reiterating, with the approval of many, that a minister may honorably remain in the service of a church though repudiating leading articles of its creed. It is admitted that the dissent is open, that it is radical, and that it has to do with matters of belief which the denomination at large regards as vital, and which church courts would hold to be essential to ecclesiastical standing. It is acknowledged that no man rejecting the articles in question could obtain admission to the ministry of the particular sect, in the first instance. Still, it is maintained, once in he may rightfully stay; in fact, it is his duty to stay and reform the creed according to his notions. To call in question the honesty of such a proceeding is to expose one's self to being held up as an enemy of religion —a thing that surprises us in the *Christian Union*, as if it were to revert to the old homiletical practice of holding up "the merely moral man" to condemnation.

The defence put forward for this position, which we have declared to be morally perilous, will not bear examination. It consists, in the first place, of the assertion that it is monstrously absurd for the creed-makers of one age to bind the thinkers of the next. This is the worst form of the "dead-hand" tyranny, we are told. But all this is aside from the point. The "dead-hand" system is a fact in ecclesiastical organization, whether we like it or not. Its legal sanctions are unquestionable; that is admitted. But its moral sanctions are just as unquestionable. It is the only way a denomination has of maintaining its integrity. It is its instinct of self-preservation. And no man is called upon to submit himself to it with his eyes shut. The minister has the situation put clearly before him at his ordination, and accepts it. In the Presbyterian Church, for example, he has solemnly to "approve the government and discipline of the Presbyterian Church," to "promise subjection to his brethren in the Lord," and to undertake to "maintain the purity and peace of the Church." After thus deliberately accepting the "dead-hand" system, what sort of a spectacle does a man present railing at its hardships? He has put the yoke on his own neck; if it galls, let him throw it off, but let him not deny the existence of the yoke.

In this aspect of the matter, it becomes an even more serious affair than simple rejection of articles of the creed. It is a direct renunciation of the authority of the Church. It is a denial of the elementary right of the Church to defend itself. The *Christian Union* says that the minister ought to make no secret of his heresy; he ought "frankly and fearlessly to avow it." But he ought to do more than that: he ought to declare his unwillingness to submit to any form of organized belief. He rejects the authority of any official creed. A church would be ineffably silly to "reform" its creed at the behest of a set of men who announce beforehand their contempt for the whole system of official creeds, reformed or otherwise.

But it is further maintained that a minister's loyalty is not really pledged to a creed, but to "Christ and the truth." This is to confound what may be a man's private feel-

ing and attitude with what is his public and official position. And since the whole question is as to the morality of his public and official position, this form of defence again appears irrelevant. Such a plea would not be listened to for a moment in a civil or ecclesiastical court. Fidelity to the express language of the creed, not to any assumed private standard, would be insisted upon. And how is it different in the forum of conscience? How can a man there substitute a private standard for the one he has publicly and officially agreed to stand or fall by? It must be remembered that it is not now a question of being within the generally recognized liberty of interpretation and subscription. The very point of the case lies in the heresy being undeniable and quite beyond the limits of denominational toleration. In such circumstances, for one to fall back on the sincerity of his devotion to "Christ and the truth" seems to us morally as unjustifiable as it is legally absurd.

We do not need to say that all our sympathies are with the men in the various denominations who are open-minded enough to see how the new wine of modern research is hopelessly bursting the old ecclesiastical wine-skins. If they can conscientiously read the new meanings into the old shibboleths, well and good. If they belong to a church which has officially and publicly declared that the historical symbols are not regarded seriously any longer, even though nominally retained, we must absolve the ministers while condemning the church. But if they have seriously accepted the creed of a denomination which continues to take its creed seriously, and then think they can flout it while still serving under it, we can only say that the mass of men will regard that as an immoral thing to do.

THE IRISH LAND BILL.

LONDON, June 23, 1891.

THE Irish Land Bill, intended by Mr. Balfour to be one of the chief factors in his scheme for the establishment of social order in Ireland, has passed its third reading and been sent up to the House of Lords. It is not likely to be materially altered there, so that the time has come when an attempt may be made at describing its main features. It is a measure of extraordinary complexity. Only the ablest members could take an effective part in its discussion, or suggest or carry through material amendments. The Government, with its usual majority, nine-tenths of whom really knew nothing whatever of the bill, could at will vote down the combined Irish members of all parties, most of whom at least had some opinions on the subject. A reference to other acts and to scattered Government returns not even specified in the bill, is necessary for its comprehension. How simple and open to ordinary intelligence were the most advanced appliances of civilization fifty years ago compared to the complications with which our lives are now surrounded! So the legislation of the past was generally as comprehensible as a child's primer compared to the network of enactments, such as the Irish Land Bill, in which society is now being more and more involved.

The Parliament of the United Kingdom, instead of letting England, Scotland, and Ireland raise separately funds for their internal administration, levy taxes off the United Kingdom, and then almost by rule of thumb portion it back for local purposes. As, under the influence of modern economic ideas, increasingly heavy demands are made upon taxpayers, so the allotment of local grants to the three kingdoms becomes larger, and their apportionment more and more difficult. The sums granted to Ireland are mainly for constabulary and Castle rule; poor-law unions in relief of rates, road authorities in relief of county cess; a share of new customs and excise duties, application not yet arranged; education, industrial schools; the salaries of teachers and medical officers in poorhouses; medical offices and medical and surgical appliances for the poor; salaries of officers under the Public Health Act, and support of pauper lunatics. Constabulary and Castle government, being the essentials of British rule in Ireland, are to be held clear. The other grants above named, with £40,000 per annum as an "exchequer contribution," amounting altogether to £1,350,000 (less £180,000, the proportion payable to the larger Irish cities, not supposed to be directly interested in land purchase), are to be held as security for a Government advance for land purchase of their capitalized value, £30,000,000. This is the essential basis of the bill. England, having for her own purposes planted the present land system in Ireland, seeks partially to abolish it, at the risk, not of the United Kingdom, but of Ireland. The above grants are distributed to the Irish counties in certain proportions. The loan is to be allotted, accordingly, in what, during the discussion of the bill, have been familiarly called "water-tight compartments." For instance, £1,474,000 is all that will be allowed for the purchase of land in Antrim, even should the contiguous counties, Derry and Down, not require their proportions of £791,000 and £1,495,000. This system runs all through the measure. The counties are "water-tighted" as to their purchasing powers; each year is "water-tighted" as to losses falling on the guarantee fund; the Irish grants are "water-tighted" as to their application if not fully needed for the main purposes specified. Then, again, the country may be "chess-boarded" in tenancy and ownership by the sale of only portions of estates.

Landlord and tenant must agree as to sale and purchase. There is no compulsion about the measure on either side. Having agreed, they apply to the Land Bureau, which will confirm the bargain and carry out the sale if the bargain be such that the tenant is considered likely to meet his engagements under it. The landlord will be paid three-fourths of the agreed sum in guaranteed land stock, bearing 2¾ per cent. interest. The other fourth, bearing a like interest, will be held over as a guarantee deposit until the tenant has paid a certain number of his annual instalments. The tenant is then put into possession of his holding, and, paying 4 per cent. on the purchase money, will, at the end of forty-nine years, become absolute owner. Of this 4 per cent., 2¾ per cent. is the above-named interest to the landlord, ¼ per cent. goes to strengthen the guarantee fund, and 1 per cent. to a sinking fund which will extinguish the principal after forty-nine years. If the tenant defaults, he will be sold out. In case of loss on resale or of agitation against the payment of rents or instalments, recourse would be had to the guarantee fund. In such a case the Lord Lieutenant will have the power of direct levy or direct stoppage of grants, without reference to any local authority. Should the tenant have bargained to pay less than twenty years' purchase of the annual value of his holding, he must pay a heavier instalment during the first five years of his tenure, as an insurance against possible bad seasons, which additional instalment will, after he has been in possession eighteen years, be allowed him in future payments. Such are the main provisions of the bill. The necessary bookkeeping will test human ingenuity. Well did Mr. Morley say, "I think that if the Chief Secretary were to go to any great firm of accountants in the city, and submit the question of these accounts to them, they would absolutely despair."

Speaking generally, the objections to the bill are: Its not being comprehensive. It will affect but a small proportion of the tenants. It is not likely that the £30,000,000 can, owing to the complexity of our land tenure, be apportioned further than £1,500,000 a year. It hypothecates local resources without local consent or control. It will render more discontented than ever the tenants under rent, who will be paying a heavier price for their land, without the prospect of ownership, than those under the Act, who will become owners in forty-nine years.

Each party in the House took up a different attitude towards the measure. It was discussed in Committee for over thirty sittings of seven hours each, during which, according to Mr. Balfour's acknowledgment at the end, the Irish members showed "conspicuous ability and entire fairness." Beyond furnishing an irresistible majority, which must have had an easy time of it in the library and smoking-rooms, the Conservatives generally can hardly be said to have taken part in the debate. They left it almost entirely to Mr. Balfour, aided occasionally by Mr. Madden, Attorney-General for Ireland, and in fiscal details by Mr. Goschen, Chancellor of the Exchequer. The English Liberals were opposed to the bill, mainly on the ground that it was a hypothecation of imperial credit to relieve Irish landlords from their difficulties. They ridiculed the idea that, in case of some great misfortune to Ireland, such as bad seasons, the grants to education and to pauper lunatics would be cut off rather than that the Imperial Exchequer should suffer.* While voting against the second and third reading, they heartily supported the Irish members in their attempts at amendment. All Irish parties voted for the second reading on the ground that the bill, however defective, would confer certain benefits upon a large number of tenants.

Generally speaking, the Irish parties assumed quite different attitudes towards the measure. The handful of Ulster men supported Mr. Balfour. Mr. Parnell patronized the bill, and denounced the Nationalists as jeopardizing it by their discussion of details. For the most part his men absented themselves: only one or two took any practical share in the discussions. The main opposition came from a small body of Nationalists, and of this small body only three or four, fully grasping the measure in all its particulars, accomplished anything. Two members won the admiraton of even their bitterest opponents—Mr. Sexton and Mr. Knox, quite a young man, little over a year in Parliament. Mr. Sexton has grown out of that "windbag" style at first said to characterize him. In statesmanlike ability and flexibility and in debating power he occupies a

* Judging from the past, neither the local rates nor the Exchequer are likely to suffer. The extraordinary punctuality with which our people have hitherto met their engagements in land purchase is much to their credit. The last report of the Commissioners, that up to August, 1890, shows that while £409,698 was due from 11,272 farmers to whom advances had been made for the purchase of their holdings within the previous five years, but £2,554 was in arrear, and but £611 of that sum was more than six months in arrear.

front rank in the House, and the discussion of this bill has added much to his reputation. His position is due to pure genius and native intellect. He is the only man who, without a University or legal education, makes any really great mark in the House. But in him the defects arising from the want of early training and of association with his intellectual equals in school and college, are shown in a certain apartness and shrinking from society possibly fatal to his ever occupying the position of leader. He is a man of untiring industry and a wiry constitution, and he almost lives in the House. Through the fair and foul of an unhealthy season, at times when a large percentage of the members were down with influenza, he was always at his post, often alone, generally with Mr. Knox, during a few weeks supported by the Healys and Mr. Kenny.

Criticism was directed mainly against the incompleteness of the Land Bill, the impossibility of its putting an end to dual ownership as a rule, the confusion and heartburning it would be certain to cause; above all, against the monstrous injustice of hypothecating Irish resources without Irish consent or control. In these contentions the Nationalists were supported by Mr. Morley, Mr. Bryce, Mr. Lefevre, and other Liberal friends. What appeared to most Irishmen a disastrous proposal was frustrated in only some of its details, *i. e.*, Mr. Balfour's determination to alter the constitution of the present Land Sale tribunal (which gives entire satisfaction in Ireland) by the addition to it of the Fair Rent Commissioners, who are much in arrear with their duties, and whose sympathies are believed to be adverse to the tenants. A serious difference arose among the Irish parties and the English friends of Ireland generally regarding the limit put upon the possible purchase of more than a certain number of holdings of over £50 valuation in each county. Mr. Balfour, the Parnellites, and many English Liberals pointed out that while there were in Ireland 41,000 holdings, value £4,480,000, over £50 valuation, and 511,000 holdings, value £5,650,000, under that valuation, the present Ashbourne Act, without some such limit, had been applied to the extinguishment of a few of the larger holdings by the expenditure of a considerable proportion of the fund at their disposal. This contention appeared reasonable. Yet, on the general grounds of the disadvantage of chess-boarding estates and discouraging sale, the clause was combated by the Nationalists, Mr. Shaw-Lefevre, and other English Liberals. Numerous minor concessions and improvements were secured by Mr. Sexton and his side, which are now being flourished in the face of the Parnellites.

A second portion of the bill, dealing with the congested and more impoverished districts in the west of Ireland, acknowledged by all parties to be an honest attempt by Mr. Balfour to deal with a very difficult and knotty problem, passed almost without discussion.

So much for the Irish Land Bill. Time alone can tell which will be justified, the prognostications of its extreme supporters that it will settle the Irish land question, or of its more severe critics, that it will effect little and may make confusion worse confounded. Probably the truth will be found to lie somewhere between them. Nothing has occurred to alter the conviction with which these communications of mine to you have always been imbued —the conviction that the pacification and elevation of Ireland, the accomplishment of her real union with Great Britain, is to be found only in a wide measure of home rule, in the throwing of responsibilities on Irishmen themselves, the turning into useful and safe channels that abounding love of their country and zeal for her welfare which animate Irishmen at home and abroad. But we are at present entering on a new era regarding which nothing can be predicated. The forces of the past twelve years' agitation are evidently dying out. The personnel of the movement is undergoing a decided change. Owing to the Parnell split, methods of working must be radically altered. The legislation of the past ten years is having its effect. Ireland is, in proportion to its population, more prosperous than ever. The population is diminishing — the Catholics more rapidly than the Protestants. The centre of greatest population is moving from Dublin to Belfast. A general election alone can tell us what the country really wants, and what it intends and is prepared to do. The sooner a general election comes, the better.

D. B.

PEACE OR DEATH.

ITALY, June 21, 1891.

AFTER a thirty years' residence in Italy and an eight months' absence, I am more than ever struck on my return to find how entirely the real Italy differs from the view taken of her abroad, and from the fictitious Italy which alone is visible in Rome, where all the pictures sent abroad are manufactured. On one point, however, real and political Italy are agreed, namely, that the *sine qua non*, not only of progress and prosperity, but of her continuing to exist as a nation and first-class Power, is absolute and perfect peace. It is to insure this that she entered on the Triple Alliance after keeping her "hands free," her frontiers and coasts undefended, and her people unarmed for twelve years after her unity was accomplished. It is for defence, not for offence, that she has of late years spent her millions in organizing a citizen army, in creating a fleet, in constructing railroads which shall enable her to mobilize that army on her northern frontier in case of attack from any hostile Power.

Did she well, did she ill, the thing is done. The money is spent, the fleet is the envy of Europe, and the army not only has done much for the moral unity of the populations, but has given them a sense of security which alone can enable a people to devote their attention to education, to industry, to commerce, and to what in Italy is the *non plus ultra* of her future welfare—to agriculture, to the increase of the production of food for her own people, and for exportation to such foreign countries as shall make commercial intercourse possible. Whether Italy was justified in assuming that France was hostile to her existence as a nation with equal rights and duties in the European concert, whether she attaches too much importance to the Ultramontane championship of the Pope, we cannot undertake to say. Certain it is that Republican France restored the Pope in 1849, that Imperial France kept the Pope on his throne of corpses for one and twenty years; and that this was felt to be an inevitable necessity by Louis Napoleon, who had no religious sentiment, is proved by the fact that, even at the eleventh hour, when he might have had the moral support and (as far as the King, court, and military element were powerful) the material aid of Italy at the commencement of the fatal war, if only he would withdraw his protection from the Pope in Rome, he dared not and did not do so. Then, in the present Republic, there have not been wanting symptoms to prove that only the power is lacking to prevent a very large and influential portion of the French people from entering on a crusade for the restoration of the temporal power. Of course the Italians know that this is the very party which would overthrow the Republic in favor of a military dictator, or a legitimist pretender, or a Bonapartist adventurer.

As for any other question than the Roman, Italy has not one single reason for stretching her hand across the frontier which she nevertheless feels bound to jealously guard. As for her unredeemed provinces, she knows that Nice would not return to her impoverished bosom if a really free plébiscite were allowed to-morrow. As for Trieste, she knows also that it will never be abandoned by Austria until she has other seaports on the Adriatic—that Germany would not allow her to do so if she wished it; and that the Trentino will revert to Italy at some time or other as compensation for something else that Austria covets and in time will get. If we come to the home Government, I doubt whether there is a single nation in Europe which is as contented as are the Italians with their monarchical régime. It was not the ideal of the party of action; but, as they could not get the Austrians out of Lombardy without an army and a treasury, they said, "Unify Italy and be king over her." Italy was unified and Victor Emanuel was made King. Had his successor proved a jingo monarch, had he had the fancy for reigning and governing, he would probably have had a short reign, especially as the army is the most democratic in Europe. But he did a quite other thing —he parted from the aristocratic Conservative party which had been the pillar of his father's throne, and, without intermeddling in internal politics, leaned decidedly to the side of popular reforms. Old Victor was about the most extravagant monarch of this century. On his death the Government proposed to the young King that a bill should be presented to Parliament for the payment of his father's debts. With an almost resentful air he made answer, "That is my business," and he has paid and is paying them. Even so with the maintenance of the heir apparent—that is also "his father's affair"; and while the Queen of England, with her enormous wealth, does not blush to ask from Parliament grants for the maintenance of her grandchildren, King Humbert provides for his son and heir out of his privy purse. These things tell with a poor and struggling nation.

Again, the Italians, who as masses take no part in politics—their abstention at the urns to the extent of from 30 to 50 per cent. proves this—look even upon general elections as a *disgrazia*, a misfortune. They felt some enthusiasm at the first elections, when the question was to decide whether Italy should be united into a nation, and again in 1876, when the Moderates were deposed and the Liberals promised everything that was asked for. But since then, and even more emphatically since the extension of the suffrage, an increasing indifference is notable: "It all comes to the same thing," say they, "whether one party is in or out; and elections are just a stirring of troubled waters for no good that we can see to follow." The one supreme problem is how to make ends meet. That is the question put daily in Cabinet counsels and in national or in private banks; in industrial establishments and in the homes of the middle and poorer classes. Everywhere the answer is the same: Economy, retrenchment—economy to the backbone, as Sella was so abused for saying. Talk of war being desired in Italy, of its being considered as a regenerating factor! Go through the country and talk with any class of manufacturers, merchants, shopkeepers, with the

artisans—and, above all, with the peasants. They will tell you with one voice that to be led or forced, or to drift, into war would mean absolute and immediate ruin ; that war would mean for Italy what a fire would mean for a man who had spent his all on building and furnishing a house without insuring it against destruction, just as he was about to make it profitable by letting and inhabiting it.

I note especially on my return that many add: "Let those who drifted us into Africa be pardoned, as they are dead; but let some man arise who shall find the means of drifting us out of it again as soon as it is possible to do so with all due regard to our dignity and to our honor." This new expression of feeling I note especially in the provinces where the appalling increase of emigration alarms all. In this province, which fifty years ago did not even figure in the statistics of emigration, some of the villages are depopulated; emigration has become a mania, a wide-spread and deep-rooted epidemic. Eight thousand have gone out this year, some selling or mortgaging their homestead or hovel, some with nothing but what they carry on their backs, all with their railway fare and voyage with food paid out to Rio Janeiro. No wonder that they go; but though no earthly power can stay them, those who remain behind are seriously striving after some solution to the land-craving, labor-seeking problem. And the first remedy proposed is to "let Africa go," and to spend all available sums that can be spared from other budgets or saved from any source, for the internal colonization of which so much has been promised and for which nothing has been done.

Of fertile but uncultivated land there are half-a-million of acres in the island of Sardinia, in the Tuscan Maremmas, in the Agro Romano, and in the island of Sicily. The agricultural population is quite too numerous in many parts of Italy; given the land, and provided the capital necessary for its preparation, for the construction of dwellings, for implements, seed, and, of course, the keep of the colonists for two or three years, and the question of agricultural distress would be solved, besides the addition to the national wealth produced from the cultivated soil. And all this sounds so simple that one wonders why it was not commenced years and years ago. Again, without entering into details for which space is wanting, the system of coöperation, of coöperation in labor and productive industries, has taken such a hold of the popular imagination that, if it could be applied universally, it would of itself prove a counter seduction to emigration. The Government is pledged to give public works to these bona-fide coöperative societies, and the initial law, which was a true step on the path of progress, is being revised and is to be extended to the provinces and communes, so that by degrees the accursed race of middlemen, of sweaters, may be abolished, and the public works which must be finished in Italy be really executed by the now unoccupied masses. The reaction against speculators and building speculations is intense, and it is a healthy sign.

Even these questions are discussed, however, in a very limited circle. Among the middle classes education is the order of the day, and the discussions on the budget of public instruction have been followed with the keenest interest. Villari's method and daring are on a par with his popularity, and this is strange when you consider that he has set the students down with a firm and almost disdainful hand: here forbidding their knocking off work to play at commemorations, there warning them that if they do not mend their manners, he shall ask the Superior Council to revise the statute allowing them to elect their magistrates. To every demand for subsidy or increase he has answered, "Non possumus; the coffers are empty." Only in one case has he augmented the miserable pittance doled out to the masters and professors of higher or secondary education; and how has he managed to do this? By increasing the fees to be paid by the students at the lyceums and gymnasiums—asking why, forsooth, the sons of the well-to-do classes are to be educated at the expense of the nation, which cannot yet afford to do sufficient for the elementary schools, where the whole nation has a right to a free place. Villari has been applauded even by the classes who must pay the piper. Even when he touched on the question of the gradual diminution of the ridiculous number of universities which encumber Italy, he was listened to respectfully, though the belfry-tower spirit and vested interests have proved too strong for any of his predecessors. If the Ministers of War and of the Navy and of Public Works had been equally courageous, they would have found equal response throughout the country; and if the present House should object to any economies, let the Government appeal to the country, and Europe would see what chance there would be of raising a war-cry in Italy. J. W. M.

THE CONDITION OF ITALIAN LIBRARIES.

LAKE COMO, May, 1891.

THERE are in Italy between thirty and forty libraries which the present National Government, in recognition of former Governmental support, is committed to maintain, at least in some degree. It is a division of resources which even a rich country would find an impediment in developing a proper National Library, and Italy, with its over-burdened Treasury, is far from being in a position to offer the world a single library of the first class. In talking the other day at Rome with Villari, the new Minister of Public Instruction, he referred to this over-abundance of subsidized libraries as one of the difficult problems which he has to confront in decreasing the expenditures of his department. It also well represents how localized interests have not been abated in what is called the political unification of the country. Indeed, Italian unity is a good deal of a fiction, and it will take a great deal more than the erection of statues of Victor Emanuel, Cavour, and Garibaldi all over the peninsula to bring people and institutions in due subordination to a central idea of Italian power.

Italy, to build up a library which shall rank with the great national libraries of the future, will need to concentrate her resources ; for though she has libraries now which are rich in manuscripts, she has not one which is able to meet the great demands of modern scholarship for printed books. In asking to see their extent in some of the interests which have sprung up with the present century, one is struck with the poverty of the resources of the best of her libraries; and I have not seen anywhere a collection which affords more than a most meagre array of books on America. I judge by the shops, and I learn by inquiry among those who have long lived here, that the Italians produce few books of value and buy no more. Their leading dealers are very often Germans; and English-speaking residents and tourists are apparently those for whom the shelves in the best shops are arrayed. Any one who has had for the last twenty years a necessity to make selections from the contemporary literature of the modern European languages has been distinctly conscious that, except for the new editions of the elder authors and the commentaries upon them, Italy, by comparison, has had very little to offer.

If with this want of fecundity there went a corresponding slothfulness in libraries, there would be little to be hoped of Italy in amassing great collections of books. In some respects I have found a more active bibliothecal spirit in Italy than elsewhere in Europe, and I suspect that if Italian unification has accomplished nothing else, it has unshackled the minds of librarians, and placed them more in sympathy with the modern gospel which makes a library more the servant than the master of its users. I suspect this is not, as a rule, the case in Germany, where scholarship is better drilled and the book trade better organized and more productive than in any other country of Europe. I cannot account for this difference in the librarians of Italy and Germany, except that their respective spirits reflect the corresponding differences of their political consolidations. I have certainly found in Italian librarians a great alertness of mind and a marked eagerness to observe the advances in library methods which have taken place elsewhere during the last five and twenty years. But at the same time, with all this activity, the miserable bureaucratic methods of which even the chance stranger sees so much in Italy, are allowed to embarrass the efforts of her best librarians, and I have found them looking, but quite against hope, to the active intelligence of Villari to find a way for a new dispensation.

Italy seems to be filled with placemen, and the deputies in her legislative chambers and the other controllers of patronage fill offices, and create new ones to be filled, with a good deal of that childish fervor which one observes in the debates in their Parliament. I do not give this as the observation of a hurried traveller, but as an impression confirmed by talking with a good many of the foreign residents of Italy. I find the same confirmation in what the leading librarians tell me of the way in which their intentions are thwarted by incompetent subordinates whom political patronage forces upon them. And, what is infinitely worse, they have little hope of anything better. The opinion seems to be that Villari, for instance, in his department is powerless for good beyond a certain point, and any attempt on his part at radical improvement will simply engender enmities that will send him back to his studies.

So one looks upon the principal libraries in Italy with not a little gratification, to see how, with all these impediments—a crippled service and dissipated resources—a few earnest men, impelled by their contact with the spirit of the day, as reflected elsewhere in an improved library service, have yet made the library methods in Italy not altogether unworthy the study of the most experienced librarian. The present expenditure of the Department of Public Instruction in the support of the thirty or forty libraries is a condition I am afraid not easy to be overcome in any gainful way, inasmuch as the desired concentration would conflict with vested interest, secured by concessions in the general plan by which Italian consolidation has been brought about.

In the present condition of Italian finances nothing adequate to the needs of the larger libraries can be allowed, and the wonder is that so much is done as is apparent ; and it is doubtless owing to the great force of character which I find in some of the leading librarians that any

progress is made at all. During the years when the new Italian kingdom had its capital in Florence a certain amount of concentration started the new Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale on its career; and when later the Government was transferred to Rome, the new capital was given another library, got together in a somewhat similar way, which is called the Biblioteca Nazionale Vittorio Emanuele. Neither collection is housed in any way suited to its functions, and the one at Florence is much the most important; indeed, it is marvellously rich in early printed books and in manuscripts, while the library at Rome has few manuscripts, and not much to boast of in serviceable literature, though both are doing the most they can in garnering and arranging the current tests of literary and scientific progress, in periodic and serial publications. I went over the library in Rome with Signor Grampini, and was witness to his assiduous attention to its interests, and was glad to see in operation in a large library that outward form of a catalogue which, on the whole, is most to be desired. The card catalogue, which is so common in the United States, has proved itself cumbersome and unsatisfactory. I cannot see a single advantage which it has, except the ease with which it can be kept in a strict alphabetical arrangement. To use one, when it becomes large, involves vexation of spirit, with great loss of time, and there is always an accompanying suspicion of misplacements and oversights; and yet, from the time when Charles Folsom introduced the initial form of it at the Boston Athenæum, to the present day, its employment in our leading libraries has served to make it the almost universal system in the United States, and its use has in some degree spread to Europe. In one or two small libraries in America, and lately in Harvard College library, a method which has been independently developed in the University Library at Leyden, and which I find in a more advanced state of mechanical construction here in Italy, has, I trust, inaugurated a far better arrangement. For a library with a card catalogue of long growth to change to the better method would involve cost and labor that must make the process a task of difficulty; still, I question the wisdom of hesitancy. The serious objections to the card catalogue, besides the irksomeness of consultation, are the demand for much light in its position and the inordinate requirements for space, which few buildings can afford. The inevitable makeshift is a compression which gives six or eight drawers, up and down, and this means that a user, standing at the case, prevents other access to many thousand cards for as long a time as the weariness of consultation holds him at the drawers. This is a most serious drawback in a library of much use.

The alternative plan, here in Italy so admirably exemplified, is to write the titles on stiff paper, say 4x7 inches, and then to bind them in small volumes of a hundred slips each, using a mechanical spring or other device, which binds and unbinds easily. The slips, with a little dexterity of handling, fly rapidly over under the eye, so that a hundred titles are scanned with but a small part of the time requisite to turn over as many cards, while a single hundred instead of many thousand titles are monopolized by the consulter for the time being. The mechanism of these little books which is most in vogue here was devised in the Marucellian Library at Florence, and for simplicity and firmness is all that could be desired.

That the card-and-drawer system has some advantages when the purpose is to keep a record seldom to be consulted, is undeniable; but when constant use is made of it, its disadvantages are so great that it cannot long continue to be employed when the claims of the bound-slip system are once understood. As between this last system and that of the British Museum, where the titles are on slips laid down in folios, the advantage of cheapness is much in favor of the former, but the English system has a great superiority in the rapidity with which the titles can be scanned; but it is more cumbersome, and the titles are available to a smaller number of people at the same moment. JUSTIN WINSOR.

Correspondence.

NEW-SCHOOL POLITICAL ECONOMISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read the discussion between yourself and President Walker on the attitude of the economists with such interest that I beg leave to contribute my mite to it. It seems to me there is no material difference between you on the main point, namely, what we should try to teach the surging masses so vividly described by the distinguished President in his address. Far from disputing with him the proposition that the practical limitations of economic principles should be insisted upon, it seems to me these limitations are the very things to be taught.

The voting public accept without limit such reasoning as this:

There cannot be two prices for the same thing in the same market; therefore free competition with Europe will result in wages being reduced to the European level; and again:

Free competition brings all prices to the lowest point; therefore, how high soever the tariff, we shall get things at the lowest point at which Americans can produce them.

These propositions are very far from being true in practice; and one task of the economist is to show what causes prevent their application. I can think of but one living writer on economics in America and one in England who are subject to President Walker's criticism.

I am sorry to see so sound a thinker talk about the "two schools" of political economy. After much careful examination, I have concluded that the qualification required to constitute a new-school man is half a page or so of slighting remark about the economy of Ricardo, Mill, and the English school. Had the President of the Economic Association been a man of less sturdy independence, one might have suspected that the remarks to which the *Nation* takes exception were suggested by previous failure on his part to thus qualify himself, and were the repetition of the creed necessary to his admission to full membership in the new economic church.

Let me set forth one striking illustration of the unscientific character of the distinction actually made between the two schools. The "new school" commonly calls itself "historico-statistical," because it professes to approach the subject on the side of the facts by history and statistics. Now, who is the father of the historico-statistic method in the United States? There can be but one answer—David A. Wells. He did not commence work in the field in which he has become preëminent as an economist at all, but as a student of manufacturing statistics charged by the Government with the duty of devising the best system of collecting the revenue necessary to the prosecution of the war and the payment of the public debt. No man was less inclined to economic theory of any kind than his early reports show him to have been. He studied in minute detail the conditions of manufactures of every kind, from the growth of the raw material through all stages to the finished product in the hands of the consumer. All his general conclusions were founded on the facts thus collected. No purer example of the method can be found anywhere. And yet he would have to do much penance and execute a general recantation before being admitted to the church of those who call themselves new-school economists. S. NEWCOMB.

WASHINGTON, July 3, 1891.

SPECIAL LEGISLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At a meeting of the Providence Commercial Club on June 27, the subject chosen for discussion was "Private and Special Legislation." Ex-President Cleveland, as the guest of the occasion, spoke with his usual good sense and patriotism. But there is one question I should like to ask, to which I find no answer in his remarks, and that is, How can we expect anything but special legislation when we intrust the work exclusively to special legislators?

I am ashamed of repeating so often, what is yet the root and key of the whole situation, that the general interest has no representative whether in Congress or the State Legislatures; every man who has a voice or vote being elected by a special district, bound to look after its interests, and having no interest or authority to speak for the whole nation or State. It is true in mathematics, but it is not true in politics, that the sum of the parts is equal to the whole.

Let us take a case. A certain district, animated by such motives as Mr. Cleveland appeals to, determines to send its best man to Congress. It selects one who for public spirit, purity of character, and business capacity commands almost unanimous support. Arriving at Washington, he finds that every item of business is sent to the standing committees. Going thither and finding a universal compromise and trading of local interests, he attempts to consider them from a national point of view. The first effect produced is a stare of surprise, mingled with a tinge of resentment. If he is obstinate enough to persevere, he will find himself tripped up and baffled at every turn. His fate in open Congress is just as bad. Even if he could get recognized by the Speaker, he would be borne down by the manipulation of private interests, and could look for no national support because he would not be known or cared for outside of his district. While his efforts on behalf of the general interest are thus wasted, he is totally unfitted for that log-rolling struggle of private and party interests which is the logical and almost exclusive work of a Congressman. He returns to his constituents, having accomplished nothing, and they, not having seen the working of the machinery, instead of charging the failure to the system, conclude that they have mistaken their man. All that he has achieved is a distinct loss of standing in his own community.

Mr. Cleveland charges the evils of special legislation to the carelessness of the people, and expresses his wonder that men of business, so active in their own affairs, will give no attention to public affairs often of even more importance to them. It is just because they

are men of business that they see how their efforts fail to produce any result, and dislike to put out their strength under such conditions. A horse attached to a load which he cannot draw soon becomes discouraged and will not exert himself at all.

It is sometimes proposed that there should be members and Senators-at-large in Congress, but they would fail from the want of connection with and responsibility for administration. The only persons who can represent the national interest are the Cabinet officers, and they would serve as a rallying-point for the independent members who were sent there by their constituents to oppose special legislation. If Mr. Cleveland achieves that which has never yet been arrived at since the Government was formed—a second election to the Presidency after an intervening term—it will be because he dared to overleap the bounds of party and advocate what he believed to be for the interest of the nation. Yet he could do this only in the most general terms, and with no reference to the details which must constitute the very basis of effective action. Just think what a whirlwind of enthusiasm would sweep over the land if a President were to bring forward at the opening of the session, through his Secretary of the Treasury, a tariff bill professedly conceived in the interest of the nation, and, however it might be mistaken in details, was ready to submit it to the full fire of public discussion from that point of view. G. B.

Boston, July 2, 1891.

Notes.

The Century Co. have in preparation for the fall three works originating in their magazine, viz., Mr. George Kennan's 'Siberia and the Exile System,' in two volumes; Amelia G. Mason's 'Women of the French Salons'; and W. W. Rockhill's Thibetan book of travels, 'The Land of the Lamas.'

Charles Scribner's Sons will rapidly issue in succession their announced University Extension Manuals, including 'Money: Its Use and Abuse,' by W. Cunningham; 'The Fine Arts,' by Prof. Baldwin Brown; 'English Colonization and Empire,' by A. Caldecott; 'The Study of Animal Life,' by J. Arthur Thompson; 'Physiography,' by H. R. Mill; and 'The Philosophy of the Beautiful,' by Prof. Knight of the University of St. Andrews.

Harper & Brothers will publish a Life of Gladstone, by G. W. E. Russell; 'Tales from Scottish History,' selected by Dr. W. J. Rolfe; and 'A Man's Conscience,' a novel by Avery MacAlpine.

Henry Holt & Co.'s first English book under the new copyright law will be a 'Romance of the Moors,' by Mrs. Mona Caird, author of the 'Wing of Azrael.'

Bishop Doane's Addresses to the Graduating Classes of St. Agnes' School during the past twenty years will make a volume to be issued by Thomas Whittaker in September.

'A Bookseller's Library and How to Use It' is the title chosen for the reprint of a bibliography of catalogues and works of reference necessary to the finding of books which has recently appeared in the *Publishers' Weekly*, in the series of articles on "The Profession of Bookselling." The reprint will issue from the office of that paper.

Ginn & Co. have in press, in two volumes, 'Specimens of the pre-Shaksperian Drama,' edited by Prof. John Matthews Manly of Brown University.

D. C. Heath & Co. will soon bring out 'Studies in United States History,' for use in grammar schools, by Mary Sheldon-Barnes and Prof. Earl Barnes; 'Hermann und Dorothea,' edited by Prof. W. T. Hewett of Cornell; and 'Goethe's Meisterwerke,' selections with notes by Dr. William Bernhardt.

Eight years ago we welcomed the appearance of Mr. D. B. Monro's 'Grammar of the Homeric Dialect,' and now we have from the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan) a second revised and enlarged edition of this admirable work. Mr. Monro has availed himself of the really large amount of fresh contributions to the subject during the interval (mostly German, but including Prof. Goodwin's revised 'Moods and Tenses'), and has effected his alterations and improvements without much disturbing the schematic arrangement. The Grammar now, more than ever, meets the want of students and merits praise.

Two years ago we were favored with a copy of the generous Catalogue of the Library of the Corporation of the City of London, to which we especially called the attention of Americans sojourning in that great city, since the library is free. Scholars rather will be interested in the new Catalogue of Hebraica and Judaica in the same institution, compiled by the Rev. A. Löwy, and just published by the Corporation. To a certain limited extent the works enumerated in the smaller volume are to be found in the larger, as one may see by comparing the titles under Bible and Zunz, for example; but not only is the greater portion freshly catalogued, but the contents of systematic and composite works are recorded as they could not be in the main Catalogue. The gift which formed the basis of the present collection consisted of some 400 volumes of ancient Hebrew works, presented in 1846 by Mr. Levy Salomons and since extended and perfected. Mr. Löwy has supplied an index to the Hebrew and other Semitic works, and an English subject-index, which takes in the supplementary appendix, and which will be of great help to readers and students. He is also to be praised for his numerous cross-references. The Catalogue proper fills 176 very open pages.

'With the Beduins,' by Gray Hill (London: T. Fisher Unwin), is a simple but very entertaining account of adventures in unfrequented parts of Syria. The farthest point east reached was Palmyra (Tadmor), where the inhabitants were found rejoicing in the recent discovery of a fresh-water stream running in an old flagged channel or conduit 16 inches deep by 22 wide. Up to this time, 1889, travellers had been obliged to bring their water supply with them from a distant well. This fortunate discovery is likely to have an important influence upon the wretched hamlet which now occupies the ruins. Mr. Hill gives an account, with a picture, of a finely sculptured bas-relief which had just been found, the only perfect piece of carving left in Palmyra. In a journey last year he visited Kerâk, the ancient Kir of Moab, to the east of the Dead Sea, whose fierce inhabitants maintain their independence of the Turk with indomitable vigor. Although not positively ill-treated by them, he was kept a prisoner until an exorbitant ransom had been paid. The Keraki and their strange town, perched on the top of a steep, stony hill, surmounted by a huge castle built by the Crusaders, are very graphically described. To the north of this place lies the great district which it was one of the favorite schemes of the late Laurence Oliphant to colonize with Jews. Mr. Hill speaks of it as being extraordinarily fertile and very sparsely inhabited. The closing chapter consists of a number of folk-lore stories and fables told the author by his companions. The book is admirably illustrated, mostly from photographs taken by Mrs. Hill, who accompanied her husband on his adventurous journeys.

Lovers of literature must needs rejoice when M. Anatole France sends forth a new volume of his ever delightful essays in criticism gathered from the worthy columns of the *Temps*. The third series of 'La Vie Littéraire' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern) is the latest to appear, and is as brilliant as its predecessors, as genial and as amusing. Perhaps it surpasses them a little in interest, as it contains a preface in which the author of the 'Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard' answers the attack made by M. Brunetière in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* at the beginning of this year on M. Jules Lemaitre and M. Anatole France. Separating himself from M. Lemaitre, whose writing he delights in, but who is abundantly able to defend himself, M. France proceeds to "chaff" M. Brunetière—there is no other word for it. There are nearly two-score essays in the volume—on Baudelaire, Villiers de l'Isle Adam, Barbey d'Aurevilly, Paul Verlaine, Édouard Rod, François Coppée, and Octave Feuillet; on Jeanne d'Arc, on Hrotswitha, on Rabelais, on Science and Morality, and on many other things.

M. Gustave Merlet has prepared for the use of French school-children a selection of the French poetry of this century, which will be welcome in many an American household where French is read. To this 'Anthologie Classique des Poètes du XIXe Siècle' (Paris: Alphonse Lemerre; New York: F. W. Christern) the editor has prefixed an elementary outline of the principles of French versification, which are absolutely different from the principles of English versification, and he has appended a brief biographical sketch of the poets whose verses are here included. The selection begins with household poems—childhood and the family; then there is a division of picturesque poems—nature and animals; third are moral poems—man and labor; and in the final section are patriotic poems.

A loan collection of book-bindings in the gallery of the Burlington Fine Arts Club has been one of the June shows in London. The Queen and other British book-lovers have contributed to it as well as certain old libraries like those of Durham Cathedral and of Westminster Abbey. Most interesting, perhaps, was the gathering of early English stamped bindings. Before the invention of printing, and more especially in the twelfth century, the British bindings were superior to those made in Continental Europe. After the development of the art in Italy in the time of Maioli and of Grolier, the British traditions were lost and the English have never since held a foremost position. To the catalogue of the Burlington Club's collection Mr. Gordon Duff contributes a preface on these earlier English stamped bindings, and Mr. S. T. Prideaux another on the more artistic development of the craft in Italy and in France particularly. Mr. Prideaux so far conquers the bias of patriotism as not to overpraise Roger Payne, whom some British writers on bibliopegy have set on a level with Padeloup and Derome. Both prefaces are written soberly, in excellent taste, and out of the fulness of knowledge.

The annual report of the St. Louis Public Library contains some suggestive tables, showing the fluctuations in the popularity of works and writers of fiction. In March, 1888, 'Ben Hur' was most in demand; from January to

April, inclusive, 1890, 'Looking Backward' far surpassed it. "It is curious to note," says the librarian, "that neither of these books attracted any special attention when first published." At the earlier date 'Anna Karénina' stood third in circulation; at the later, it fell below the twenty-eighth if it was read at all. In the winter of 1888-89 'Robert Elsmere' would have ranked among the first ten; in the first four months of 1890 it was out of sight. Last winter there was a marked revival of 'Lorna Doone.' 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' seems to hold a firm place in the first ten.

The combined 23d and 24th annual reports of the Peabody Museum of Archæology at Cambridge have no more striking passages than those which show the interest of women in this branch of science, already testified by the Hemenway expedition and in other ways. Mrs. Mary Copley Thaw endows with $30,000 a fellowship fund, primarily for the benefit of the present incumbent, Miss Alice C. Fletcher; Mrs. Susan C. Warren gives $5,000 for cases and $1,000 for explorations, and Mrs. Elizabeth C. Ware gives $1,000 for explorations. All other pecuniary gifts for the year 1890 were insignificant. Facts like these—and they are by no means isolated in our institutions of learning—ought to tell powerfully in favor of the higher education of women.

Tract No. 75 of the Western Reserve Historical Society of Cleveland, O., embodies Prof. G. Frederick Wright's letter to this journal a year ago touching the "Discovery of a Palæolithic Implement at New Comerstown, Ohio," in very interesting circumstances as respects the existence of primitive man on this continent during the ice age. The pamphlet is illustrated with numerous prints and maps. In *Science* for June 26, by the way, Prof. Wright describes the stupendous glacial grooves on Kelly's Island, near Cleveland, O., of which a sample has been saved and deeded to the Western Reserve Historical Society by the corporation engaged in making lime of the rock thus scored. The groove or trough is thirty-three feet wide and seventeen deep, and will be preserved to the extent of 100 feet, one-half cleared of the glacial débris, the other half still covered with pebbles and sand, and the whole (after being quarried around) left on a pedestal about thirty feet high.

The last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* contains an interesting account of the increase of the land, by artificial means, on the west coast of Holstein between the mouths of the rivers Elbe and Eider. It is illustrated by three maps showing the contour of the coast in 1500, 1750, 1890. The article is written in opposition to the view maintained by some that the shallows of the North Sea were in historic times dry land and thickly populated. Dr. Ferdinand Blumentritt describes the different native tribes who inhabit the basin of the Rio Grande on the island of Mindanao, one of the Philippines. Among some of them human sacrifices, in case of death, are frequent, slaves or captives being chosen for this purpose. They have also the belief that man has two souls, one of which goes to heaven, the other to hell, there being "no absolutely good nor wholly evil man."

The Bulletin of the Société de Géographie contains accounts of a French political mission to Tademayt in the central Sahara and a voyage on the upper Niger as far as Timbuktu, in which the author, Lieut. G. Jaime, explains the strange peculiarities of the current and the annual flood of the stream at this point. M. Ch. Rabot continues his report of his explorations in Russian Lapland, the present paper being devoted to the geology of the peninsula of Kola. There is also an interesting account of Tourane on the coast of Annam, a port which promises to be of great importance, mainly on account of the coal mines which have been discovered in the neighboring hills. M. H. Coudreau vigorously combats the commonly received opinion that the Indians in French Guiana are nearly extinct. He maintains, on the contrary, that their numbers are as great to-day as at the time of the discovery of the country, and, in proof of his assertion, gives the names of fifty-three distinct tribes, with a brief account of each.

The just-issued Bulletin of the American Geographical Society possesses especial interest by reason of what relates to Mr. R. E. Peary's promising expedition to North Greenland, now on its way. One of his comrades, whose qualities he has tested in Nicaraguan jungles, is Matthew Henson, a colored Virginian, twenty-three years old. Mrs. Peary will accompany the party as far as its base at Whale Sound.

We can but think it of ill omen that the New York State Teachers' Association, in its meeting this week at Saratoga, has been provided with an elegant programme stamped with the "compliments of American Book Co." Such a favor ought not to have been accepted from any publishing house, and least of all from one which, however legitimately, tends towards the chief control of the supply of text-books all over the country.

A practical result of the passage of our Copyright Act has been the establishment at No. 208 Fifth Avenue in this city, under the auspices of Count E. de Kératry, of a French Copyright Office, with Mr. Paul Meyer for Secretary. It will be the sole representative, for purposes of reproduction, translation, adaptation, or dramatization, of the Société des Gens de Lettres, the Société des Auteurs, Éditeurs et Compositeurs de Musique, the Société des Auteurs et Compositeurs Dramatiques Français, and the Cercle de la Librairie, which consists of the publishers and printers of France. The first-named society controls the works of Dumas *fils*, Zola, Daudet, Halévy, Ohnet, Coppée, Malot, Claretie, Maupassant, and other well-known writers; the second, the plays of Sardou, Dumas, Pailleron, Meilhac, Massenet, Ambrose Thomas, Gounod, Saint-Saëns, and others.

—A translation of Prof. August Meitzen's work on Statistics appears among the annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. The work consists of three parts: History, theory, and technique. The historical portion is of value chiefly as a bibliography, although it does not purport to be complete. That upon technique is of interest exclusively to those engaged in the actual preparation of statistics, and by them will be found full of suggestions of great practical utility. The emphatic insistence upon the necessity of proceeding according to a *plan* might well arouse the attention of our Census Bureau. The most important part relates to the theory of statistics. The method of investigation is the enumeration of objects and the comparison of results. The first step is to fix the essential characteristics of the unit of enumeration, and these must not vary during the period of observation. First classify and then count, is the fundamental maxim. Only those who have occasion to study statistical returns can understand the full meaning of this principle. The other precepts of the author are equally sound, and he fully recognizes the little known truth that the true essence of statistics is the application and development of logic. For lucidity and scientific precision we should advise the student of statistics to go to John Mill; but if it be thought indispensable to derive knowledge through German sources, we do not hesitate to say that Prof. Meitzen is a safe, if not an easily followed, guide.

—It is nearly twenty-five years since there appeared the first edition of 'Lyra Elegantiarum,' edited by Frederick Locker, and the anthology has always been accepted as the best collection of the "familiar verse"—to use Cowper's phrase—of our language. Now a new and revised and enlarged edition has been prepared by the editor (who signs himself to-day "Frederick Locker-Lampson"), assisted by Mr. Coulson Kernahan (London: Ward, Lock & Co.). The editor's admirable prefatory discussion of the essentials of the higher *vers de société* is expanded to contain an apt quotation from Mr. Austin Dobson's essay on Praed. The original arrangement of the book is not modified, the added poems being contained in an appendix of some seventy pages. As before, the collection is confined to the verses of poets not now living—and a reference in the preface reveals to us that Mr. Locker-Lampson has not yet heard of the death of John G. Saxe. The great gain to the new edition is in the inclusion of selections from Landor and from Thackeray not contained in the earlier edition because of the objection of the holders of the copyrights. A suppressed portion of the first edition had certain verses by Landor speedily withdrawn from the later copies. Mr. Locker-Lampson now gives us ten poems by Thackeray and nearly four times as many by Landor, most of these latter being very brief. Among the other poets who appear here now for the first time are Calverley, Mortimer Collins (though we miss his "Ad Chloen, M. A."), H. S. Leigh, Lord Houghton, and Browning. The most remarkable omission is Longfellow, half-a-dozen of whose poems would fall well within the definitions of Cowper, Mr. Locker-Lampson, and Mr. Austin Dobson. We note that one of the few blunders of the first edition, the ascription to Sheridan of the brilliant epigram,

"Lord Erskine at woman presuming to rail,"

is now corrected, and the lines at last bear the name of their real author, Matthew Lewis ("Monk" Lewis).

—The current *Revue d'Histoire Diplomatique* contains an account of "Philhellenism in France," by Mr. Demetrios Bikelas, whose translations of Shakspere have made an epoch in the written speech of modern Hellas, and whose 'Seven Essays on Christian Greece,' recently translated by the Marquess of Bute, give a dispassionate summary of what the Hellenes of to-day have already accomplished, and a forecast of their future. As early as the fourth century B. C., Ephorus awards the epithet of Philhellenes to ancestors of Brennus, who proved himself a pioneer of French Philhellenism by his inconvenient appreciation of the Delphian sanctuary. Then came Frankish potentates in the Ægean whose Philhellenism was more questionable. Ariosto and our own Milton were friends of the down-trodden Greeks, and Voltaire counts as a Philhellene, although he did protest too much in order to humor the "projet grec" of Catharine of Russia. Little good and much harm came to the Greeks from this scheme of hers, inherited perhaps from Peter the Great, self-styled the "Russo-Graecorum Monarcha." Betrayed by Russia, the outraged Greeks slowly awoke to the cry of liberty from revolutionary France. It was as a Greek that Coray received his *carte*

de sûreté from the Convention. If the Greeks were long in abandoning the delusion that help would come from without, and in recognizing that an enslaved people is its own and only deliverer, Europe and France were longer still in discovering that Hellas once more, as of old, had chosen liberty or death. Censorious reports from self-complacent travellers conspired with a surviving religious prejudice to prevent the Western world from easily recognizing the indomitable nobility of purpose which underlay the Greek revolution of 1820. But, this once recognized, the circle of Greek sympathizers was soon so large that it included all just men. The price which the Greeks paid for this great boon was not a small one, however. It was earned by their dauntless courage and their undespairing fortitude. The Holy Alliance, to be sure, remained steadfast in the wrong, nor did diplomacy waver in support of oppression. The power which finally prevailed against them both was organized public opinion. Viewed in this light, nothing can have a more universal interest than the vivid play of conflicting opinions which Mr. Bikelas so well succeeds in picturing. He shows how, under the pressure of events in Greece, what was at first only a party cry ended by enlisting all classes and all opinions. Sympathy for Greece and the Greeks overrode all differences in politics, silenced the clamors of religious fanaticism, flung to the winds the protocols of peradventurous diplomacy, and finally played a decisive part in rending asunder the Holy Alliance itself.

—A volume which might be read with interest in connection with Talleyrand's Memoirs, and serve in some respects as a counterpart of them, is the recently published Diary of the Archduke John of Austria ('Aus dem Tagebuche Erzherzog Johanns von Oesterreich, 1810–1815,' Innsbruck: Wagner), admirably edited and annotated and provided with a valuable historical introduction by Dr. Franz Krones, Professor in the University of Graz. This work, as the title indicates, forms only a part of the voluminous posthumous papers which the Archduke carefully arranged, revised, and corrected shortly before his death on May 10, 1859, and bequeathed to his only son, the lately deceased Franz, Count of Meran, and covers the brief but eventful period from the Peace of Vienna (October 14, 1809) to the Congress of Vienna and the formation of the German Confederation in 1815. He had the misfortune as an inexperienced youth of eighteen to command the Austrian forces which were sent to repel the invasion of the French Army under Moreau, and lost in rapid succession the battles of Hohenlinden and Salzburg. Nevertheless, as compared with other scions of the Hapsburg stock, he was a man of superior ability and fine character, and it was his noble personal qualities rather than his military disasters that drew upon him the ill will of his brother, the Emperor Francis I., and excluded him for many years from any important participation in public affairs. He thus had ample leisure to watch the current of events, was a near and keen observer of them, and, although looking at things uniformly from an Austrian and archducal point of view, shows for the most part in his judgments remarkable discernment, as well as a sincerely liberal spirit and no small amount of political foresight.

—He appreciated the genius of Napoleon, but was never fascinated by him, and has only expressions of contempt for Marie Louise. Their son, the King of Rome, he describes as "a handsome boy, blonde, blue-eyed, with the features, defiant look, soul, and spirit of his father; if well educated he may amount to something." The restoration of the Bourbon line and the return of the whole rabble of emigrants he regarded as a great misfortune for France and for Europe, and favored the recognition of Napoleon's son as constitutional sovereign and the appointment of a regency. He maintained that there was far more to fear from Russia than from France, since the aggressiveness of the latter was due to the ambition of a single man, and therefore accidental, whereas that of the former was part of a system, and therefore a permanent peril to western Europe. For this reason he favored the redintegration of Poland as a bulwark against northern barbarism, which ought to be pushed back to its natural boundaries on the Niemen, the Dnieper, and the Dniester, and kept there. He deemed it a great mistake for Austria to reclaim her Italian provinces (except Venice), and thought that she ought to look eastward for an extension of territory. Alsace should be united with Baden, to which it belongs geographically and ethnographically. The neglect to do this, he declared, would be fraught with danger for the future. The Tyrol was to be an independent state in perpetual alliance with Switzerland; all northern Italy, except Venice, was to constitute a "kingdom of Lombardy," and Rome as a free city to be the residence of the Pope, who was to be supported by the contributions of Catholic sovereigns. Such are a few of the suggestions made in 1814 by the Archduke as to the reconstruction of the political map of Europe. All "this wretched bargaining in peoples and countries," which the Congress of Vienna carried on, was exceedingly disgusting to him. Perhaps the most interesting portions of the volume are his characterizations of some of the princes and diplomatists who were there gathered together like vultures over the carcasses of nations. Foremost of these was Talleyrand, with a sound head but "a worm-eaten heart." He expresses high esteem for the Crown-Prince Ludwig (afterwards Ludwig I.) of Bavaria, mistrusts "the philanthropic ideas and smooth words" of the Czar Alexander, and praises the "good, open soul" of Prince William of Prussia, subsequently Emperor of Germany. We may add that the Diary is largely made up of memoranda hastily jotted down, often under strong feeling and without any regard to literary expression, and is not to be compared with Talleyrand's Memoirs for finish and fascination of style.

THE LIFE OF LAURENCE OLIPHANT.

Memoir of the Life of Laurence Oliphant and of Alice Oliphant, his wife. By Margaret Oliphant W. Oliphant. 2 vols. Harper & Brothers.

A SPECIMEN more curious than this biography sets before us is probably not to be found in the whole psychological museum. The writer in the opening sentence speaks of Laurence Oliphant as "a man unique in himself"; she might almost have said, "two men unexampled in their union." The story of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde was nothing but an extravaganza. The existence of two characters in one man would be inconsistent with personality. A man cannot have two consciences. Any variation of dominant passions or motives in a mixed nature at different times is conceivable, but duality with distinct alternation is not. A man, however, though he cannot have two characters, may, in a way, live two lives. This may be said of professional men, or a politician who has a private pursuit to which he is greatly addicted. It may be said even of a man who combines strong social tastes with devotion to business or study. Horace Walpole tells us that his father, when he sat down at table, always forgot that he was First Minister. The present Prime Minister of England is understood in his leisure hours to devote himself ardently to chemistry; and his life in the laboratory must be separate from his life in his office and in Parliament. In a deeper sense it may probably be said of any man who has spiritual aspirations that he must live two lives—to himself a life of aspiration, to the world a life of conformity and compromise. If spiritual life is a reality, in this sort of inner being it would seem to be manifested. But here we have the history of a man who lived two lives not only distinct, but so strangely contrasted with each other that, if we did not know it was impossible, we might think we had a veritable case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde, only that neither of Laurence Oliphant's personalities is wicked.

Laurence Oliphant's normal life, we suppose we should say, was that depicted by himself in his 'Moss Gathered by a Rolling Stone' and 'Episodes in a Life of Adventure.' Viewed in this aspect, he is akin in character to that class of English adventurers of which Rajah Brooke and Gordon were specimens, and whose errant activity has done so much to build up the British Empire, though he never found for himself work so serious or so continuous in its aim as either Rajah Brooke or Gordon. He possessed in the highest degree all the qualities of the adventurer—courage, quickness of insight, and fertility of resource—as well as unbounded restlessness, bodily vigor, and an inexhaustible fund of animal spirits. He refuses to be sent to college; to a regular education he prefers the education to be obtained by wandering; he wanders forth accordingly and wanders to the end of his days, from time to time taking up diplomatic employment, embarking in different schemes, political, philanthropic, or commercial, generally collecting as he goes materials for books, and sometimes acting as correspondent for the London *Times*. He is a mixture, in fact, in his ordinary life, of the adventurer and traveller with the diplomat, the bookmaker, and the war correspondent. In the interludes of wandering and adventure he is a bright star in London society; he is a keen social satirist; for a time he is a member of the House of Commons. As a boy he lived for some time in Ceylon, of which his father was Chief Justice. There he himself practised law and had the distinction of being in twenty-three murder cases before he was himself as many years old, murder cases in Ceylon being probably disposed of more expeditiously than in the United States. He tried law afterwards in England, but that harness did not suit the steed.

Coming with his father to Europe, he visits Italy, then seething with revolution, in which his boyish spirit already revels. He has the pleasure of helping one mob to burn the Austrian arms and another to sack the Propaganda. Presently we find him making a tour in Russia, where travelling was then rough enough to be exciting, and penetrating to the Crimea, his knowledge of which, and of the defences of Sebastopol, made him an oracle when the Russian war broke out and Sebastopol was to be attacked. Next he is at Washington, as Secretary to Lord Elgin, "floating through the Reciprocity Treaty on champagne," and drinking plenty of champagne himself as well as flirting on a large scale with

the Washington girls, whom he finds very pretty and attractive, while his description of the habits and manners of the politicians, especially of the Democratic Senators, whose society he and his chief specially cultivated for a diplomatic purpose, makes us thankful that those times are past. Going with Lord Elgin to Canada, he leads a very gay life in society, continues to flirt assiduously, and studies diplomatic arts at the same time. He becomes head of the Indian Department, which he proceeds to reform, for he is full of plans for regenerating the world wherever he goes. His aim at this time was diplomacy, and had he not been a rolling stone he might evidently have risen in the service. But regular employment of any kind was irksome to him.

His next leap is to the siege of Sebastopol, of which a glimpse is given us by his pictorial pen, vivid as the flashes of the cannon which he saw through the night from the deck of his ship. He took with him dubious credentials from Lord Clarendon to Lord Stratford de Redclyffe, whom he hoped to enlist in his scheme of making a diversion in Circassia by a junction with Schamyl. His scheme was applauded but not adopted. However, he went himself to Circassia, plunged into the fighting as he always did when he had a chance, showed himself a born conqueror by building a battery, and ran highly satisfactory risks of his life. Adventures he sought, and fortune supplied him with them wherever he went. From the romance of ordinary adventure he rises to that of piracy, or something near akin to it, when, revisiting America, he joins the expedition of the filibuster Walker, drawn evidently much more by the fun than by the promise of a handsome share in the fruits of the expedition. In this passage of his life he showed, his biographer truly says, "extraordinary detachment and independence of mind." Then he joins Lord Elgin in the expedition to China, where, as usual, he plunges into the fray. Anon he is at Turin, where he "finds it great fun to have another object than churches and picture galleries"; the object being in this case to stir up opposition to the annexation of Nice by "that blackguard Napoleon III." Failing in this, he consoles himself by thinking of the money which he would get for two articles in *Blackwood*. Anon the Polish insurrection attracts him, and he once more "enjoys the pleasure of fishing in troubled waters," without catching any fish. His lively despatches remain to us a pleasant proof that he was a correspondent of the London *Times* in the Franco-German war.

A financial raid upon the New York Stock Exchange is a comparatively prosaic affair. Towards the end of his life, and when his wild spirit had been tamed not by years alone, and his adventurousness had taken a religious hue, he was engaged in an extensive scheme for planting Jewish colonies in Palestine, which did not come to much at the time, but the history of which may throw some light on a desperate question at the present day. Mark that while Oliphant pays now and then a faint tribute to Christianity by declaring that war is against his principles, not only is he personally fond of fighting, but his voice is practically for war; and he is deeply chagrined when peace is made with Russia. Mark that when he joins Walker he is ready not only for war, but for war such as the most worldly morality would condemn, and that nothing but the intervention of the British squadron saved him from being a party to the acts of a buccaneer. Mark, also, that he is a pretty strong Jingo, and can feel a sympathy with arbitrary and sanguinary violence. The Jamaica massacre under Gov. Eyre was a hideous outpouring of the murderous hatred and panic of a dominant race upon a helpless peasantry, while the judicial murder of Gordon by Eyre was the dastardly assassination of a personal enemy. Yet Oliphant is very angry because some Englishmen tried to vindicate humanity and the honor of the empire by bringing the Governor to the bar of British justice. So we learn from the 'Episodes in a Life of Adventure.'

With this life of wild adventure and social brilliancy combined stands in extraordinary contrast Oliphant's life as a religious enthusiast and devotee. He had a very religious mother, a strict Evangelical, whom he greatly loved and with whom he always kept up religious intercourse and correspondence. Hence, in the midst of his escapades and his levities, he was always from time to time turning his thoughts to religion and meditating on his own spiritual state. We find him when a boy at school, and rather a scapegrace, confessing in a letter to his mother his "besetting sins," his not saying his prayers as he ought, his hiding the naughty things which he did from the master's eyes, "not thinking that the eye of God is upon him, a greater eye than man's," and his "cribbing things from other boys, which is another word for stealing—not exactly stealing, but leads to it." This goes on when he is grown up, his tender and confidential relations with his mother remaining unimpaired, amid all the "furious flirting" and the boisterous fun. The youngsters gathered round him on the deck of a steamer are astonished by the theological turn suddenly taken by his talk. Every now and then we have a curious bit of spiritual self-analysis. Laurence discovers his great weakness to be "flexibility of conscience joined with a power of adapting himself to the society into which he may happen to be thrown." He comes to the conclusion, true enough, perhaps, but singular as a maxim of self-culture, that wild gayety is less injurious because less deadening to the spiritual sense than moderate dissipation. His mind, when he rests from wandering, combat, or diplomatic scheming, is given to theological questions; and such items as "The Third Person of the Trinity" are curiously mingled in the table of contents with items of a highly terrestrial kind. He also when in London took an active part in philanthropic enterprise, especially in attempts to reclaim the people of the London slums. He seems to have gradually emancipated himself from the formularies of his mother's evangelicism, and even to have got pretty far on the latitudinarian road, for he says that he would be content to live in a dungeon for the rest of his days if he could have a supernatural revelation—implying that one had not yet been vouchsafed to him. To his mother's appeal to him not to set up his reason against faith, he shrewdly replies: "You must remember that the fact that we believe many things we don't understand does not prove that when we don't understand a thing we should believe it." All dogma, in fact, began to appear hollow and became distasteful to him. His contact with many religions and with types of virtue which were not Christian, would combine with the anti-metaphysical influence of a life of intense activity to breed in him indifference to formal creeds.

Ever present and with growing vividness to his mind is the mournful contrast between Christian doctrine and Christian practice, both individual and national. This is the dominant idea in all that he says upon these questions in his social satires, especially in 'Piccadilly,' as well as in his private reflections. He saw with a keen eye, and with a scathing pen proclaimed, that though people punctually recited the creeds and not less punctually read the Sermon on the Mount in churches, neither personally nor as a community did they attempt to act on the altruistic principles of Jesus of Nazareth or to live his life. Whether it was possible to act on the principles or to live the life of Jesus of Nazareth amidst the civilization of Europe in the nineteenth century, was a question which seems never to have distinctly presented itself to his mind. In 'Piccadilly' he says:

"We have become so steeped in the insane delusion, now many centuries old, that we are a Christian nation, that I anticipate with dread the reaction which will take place when men awaken to the true character of the religious quackery with which they have been duped, and, overlooking in their frenzy the distinction which exists between ancient and modern Christianity, will repudiate the former with horror, which, after all, does not deserve to be condemned, for it has never yet been tried as a political system in any country. Individuals only profess to be theoretically governed by it. Nor would it be possible, as society is at present constituted, for any man to carry out its principles in daily life. That any statesman would be instantly ruined who should openly announce that he intended to govern the country on purely Christian principles, may be made clear to the simplest comprehension. For instance, imagine our Foreign Minister getting up in the House of Commons and justifying his last stroke of foreign policy upon the ground that we should 'love our neighbors better than ourselves,' or penning a despatch to any Power that we felt 'persecuted' by blessing it. When do we even do good to anybody in our national capacity, much less to them 'that hate us'? We certainly pray like Chinamen when we want to propitiate an angry Deity about the cattle-plague; but who ever heard of a 'form of prayer to be used' for nations 'who despitefully use us'? Fancy the Chancellor of the Exchequer informing us that instead of laying up for the nation treasures upon earth, he proposed realizing all the country possessed and giving it to the poor."

This dominant idea is the key to the otherwise inexplicable lapse of a shrewd, keen-witted, satirical man of the world into slavish subjection to the influence of a religious pretender, and explains to us the astounding scenes which follow. Mr. Harris, founder and despot of the Brocton or Salem-on-Erie community, and the tyrant of Oliphant's soul, was an American. He walked from the beginning shrouded with a mystery which never was completely dispelled: this no doubt formed partly the secret of his influence. That his importance began in sincere self-delusion is likely enough: religious imposture usually does. Mrs. Oliphant says that his sermons, which were printed in a rough form, are instinct with high religious spirit. He could never have gained the ascendancy which he did over such a man as Oliphant if he had not been a man of rare gifts in his way. Evidently he was of a type far above the founder of the Oneida Community. He might have been a Loyola on a more favorable field. Not Loyola himself understood human nature from a particular point of view more thoroughly, or had a more deadly power of spiritual domination. We have a personal sketch of him in 'Masollam,' written when the imposture had been unmasked and the idol had been cast down. It depicts, as might be expected, an imposing and fascinating, though equivocal, personage, endowed with mystery of expression, voice, and manner, as well as of mind. How were Oliphant's sharp eyes blinded at first to that which they saw so clearly in the end? Wherein did the fatal spell consist? It consisted, we believe, in this, that Harris preached no dogma but "The Life." He pre-

sented Christianity not as a creed or a form of worship, but as a practical annihilation of self. This exactly jumped with Oliphant's dominant idea. Ordinary escapades were in some sort a preparation for a religious escapade, and the "remarkable detachment and independence" shown in joining Walker's filibustering expedition were shown also in joining the Brocton community. The result, however, was a submission to the "Father," not only entire but prostrate and abject. No neophyte of the Society of Jesus could do more.

Oliphant is ordered to the Brocton community for his period of probation. The picture of the Community presented to us is not very distinct, its clearest feature being the absolute despotism of the Father, who disposes not only of the actions and the worldly goods, but of the affections of his spiritual thralls, according to his paternal will. Natural affection is to be killed: people are grouped by Harris according to their magnetic affinities; there is, in fact, to be only one tie—the tie to Harris. Marriage is permitted under Harris's authority, but cohabitation apparently is not. There is no formal worship, but there is mysticism without end. There is even casting out of devils, which, one would think, might have opened Oliphant's eyes. Labor is the religion of the community, and through labor sanctified by faith and self-sacrifice the community is to transform the world into the likeness of Christ, filling the Father's pockets by the way. It is called by its members the "Use," to denote its practical character, and to its Master it is a "Use" indeed. The criminal weakness of submission to the will of another man on moral questions is disguised by Oliphant to himself under the pretence that by some mystical union of spiritual "breaths" the will of Harris is his own, and that God moves them both at the same time. Oliphant was in Parliament with a fair prospect of success; but the first trial of his obedience is submission to the Father's command never to speak in the House, and thus to forfeit the selfish hope of distinction. While under probation at Brocton, he is sent to sleep in a loft containing only orange boxes and one mattress. His work is wheeling barrows of dirt and rubbish. He is not allowed to speak to any one. When he comes home dead-beat at nine o'clock, he is sent out again to draw water till his fingers are almost frost-bitten. He is set to cadge strawberries along a railway line. When his mother, who shares the delusion, joins him at Brocton, she too, a delicate lady, is put to the most menial work, and, by a politic refinement of spiritual tyranny quite worthy of Loyola, is forbidden any maternal intercourse with her darling son.

After probation, Oliphant is sent back to work in the world at his ordinary employments, though for the holy objects of the Community. He goes to New York to promote a commercial company, and to France as the war correspondent of the London *Times*. But the far-reaching hand of the "Father" is still on him, and he is recalled from France by what he had now become sufficiently enthralled by this strange superstition to take for a supernatural sign. But this is not the worst, or anything like the worst. Oliphant falls in love with a woman whom the biographer paints as divine, and whom all who knew her thought most charming. She accepts his love, and he rapturously proclaims his engagement. But the Father lays an embargo on their marriage, and there is a miserable correspondence, in which Laurence labors to persuade his Alice to resign herself to the Father's will. Alice, whose spiritual temperament resembles that of her lover, does submit, and she, too, allows herself to be brought under the influence of the Father. At last that personage is graciously pleased to sanction some sort of mystical union, taking care at the same time to get the whole of Alice's property into his hands; her husband, sad to say, betraying the demoralizing influence of fanaticism by allowing himself to equivocate on that question. But afterwards he ordains the separation of the husband from the wife, and to this also Oliphant meekly submits. We doubt whether a more signal proof of spiritual influence was ever given than this enforcement on the author of 'Piccadilly' of a command which he ought to have rejected if it had come to him as a voice from Heaven. Alice is brought to Brocton and in her turn put to the probation of menial work. At first she is allowed to live with her mother-in-law, Lady Oliphant. But afterwards, the Father fearing perhaps that their combined intelligence may hatch treason, they are separated and Alice is ultimately sent away to California, all alone and without money, to engage in the drudgery of teaching a small school for pupils of the lowest class. The Father himself had by this time migrated from Brocton to California, where he was engaged in raising vines. Oliphant humbly sues to him for permission to join his wife. Poor Lady Oliphant ends her days miserably under the tyranny. In the end a visit to the Father in his Californian abode leads to the discovery of his real character. Among other indications, a ring, which, among the rest of the property of his debtors, he had taken into his holy keeping, appears on the finger of a member of his household. So the veil of the imposture is rent asunder and the false god is deposed. But the Father had secured the property of his children, and it was only after a lawsuit that some land at Brocton purchased by Oliphant was wrested out of his hands.

Laurence and Alice are reunited, and the short remainder of their joint lives is spent happily and picturesquely in the East, where Oliphant is occupied with his Jewish colonization. But the man once so shrewd and sensible had become incurably mystical. He was still full of "sympneumatics" and all kinds of transcendental and ecstatic bosh. A believer in Spiritualism, of which in his saner days he had kept himself clear, he exhibited a set of bad verses, which of course he had written himself, as having come to him from the other world. Worst of all, he took it into his head at one time that his lovely wife was not his real counterpart, and that he had a real counterpart "on the other side"—that is, as his biographer says, in heaven. His character belongs to a period of transition which, though fruitful of eccentricities, has hardly produced a greater or a more notable eccentricity than Laurence Oliphant. We thank his biographer for her work, which has been well done.

JAMES'S PSYCHOLOGY.—II.

The Principles of Psychology. By William James, Professor of Psychology in Harvard University. [American Science Series, Advanced Course.] Henry Holt & Co. 1890. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xii+689, and vi+704.

We have no space for any analysis of the contents of this work, nor is that necessary, for everybody interested in the subject must and will read the book. It discusses most of the topics of psychology in an extremely unequal way, but always interesting and always entertaining. We will endeavor to give a fair specimen of the author's critical method (for the work is essentially a criticism and exposition of critical principles), with a running commentary, to aid a judgment. For this purpose we will select a short section entitled "Is Perception Unconscious Inference?" Perception in its most characteristic features is, of course, a matter of association in a wide sense of that term. If two spots of light are thrown upon the wall of a dark room so as to be adjacent, and one of these is made red while the other remains white, the white one will appear greenish by contrast. If they are viewed through a narrow tube, and this is moved so that the red spot goes out of view, still the white one will continue to look green. But if the red light, now unseen, be extinguished and we then remove the tube from the eye, so as to take a new look, as it were, the apparent greenness will suddenly vanish. This is an example of a thousand phenomena which have led several German psychologists to declare that the process of perception is one of reasoning in a generalized sense of that term.

It is possible some of the earlier writers held it to be reasoning, strictly speaking. But most have called it "unconscious inference," and unconscious inference differs essentially from inference in the narrow sense, all our control over which depends upon this, that it involves a conscious, though it may be an indistinct, reference to a genus of arguments. These German writers must also not be understood as meaning that the perceptive process is any more inferential than are the rest of the processes which the English have so long explained by association—a theory which until quite recently played little part in German psychology. The German writers alluded to explain an ordinary suggestion productive of belief, or any cognition tantamount to belief, as inference conscious or unconscious, as a matter of course. As German writers are generally weak in their formal logic, they would be apt to formulate the inference wrongly; but the correct formulation is as follows:

A well-recognized kind of object, M, has for its ordinary predicates P_1, P_2, P_3, etc., indistinctly recognized.

The suggesting object, S, has these same predicates, P_1, P_2, P_3, etc.

Hence, S is of the kind M.

This is hypothetic inference in form. The first premise is not actually thought, though it is in the mind habitually. This, of itself, would not make the inference unconscious. But it is so because it is not recognized as an inference; the conclusion is accepted without our knowing how. In perception, the conclusion has the peculiarity of not being abstractly thought, but actually seen, so that it is not exactly a judgment, though it is tantamount to one. The advantage of this method of explaining the process is conceived to be this: To explain any process not understood is simply to show that it is a special case of a wider description of process which is more intelligible. Now nothing is so intelligible as the reasoning process. This is shown by the fact that all explanation assimilates the process to be explained to reasoning. Hence, the logical method of explaining the process of association is looked upon as the most perfect explanation possible. It certainly does not exclude the materialistic English explanation by a property of the nerves. The monist school, to which the modern psychologists mostly belong, conceives the intellectual process of inference and the process of mechanical causation to be only the inside and outside views of the same process. But the idealistic tendency, which tinctures almost all German thought not very re-

cent, would be to regard the logical explanation as the more perfect, under the assumption that the materialistic explanation requires itself ultimately to be explained in terms of the reasoning process. But Prof. James is naturally averse to the logical explanation. Let us see, then, how he argues the point. His first remark is as follows:

"If every time a present sign suggests an absent reality to our mind, we make an inference; and if every time we make an inference, we reason, then perception is indubitably reasoning."

Of course, every psychological suggestion is regarded as of the general nature of inference, but only in a far more general sense than that in which perception is so called. This should be well known to Prof. James, and he would have dealt more satisfactorily with his readers if he had not kept it back. Namely, perception attains a virtual judgment, it subsumes something under a class, and not only so, but virtually attaches to the proposition the seal of assent—two strong resemblances to inference which are wanting in ordinary suggestions. However, Prof. James admits that the process *is* inference in a broad sense. What, then, has he to object to the theory under consideration?

"Only one sees no room in it for any unconscious part. Both associates, the present sign and the contiguous things which it suggests, are above board, and no intermediary ideas are required."

Here are two errors. In the first place, "unconscious inference" does not, either with other logicians or with the advocates of the theory in question, mean an inference in which any proposition or term of the argument is unconscious, any more than "conscious inference" implies that both premises are conscious. But unconscious inference means inference in which the reasoner is not conscious of making an inference. He may be conscious of the premise, but he is not conscious that his acceptance of the conclusion is inferential. He does not make that side-thought which enters into all inference strictly so called: "and so it would be in every analogous case (or in most cases)." There is no doubt, therefore, that ordinary suggestion, regarded as inference, is of the unconscious variety. But Prof. James further forgets his logic in hinting, what he soon expresses more clearly, that such an inference is to be regarded as a mere "immediate inference," because it has no middle term. We might suppose he had never heard of the *modus ponens*, the form of which, A and B being any proposition, is

If A, then B;
But A:
Hence, B.

Those who think a light is thrown upon the ordinary process of suggestion by assimilating it to reasoning, assimilate it to the *modus ponens*. The proposition "If A, then B," is represented by the association itself, which is not present to consciousness, but exists in the mind in the form of a habit, as all beliefs and general propositions do. The second premise A is the suggesting idea, the conclusion B is the suggested idea.

Already quite off the track, our author now plunges into the jungle in this fashion:

"Most of those who have upheld the thesis in question have, however, made a more complex supposition. What they have meant is that perception is a *mediate* inference, and that the middle term is unconscious. When the sensation which I have called 'this' is felt, they think that some process like the following runs through the mind:

'This' is M;
but M is A;
therefore 'this' is A."

Those who have upheld the thesis are not in dispute among themselves, as represented. They make no supposition throughout not admitted by all the world. To represent any process of inference now as a *modus ponens*, now as a syllogism with a middle term, is not necessarily taking antagonistic views. As for the syllogism given, it is the weakest mode of supporting the thesis, far more open to attack than the form first given above. But Prof. James makes no headway, even against this. He says:

"Now there seem no good grounds for supposing this additional wheelwork in the mind. The classification of '*this*' as M is itself an act of perception, and should, if all perception were inference, require a still earlier syllogism for its performance, and so backwards *ad infinitum*."

Not one of the authors whom we have consulted makes the M entirely unconscious; but Prof. James says they do. If so, when he insists that "this is M" is an act of perception, he must mean some ultra-Leibnitzian *unconscious* perception! Has he ever found the German authors maintaining that that kind of perception is inferential? If not, where is his *regressus ad infinitum*? What those authors do say is that M, and with it the two premises, are thrown into the background and shade of consciousness; that "this is M" is a perception, sometimes in the strict sense, sometimes only in that sense in which perception embraces every sensation. They do not hold sensation to be inferential, and consequently do not suppose a *regressus ad infinitum*. But even if they did, there would be no *reductio ad absurdum*, since it is well known to mathematicians that any finite interval contains an infinite number of finite intervals; so that supposing there is no finite limit to the shortness of time required for an intellectual process, an infinite number of them, each occupying a finite time, may be crowded into any time, however short.

The Professor concludes:

"So far, then, from perception being a species of reasoning, properly so called, both it and reasoning are coördinate varieties of that deeper sort of process known psychologically as the association of ideas, and——"

We break the sentence, which goes on to something else, in order to remark that "a species of reasoning properly so called" must be a slip of the pen. For otherwise there would be an *ignoratio elenchi;* nobody ever having claimed that perception is inference in the strict sense of conscious inference. Instead of "a species of reasoning properly so called," we must read "reasoning in a generalized sense." Remembering also that Prof. James began by insisting on extending the controversy to association in general, we may put association in place of perception, and thus the conclusion will be, "so far from association being reasoning in a generalized sense, reasoning is a special kind of association." Who does not see that to say that perception and reasoning are coördinate varieties of association, is to say something in entire harmony with the thesis which Prof. James is endeavoring to combat? To resume:

"—— physiologically as the law of habit in the brain. To call perception unconscious reasoning is thus either a useless metaphor or a positively misleading confusion between two different things."

Here the section ends, and in these last words, for the first time in the whole discussion, the real question at issue is at length touched, and it is dismissed with an *ipse dixit*. There is no room for doubt that perception and, more generally, associative suggestion, may truthfully be considered as inference in a generalized sense; the only question is whether there is any use in so considering them. Had Prof. James succeeded in establishing his *regressus ad infinitum*, he would have refuted himself effectually, since it would then have been shown that an important consequence, not otherwise known, had been drawn from the theory. As it is, he says nothing pertinent either pro or con. But a little before, when an unconscious predication was called perception, was this perception "properly so called"? And if not, was calling it by that name a "useless metaphor," or was it a "positively misleading confusion between two different things"?

INDIVIDUAL LIBERTY AND STATE INTERFERENCE.

A Plea for Liberty: An Argument against Socialism and Socialistic Legislation. Consisting of an Introduction by Herbert Spencer and Essays by various writers. Edited by Thomas Mackay. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

The Principles of State Interference: Four Essays on the Political Philosophy of Mr. Herbert Spencer, J. S. Mill, and T. H. Green. By David G. Ritchie, M.A. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1891.

NAPOLEON is credited with the apothegm that an army led by one bad general will do better than if led by two good ones; and the principle is illustrated by these two books. We need not go quite so far as Mr. Ritchie, who complacently observes that although his proofs were out of his hands before the 'Plea for Liberty' appeared, he found nothing in that work to make it necessary for him to alter any of his arguments; but there is some ground for saying, as he does, that the various writers do so much to weaken each other's positions that they render detailed criticism almost superfluous. The writers are substantially agreed in their dislike of Governmental meddling, but the grounds of this dislike are not altogether the same, and the arguments by which it is defended are incongruous. Their effect is the opposite of cumulative, and they amount in many cases to little more than cavilling.

The most conspicuous offenders in this respect are the authors of the essays entitled "The Impracticability of Socialism," "State Socialism in the Antipodes," and "Free Libraries." The first essay is sound enough, but wearisome; the second is disappointing in the vagueness of its charges in a case where definite proofs would be of exceptional value, and the third is but a railing accusation. The essay upon "State Trading as Illustrated by the Post-office" would be far more telling if its charges were supported, as they could have been, by properly authenticated evidence. The discussions of "Investment," "Free Education," "Liberty for Labor," and "The Discontent of the Working Classes" contain much that is suggestive, but the mode of statement is not so clear and forcible as to command assent.

On the other hand, the essay upon "The State and Electrical Distribution," which is by an electrical engineer, shows very effectively how the attempt of the Government to secure to municipalities the "unearned" profits to be derived by electric-lighting companies from their franchises, resulted in the practical suppression of the electric light for some years in England. Local authorities that own gas works, it seems, are ani-

mated by the monopolistic spirit of private corporations, and oppose competitive improvements. Upon the subject of the housing of the poor we have a really valuable contribution, showing the great progress that has been made in dealing with this matter by private persons and societies who have held fast to the principle that capital invested in sanitary dwellings should bring some return. It is the disregard of this principle by Government that renders its action so mischievous. The co-operative building and loan associations may be said to have made it possible in many communities for every deserving person to own his dwelling-house.

Mr. Auberon Herbert has the reputation of a doctrinaire, but his paper on "The True Line of Deliverance" is a model of good sense. He points out the fact that a great part of the evils under which we suffer are due, not to competition, but to restraints upon competition, and comes very near to demonstrating that all attempts in the direction of State restraint, however benevolent, tend to produce greater evils than they cure. The great improvement in the condition of laborers is largely due to increased facility of competition. On the other hand, the enormous outflow of English capital is probably due, to some extent at least, to the discouragement of enterprise caused by an accumulation of vexatious interferences with business in England. In a more general way Mr. Spencer expounds the superiority of voluntary coöperation to compulsory coöperation; and it must be said that his Introduction is as clear and powerful as anything he has ever written. He describes the situation in the following passage: "While elevation, mental and physical, of the masses is going on far more rapidly than ever before—while the lowering of the death-rate proves that the average life is less trying—there swells louder and louder the cry that the evils are so great that nothing short of a social revolution can cure them."

There is, indeed, no escape from the dilemma which Mr. Spencer offers to the Socialists. Labor must have some organization; if not that which arises by agreement under free competition, then it must be that which is imposed by authority. Hence there must be established grades of laborers, with enforced subordination of each grade to the grades above. If there is to be no voluntary exchange of labor for produce, there must be compulsory apportionment. There can be no voluntary abandonment of places by laborers. Every one must stay where he is put, do what he is told, and take what is given him. An army of supervisors must be employed, and their collective power would result in the practical bondage of those whose labor they would direct, who could no more escape from administrative despotism than soldiers can escape from military discipline. This, Mr. Spencer maintains, would be a return to evil conditions from which men have extricated themselves by the most prolonged and painful exertions.

Mr. Ritchie's book is meritorious in several respects. As a criticism of Mr. Spencer's position, it is clever, and as to some points conclusive, although rather needlessly contemptuous in tone. He exposes very neatly the inconsistency of maintaining the doctrines of individual liberty and of the "social organism" at the same time. It may sound very well to say that governments are not made but grow, but if it is to be taken literally, the consequences to political philosophy are serious enough. If we inquire whether the individual has any right to exist apart from the organic whole, we are brought face to face with our difficulties at once. Still, Mr. Ritchie finds it so hard to restrain his wrath in this polemic that he weakens his case a good deal.

This is not true of his examination of Mill's theory of liberty, and it is here that we find his book especially satisfactory. It brings out the issue between the two schools of thought, and contains in small compass those tenets upon which all socialistic systems must finally rest. In the view of Mill and of those who intelligently hold to individual liberty, "all restraint, *qua* restraint, is an evil." The other view, as Mr. Ritchie puts it, is that restraint has nothing evil in its nature, but is good or bad according to the purpose for which it is employed. From this he argues that the State, or the majority, may properly compel the individual to do what is for his own good and for the common weal. But the individualist insists that the proposition should be made to read—The State or majority may rightfully decide what acts the individual shall do, and compel him to do them; and he maintains that restraint in this sense, however practically necessary, is an evil. In proof of this, he appeals in the first place to experience, which shows that the State has constantly compelled action which is subsequently admitted to be wrong: those who in one age are persecuted as heretics are in the next revered as martyrs. And in the second place, he insists that it is of the essence of good action that it be voluntary. The fact that I am perfectly satisfied that another person ought to do a certain act, does not make it a good thing that I should force him to do the act against his will and conscience. And what is true of me is true of any number of human beings, or of the State.

By a common misconception this doctrine is thought to imply anarchy or the extinction of the reign of law. This error will be avoided by those who reflect that the principle above stated requires the punishment of those who violate it. In the ideal state of the individualist, interference with liberty by the State takes place only in the case of those who interfere with the liberty of others. Here Mr. Ritchie's criticism becomes pointless, for he argues as if he thought Mill's view was that there was more liberty and individuality to be found among savages than among civilized men. It is equally absurd for him to represent Mill as holding that it is no function of law to overthrow the tyranny of custom, although we are quite sure that Mill would have gone to the stake rather than say, with Mr. Ritchie, that it is interfering "on behalf of individual liberty" when the State takes education from the hands of ecclesiastical bodies or close corporations. This proposition may be regarded as containing the very spirit and substance of Socialism, and we see no reason why religion should not be included with education.

The position of the individualists can be turned in only one way, as Mr. Ritchie clearly sees, and he accordingly denies the existence of any man as an individual being. In his philosophy—he is a believer in the Hegelianism of the late T. H. Green—man is a complex metaphysical entity, made up of a host of relations, especially relations to his fellows, and is so far from being a "plump and solid" individual that he is to be regarded as a cell in the social organism. The State is not a mere means to individual welfare; it is an end to itself. An abstract term, therefore, is regarded as a being of a higher order than an individual man. This abstraction has a consciousness and a conscience, it may be supposed, and its requirements for the attainment of its end justify its interference with the acts of individual men.

Green, however, made self-realization the end of man's existence, and held that the function of the State was to make it possible for men to realize themselves, although this could only be done within the State. Now, as the morality of an act depends upon the freedom of the agent from compulsion, self-realization implies freedom. But this is twisted by Mr. Ritchie into meaning that the State must put the individual into a position where he can act freely. Freedom of contract, he says, does not exist when the laborer agrees upon his wages with the employer, and the State must interpose. The State, therefore, or the majority, must determine in what welfare consists, and may rightfully impose its determination upon its subjects. Mr. Ritchie, it is true, would limit the action of the State by the lessons of experience; but having endowed the State with supreme power, his individual judgment cannot limit it, for that is to recognize a higher power. And herein lies the danger of Socialism, that it revives in the absolute power of the majority all the evils of despotism. We cannot criticise Mr. Ritchie's essay at length, but it will repay careful study.

Intentions. By Oscar Wilde. (The Decay of Lying. Pen, Pencil, and Poison. The Critic as Artist. The Truth of Masks.) Dodd, Mead & Co.

THESE four essays by Oscar Wilde are, we fear, likely to have scant justice done them. The second, which is a study of Wainewright, the artist-poisoner, Lamb's friend, and the fourth, which is mainly an inquiry into Shakspere's use of dramatic properties, or the resources of "staging," are merely quite admirable papers on their respective subjects, with nothing to startle or to amuse, and no more individuality than serves to give a pleasant liveliness to the style. The first essay, however, which is on what is commonly called idealism and realism, and the second, which is upon criticism, are of a different quality—of a nature, indeed, to make the injudicious grieve. In characterizing idealism as a mode of "lying," Mr. Wilde, as he takes pains to intimate, starts from a Platonic point of view, or at least maintains analogy with the poet-doctrine of the 'Republic'; but he does much more than frankly challenge the realists in defence of the artistic lie; he invents a succession of paradoxes so stunning to the commonplace mind that his object might fairly be thought to be the bewilderment of the Philistine majority rather than persuasion. When he affirms that it is more true that Life and Nature imitate Art than that Art imitates Life and Nature, that Art in no case reproduces its age, that the telling of beautiful untrue things is the proper aim of Art—which are his main propositions—he comes dangerously near implying, in the reader's mind, that the said reader is a fool. Though for our own part we most potently believe these things, we hold it not meet to have it so set down. And not only is Mr. Wilde's intellectual statement paradoxical, but the exposition of the doctrine is studded with epigrams, brilliant and amusing, of the sort that suggest trifling with the truth.

The effect might well be that, to the commonplace mind—and whom else does the author address in such an essay?—this superficial appearance of running amuck with all sensible people may well conceal the sound intelligence and acute penetration at the heart of these papers. Something, however, is to be allowed to a writer who is so painfully aware

of the mental dulness of his race. "Our splendid physique as a people," he says, "is entirely due to our national stupidity. I only hope we shall be able to keep this great historic bulwark of our happiness for many years to come." And after this he makes no concessions to his readers in the "middle class," but goes on in a fashion to make them stare. "Newspapers," he laments, "may now be absolutely relied upon. One feels it as one wades through their columns. It is always the unreadable that occurs"; and so he approaches the subject of realism, with a contrast by the way between the ancient historians, who "gave us delightful fiction in the form of fact," and the modern novelist, who presents us "with dull facts under the guise of fiction." A page or two of direct criticism leads up to the abstract discussion, criticism that has more than a grain of salt to the sentence. "Mr. James Payn is an adept in the art of concealing what is not worth finding. He hunts down the obvious with the enthusiasm of a short-sighted detective"—that is the swing of his critical broad-axe, and with it he despatches the heroes of the field as if he were lopping daisies. "'Robert Elsmere' is, of course, a masterpiece—a masterpiece of the 'genre ennuyeux,' the one form of literature that the English people seem to thoroughly enjoy. . . . It is only in England that such a book could be produced. England is the home of lost ideas." And then he passes into France, and comes round again to Meredith, whom he thinks well of. "As a writer he has mastered everything except language; as a novelist he can do everything except tell a story; as an artist he is everything except articulate." Nor is this the praise of a malicious spirit—not at all; it is meant for enthusiasm. All this criticism in detail is really subordinate to the general question, Is Art or Life and Nature the greater? and he answers it at once by a specific case again, instancing Wordsworth: "Poetry gave him 'Laodameia' and the fine sonnets, and the great Ode, such as it is. Nature gave him 'Martha Ray,' and 'Peter Bell,' and the address to Mr. Wilkinson's spade." Even in Shakspere he finds the same truth: "The passages, and they are many, where the language is uncouth, vulgar, exaggerated, fantastic, obscene even, are entirely due to Life calling for an echo of her own voice, and rejecting the intervention of beautiful style through which alone should Life be suffered to find expresssion"; and as for Nature, "Nature," he says, "is always behind the age." These quotations, which are (except the last) from the first score of pages in the volume, are enough to indicate the paradoxical and epigrammatic quality of Mr. Wilde's method of expression; for in the thought itself there is no such paradox as appears on the surface of the style. The substance is the old doctrine of idealism, old as what Mr. Wilde might call the first of Lies (and therefore of truths), the story of the Garden of Eden. The development of his notion that Life imitates Art, and that Nature also, though by the subtle assistance of man's eye, does the same thing, is excellently done, and with a freshness of illustration and a certain warmth that give his words attractiveness and force. The relation of Art to the age is less definitely made out than we could wish: there is no relation, he says; but denials as well as affirmations need explication often, and here more might have been said. The same doctrines in a certain sense underlie the essay upon Criticism, but the expression of them is different. It has the same logic, though the matter is of another kind. We content ourselves with quoting the summary of what he has "shown," namely, that it is "more difficult to talk about a thing than to do it, and that to do nothing at all is the most difficult thing in the world"; that "all art is immoral, and all thought dangerous; that criticism is more creative than creation, and that the highest criticism is that which reveals in the work of art what the artist had not put there; that it is exactly because a man cannot do a thing that he is the proper judge of it; and that the true critic is unfair, insincere, and not rational." Without subscribing to this creed unreservedly, we shall yet venture to confess that, so far as criticism is concerned, Mr. Wilde seems to us to have the truth of the matter, and to have carried the analysis of the art and its ideals further in certain definite ways than we have yet seen in any other such paper.

His style is unjust to his thought, and no one, we fancy, would be quicker than himself to acknowledge that he disagrees with what he has stated in particular places, if such statement were to be regarded as complete and final. The method of paradox and epigram necessitates too partial a statement of large truths, too exclusive and often very limited points of view; it cuts truth into too small pieces. It would be easy to pick up phrases and sentences here and there and make them ridiculous, but this ridiculous aspect is just the one that will appear to the commonplace mind without any effort on the part of anybody. It is rather our intention and pleasure to intimate that the reader will do a wise thing who tries to be more just to Mr. Wilde's thought than he has been able to be, and so to arrive at the substantial truth of which his essays contain more, both expressed and suggested, than is commonly to be met with nowadays. The defect of the volume is its cleverness and its yielding to a certain piquancy of style. In the essay on Criticism it is due to observe several passages of decorative prose that are really lofty in diction and noble in flow, and which, had they been a trifle less decorative, would have been eloquent in expression as they are in thought—passages in which the Greek shines through. At the end we almost relent—cleverness is so entertaining, and wisdom in the Aristotelian form can be had elsewhere; it is only in the interest of the too serious reader that we put in our caveat, and for his sake give warning that the most incredible paradox may be only an unusual and most interesting crystallization of truth.

Spain and Morocco: Studies in Local Color. By Henry T. Finck. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891. Pp. xv, 182, 8vo.

In this entertaining account of a two months' outing in the peninsula Mr. Finck gives his impressions of some of the external aspects of Spanish and Moorish life. This is done in an easy, genial way which makes him a very agreeable companion as he wanders through the streets of Madrid and Seville, or rides from Tangier to Tetuan or through the cañons of the Sierra Nevada. At the same time he incidentally conveys a clear and truthful picture in outline of the present condition of Spain. He finds room in his narrative for occasional trivialities, and his humor is in places exuberant, but he has the merit of never being dull, or of taxing the reader's patience with labored descriptions of famous pictures or buildings. He is at his best in his sketches of street scenes, which are apt to escape the notice of most travellers, but which are very significant of the national character. Among them are to be found several charming genre pictures of child-life.

Entering the country from the north, his first stopping-place after Burgos, to which he devotes a few lines, is the capital. Here the fact that all classes meet on equal terms in the cafés, leads him to the conclusion that "the Spaniards are the most democratic nation in the world"; while their habit of turning night into day convinces him that in their waste of the morning hours "lies the main cause of Spanish decadence." A bull-fight was simply "the most unsportsmanlike and cowardly spectacle I have ever seen," which, it surprises us to learn, the women rarely attend. "As a rule there was not one woman to every three hundred men in those degraded audiences." At Seville (for he has nothing noteworthy to say of the intervening cities) he was so fortunate as to see the Corpus Christi ballet in the Cathedral:

"A dozen beautiful boys went through various simple evolutions, singing an air like a Mozart minuet, and accompanied by flutes and violins. Twice, in the concluding measures, the castanets were used, and these, associated with dance halls, did have an odd effect in the echoing cathedral. The musical effect of the performance was delicious, and none but the most bigoted could have taken offence at the dancing."

A pleasant description is given of Cadiz, which, as it lies seven miles at sea, may fitly be called the Spanish Venice. The glaring whiteness of its houses, however, is a serious drawback to the enjoyment of the beauty of its situation. Thence our traveller went to Tangier, six hours distant by steam, and he dwells at length on the familiar topics, the narrowness and filth of the streets, the shops, the market, the snake-charmers, and the dancing-girls. But most interesting of all is his account of the comparatively little known Tetuan and his ride thither. This town, he says, "is considered one of the headquarters of the Hebrew race," whose chief occupation is gold embroidery on velvet and silk. Notwithstanding they are comparatively well treated by the Moors, one of them, the British consular agent, "told me that many of his race are leaving Tetuan and emigrating to America, chiefly to Boston." At Gibraltar we are once more on familiar ground, and Mr. Finck does not again leave the beaten track, except to ride by diligence from Granada to Murcia "through one of the weirdest and wildest parts of Spain—a prehistoric region of cave-dwellers." In passing along the Sierra Nevada he finds the scenery to resemble strikingly parts of Arizona and Colorado. "The sides of these cañons and gorges are adorned with the most realistic carvings, sculpture, and architectural effects—complete houses, with doors and windows and picturesque castles. No *fata morgana* could be more perfect, and one would be inclined to believe in a human origin of these carvings were they not on too large a scale, and extending along miles of inaccessible precipices." Beyond this is a region

"which is densely covered with the mud homes of the Gitanas. Many of these homes are mere caves dug into the hillsides, as at Granada, some being on a level with the ground, and some farther up the perpendicular hillside, where it is a curious sight to watch the women moving about in their glaringly colored half-dresses, and the children as naked as in an African kraal. On all sides rise mounds and hillocks of various sizes, occasionally as large as castles, shaped like a mosque or a cone, and into these, too, the Gypsies and the poorest of the Spaniards have dug rooms, sometimes in two stories, and with a chimney on the top."

With a too brief notice of Alicante, Valencia, and Barcelona, the most thriving cities of

the peninsula, our author parts company with his readers—prematurely, as the majority of them will think. The volume is prettily made, and its scarlet cover suggests a guide-book function which we have no doubt it will frequently discharge.

Under a Colonial Rooftree: Fireside Chronicles of Early New England. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THE general appearance of this little book reminds one of 'Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay,' which so quickly gained a second edition two years ago. Nevertheless, the two differ both in matter and in aim. Mr. Bliss's book enters rather deeply into colonial history, while this work reflects only here and there the image of some stirring colonial or Revolutionary incident. It has evidently been the author's purpose to put together those parts of her ancestral history which belong to the old family mansion near Hadley, and which are also of interest to the general reader. In her appendix she says the collection likewise owes its existence to her desire to "preserve the descriptions of life in his boyhood, taken from the letters of the late Theodore G. Huntington." The author is quite too modest if she thinks these passages are its principal attraction. Indeed, not all show enough descriptive power to give them much interest apart from the personality of the writer, especially if one happens to remember Charles Dudley Warner's wonderfully graphic pages in 'Being a Boy.' The great charm of the book lies in a certain diary which is much quoted, and which reveals to us something of the thoughts and the life of a strong and noble woman, Elizabeth Porter, Bishop Huntington's grandmother. Her life and her mother's remind us that, though Puritanism had its dogmas, harsh and even barbaric in the ideas of God which they represented, the Puritans, or at least many of them, had other things besides dogmas—a sturdy endurance and an unvarying faithfulness which excite our admiration. This diary is also interesting because it tells us how intelligent New Englanders in the remoter towns felt when they heard that the British were marching on Concord, and later, when they saw Burgoyne's captured army marching through their villages, and still later, in the chaos which, under the Confederation, led to Shays's rebellion.

It may seem ungracious to remark that the author, otherwise so careful, has fallen into two or three inaccuracies in the use of dates. She says the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut were drawn up in 1636, whereas they first saw the light three years later, and she puts the Boston Council, which invented the Halfway Covenant, in 1660, instead of in 1657.

Our Common Birds and How to Know Them. By John B. Grant. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THIS little volume is written for those who love birds and desire a speaking acquaintance with them, but have no aspirations for professional knowledge. The author frankly admits that the gun is indispensable to the professional ornithologist, but holds that any one who will follow his instructions and is possessed of the requisite patience may attain the former goal. In a pleasantly written chapter he tells the reader to equip himself with a note-book and opera-glass, instructs him how to conduct himself in the woods and fields, furnishes him with a list of the birds he is most likely to see, and also the dates in spring and fall when the migration of particular species may be expected.

Thus prepared, he suggests to the novice to walk abroad and watch the birds as they are busied in their various occupations, to see all he can, and to jot down in the ever-present note-book all he sees. By comparing his notes with descriptions in the books, and by means of an occasional visit to the museum, he will come, sooner or later, to know the common birds. No better plan, perhaps, can be devised for the amateur than this; but, however facilitated by such popular books as the present, the knowledge of birds still remains uphill work except for those possessed of abundant leisure, great patience and enthusiasm. There is no short cut to ornithological lore any more than there is to other kinds of knowledge.

The hints to beginners and certain remarks upon classification—the latter might better have been omitted as of no value to the novice—are followed by some ninety pages of text, in which are described ninety species, and by sixty-four plates. The descriptions are untechnical, as they should be, and are generally good, though too brief in some cases to be entirely clear; moreover, they relate only to the male birds. The females are wholly unnoticed, the space in the book and the trouble to the describer thus saved being at the expense of the student.

The illustrations have been produced in a manner which shows that by means of photographs of mounted birds reproduced cheaply in half tone and accompanied by brief descriptions, the student can be materially assisted in the labor of identification. But from the point of view of the naturalist the plates are very bad indeed. The attitudes of many of the birds are unnatural, though they are alleged to be "characteristic," and the forms are distorted. The mounting is slovenly and in defiance of the most ordinary taxidermic rules, though it is said to be the work of an "expert taxidermist." Such poor work is the more inexcusable as taxidermy has made rapid strides of late years, and the taxidermists in this country who are capable of mounting birds naturally and artistically are to be numbered by the score. To publish illustrations of such badly mounted birds as these at this late day is an offence against both nature and art. Moreover, the would-be teacher of ornithology should know the birds whereof he discourses. But of the sixty-four birds illustrated three are incorrectly named. Thus the "Phoebe" of Plate xiv. is a Wood Pewee; the "Northern Shrike" of Plate xlii. is the Loggerhead Shrike, and the "Wilson's Thrush" of Plate lxiii. is the Hermit Thrush. Apparently the author is not a graduate of his own school.

Chemistry in Space. From Prof. J. H. Van'T Hoff's 'Dix années dans l'histoire d'une théorie.' Translated by J. E. Marsh. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

THIS little work is the first English translation of a remarkable pamphlet which appeared in Holland some years since, and which contains the history of the development of an important chemical theory which, if not even now universally adopted, has yet found many earnest advocates. The theory in question originated simultaneously in France and in Holland, and is due to F. A. Le Bel and J. H. Van'T Hoff, writing independently. In organic chemistry we meet with many instances in which two or more compounds have the same composition—that is to say, contain the same elements united in the same proportions—and yet exhibit wholly different properties. To a certain extent we can explain these differences by supposing that in a given case, for instance, the two bodies have different molecular weights or different internal structures. These modes of explanation sometimes, however, fail completely. Van'T Hoff and Le Bel first suggested that an explanation might be found in the different geometrical positions of constituent molecules or atoms. The theory has already been found to be of great service, and is steadily gaining ground among chemists. Mr. Marsh's translation of Van'T Hoff's work will be cordially welcomed as a considerable extension of the French edition, executed with the assistance and advice of the author.

Charles Macklin. By Edward Abbott Parry. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891.

IT was a shrewd stroke of editorial judgment on the part of Mr. Archer to single out the editor of 'Dorothy Osborn's Letters' to prepare the biography of Macklin for the Eminent Actors Series, and his judgment has been ratified by the result. Mr. Parry is not quite as acute in his dramatic perceptions as the author of the Life of Macready in this series, nor is he quite as learned in theatrical lore as the author of the Life of Betterton; but the Life of Macklin lags but little behind its predecessors. It is a conscientious piece of biography, carefully prepared, planned, and written. The chapter on Quin may seem like an excursus, but it is welcome; and its presence gives the volume a claim to a certain completeness as a picture of the state of the stage in England and Ireland in the years before the young David Garrick took the theatre by storm. Mr. Parry shows a wise scepticism as to Macklin's centenarianism; the old comedian's career is picturesque enough without this needless touch. On the other hand, the biographer is lacking in generosity, and we think in justice, in his references to David Garrick (on page 75). Garrick was not only the greatest actor the world has ever seen, he was also an honest man; though he moved forward often by devious ways, there was little in his conduct that was crooked. Macklin's two great claims to consideration nowadays are his one comedy, "The Man of the World," and his resuscitation of *Shylock* as a tragic part. To both of these Mr. Parry pays due attention. It is with something of a shock that we learn that the authorship of the couplet on Macklin's *Shylock*—

"This is the Jew
That Shakspere drew"—

may not be Pope's, despite the accepted tradition.

The book is worthily furnished with a list of the parts played by Macklin and another of the plays produced. There is an adequate index in which we note one misprint: Charles James Mathews's name should have but one *t*.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Graetz, Prof. H. History of the Jews. Vol. I. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.
Jones, Prof. H. Browning as a Philosophical and Religious Teacher. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Löwy, A. Catalogue of Hebraica and Judaica in the Library of the Corporation of the City of London. London.
Malory, Sir T. Le Morte Darthur, edited by H. Oskar Sommer. Vol. III. Studies on the Sources. London: David Nutt.
Mason, G. C. Annals of the Redwood Library and Athenæum, Newport, R. I. Newport.
Monro, D. B. Grammar of the Homeric Dialect. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Parker, T. J. Lessons in Elementary Biology. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Supplement to the Index to American Genealogies, issued in 1886. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons. $1.
Winter, J. S. Good-bye: A Novel. United States Book Co. 25 cents.
Winter, W. Gray Days and Gold. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Woodhead, G. S. Bacteria and Their Products. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Worthington, S. Politics and Property, or Phronocracy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

Summer Reading.

The appearance of the first novel of so popular a story-writer as Mr. Thomas Nelson Page is a literary event of unusual importance. It is a welcome addition to the list of first-class American fiction, and it amply fulfils the promise of his charming short stories. The title of the story is 'On Newfound River'; the scene, Virginia before the war; and the characters the typical aristocrats, poor whites, petty politicians, and darkies, common to the time and place. It is a delightful romance. The heroine is sweet and the hero brave. The scenes and incidents are admirable—idyllic, pathetic, and dramatic. It abounds in shrewd character sketches, and has a plot that steadily engages attention. Altogether it is a distinctly strong piece of fiction, and one of the best novels issued in late years. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, $1.00.)

A collection of tales full of merit and promise is 'Gallegher and Other Stories,' by the young editor of *Harper's Weekly*, Mr. Richard Harding Davis. By these stories Mr. Davis has taken a sudden leap into well-deserved popularity. The field covered is New York city, and with its various phases of life Mr. Davis shows great familiarity, together with ready appreciation of the dramatic, pathetic, and humorous elements of human nature in all classes of life. His stories have much of the charm and power of Dickens's descriptions, while there is a finish in the rounding of each theme that suggests the French masters of fiction. Their pathos is deep and true, their humor fine and genuine, and their human nature realistic in the best and most graceful sesne of the word. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, cloth, $1.00; paper, 50 cents.)

Mr. H. C. Bunner is always a charming story-teller, so graceful, finished, and effective, and in 'Zadoc Pine and Other Stories' one finds a new collection of tales that will charm this author's many admirers. They are full of homely human interest, with sharp insight into the motives and feelings that animate our modern life in town and country, all buoyed by a delicate charm of gentle humor and geniality that makes them unique. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, cloth, $1.00; paper, 50 cents.)

The many readers who found Mr. Frank Stockton's 'Rudder Grangers' so entertaining on first acquaintance with them on the old boat, will find them no less so in the author's new book entitled 'Rudder Grangers Abroad.' It will be eagerly sought by all the old friends of Euphemia, Pomona, and Jonas, who will experience renewed delight in this continuation of the droll and mirth-provoking adventures of that unique family. The volume also contains several other new and capital short stories by Mr. Stockton. They are in his best vein—bright, cheery, and irresistibly humorous. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, cloth, $1.25; paper, 50 cents.)

For a leisure summer hour no better companion could be chosen than Mr. T. A. Janvier's 'Color Studies and a Mexican Campaign.' It was the charming sketches known as 'Color Studies' that first won Mr. Janvier distinction as an author, and all readers will welcome gladly this reissue of them, containing an additional story of considerable length in which the same characters continue their adventures in Mexico. No lover of light and graceful fiction should fail to make the acquaintance of Mr. Janvier. His sketches of character are delightfully unpretentious, they are touched with genuine humor, and they are always true to life. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, cloth, $1.00; paper, 50 cents.)

Mrs. Burnett's earlier stories have never an instant waned in popularity since they were first given to the public, and there is, therefore, excellent reason for the reissue in two volumes of those charming tales, 'Lindsay's Luck,' 'Miss Crespigny,' 'Theo,' 'Kathleen Mavourneen,' and 'Pretty Polly Pemberton.' Her characters are life-like and well drawn, while each narrative fairly brims over with sentiment of the purest and sweetest kind. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols., each, 12mo, cloth, $1.25; paper, 50 cents.)

Mr. John B. Grant's book, 'Our Common Birds,' holds a peculiar place of its own among books relating to out-of-door-life. It contains sixty-four illustrations from photographs of the birds, each illustration accompanied by a description of the bird's plumage, habits, and such other information as will enable one to recognize the familiar songsters. The illustrations are excellent and the text is simple. It is a fascinating book, not only a genuine help to the country rambler and lover of nature, but forming delightful reading. (Charles Scribner's Sons. Illustrated, oblong 12mo, *net*, $1.50.)

No one who seeks agreeable summer books can afford to overlook Scribner's popular Yellow Paper Novel Series. The volumes cover diverse enough subjects to suit almost any taste: they are brought out in attractive style, and are reasonable in price. The series includes some of the best-known works of Robert Louis Stevenson, Frank R. Stockton, Frances Hodgson Burnett, G. W. Cable, Joel Chandler Harris, H. H. Boyesen, and many other popular authors. (Circulars sent to any address by the publishers.)—*Advt.*

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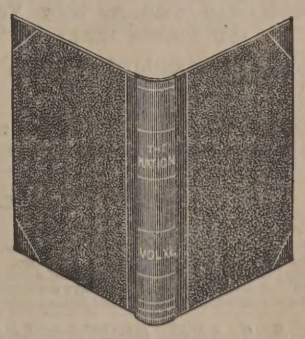

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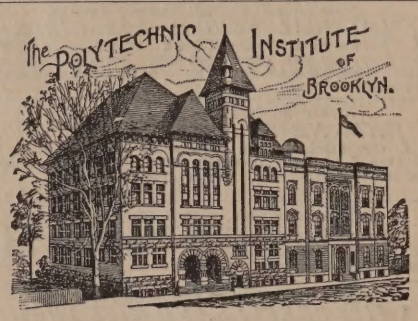

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 16, 1891.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE'S health has become a daily topic for the newsmongers, and the reports sent out from Bar Harbor are as conflicting as the first rumors from a hotly contested battle-field. On the one hand, the public is assured that there is nothing the matter with the Secretary of State, beyond the unimportant circumstance that he has become a little worn by overwork in the Department; on the other, that his condition is already desperate, and is steadily growing worse. A "staff correspondent" of the St. Louis *Republic* sends the most sensational report, declaring that Mr. Blaine is physically a mere shadow of his former self, that his mind is in a state of collapse, and that his physicians do not expect him to survive more than a few months at the longest. Sweeping contradictions of all these statements have of course followed. A controversy over the state of a man's health is a gruesome one when it has passed the stage for joking which was proper enough in Mr. Blaine's case three or four years ago, and we should not refer to these reports except for the fact that the public has a legitimate interest in knowing the real condition of the Secretary of State. The exact truth about the matter, as we learn it from authorities in Bar Harbor whose opportunities for knowing the situation could not be excelled, is that Mr. Blaine is very feeble, that his illness is most serious, and that he can never again be active in affairs unless there should be a great and radical change in his condition, such as there is no reason to expect.

The Republicans of Ohio, in their recent State Convention, adopted the following resolution on the silver question:

> "We approve the Coinage Act by which the great product of the silver mines is added to the currency of the people, and out of which experiment may come a wise adjustment of financial questions liberal towards Western interests."

This is construed as a declaration against the free coinage of silver. The only agitation in Ohio on that question is promoted by the National Silver League. There is no evidence that any considerable number of persons in either party have any particular bias as to silver one way or the other. Probably all who take the trouble to think about it would say that they are in favor of both silver and gold, but would be more in favor of gold than of silver if they were convinced that they could have only one. The number of persons in the whole country who desire to send all our gold abroad, or convert it into merchandise and establish the single silver standard, is so small that the few who would really prefer it make a pretence of not desiring it. But the truth undoubtedly is that few persons think about the matter at all. The subject is a difficult one to master, and consequently a few windy and plausible talkers are able to make it appear that the people are taking a great interest in it, whereas the great majority do not understand it, and take no interest in it whatever.

Some complaints have recently been heard from exporters of canned goods over a ruling of the Treasury Department requiring the actual inspection of all articles of export upon which a drawback is claimed. As it appears to be a physical impossibility to make this inspection with the force at the disposal of the Government, the exporters have been compelled to let some of their goods go without obtaining any drawback upon the tin cases in which they are packed. But although this may seem a hardship to them, if they regard it from a purely selfish point of view, it is obvious that it may be a matter of vital importance to that tender infant, the tin industry. In fact, we are very much inclined to believe that it will be necessary to abolish the drawback upon the manufactures of tin altogether before the industry can be fairly established. For if we look at the matter closely, it appears that, under the existing law, the whole of the enormous product of our oil refineries and canneries that now goes abroad may be exported in tin cans of foreign manufacture. These industries are therefore practically allowed to import all the tin that they require free of duty, since whatever duty they pay upon the import of tin is refunded upon its export. But what is this but a discrimination against the struggling American tin-manufacturer? How can the Welsh manufacture be stamped out so long as this steady market is assured? It would be almost as wise to pay the Welshmen a bounty upon their production as to allow them these outrageously favorable terms. So long as they can continue to send their goods to this country free of duty, so long will they continue their wicked rivalry with American tin plate. Upon the goods which they furnish to our exporters they will probably make such profits as to enable them to sell the rest of their product below cost, thereby ruining all the fond hopes that have been entertained of the American industry. It would probably be speaking within bounds to say that, if this policy lasts, many American tin mines will remain undiscovered, that dozens of tin factories which have been the theme of poetry and romance will never "materialize," and that two or three old men and several boys will be thrown out of employment.

The net purport and effect of the McKinley tariff on tin plate has been to transfer from the pockets of the American people to those of the importers of that article a very large sum of money. The smart fellows, like Niedringhaus of St. Louis, who pretend to make tin plate and who distribute Welsh plate in the form of tin cups, pans, and whistles as the genuine American article, "loaded up" with the imported article before the new tariff took effect. They are now charging for the stock on hand about what it costs to import it with the duty added. There is a slight difference, due to the competition of sellers who are loaded up as aforesaid, but the market is quoted by C. S. Trench & Co., in their trade circular of July 11, as "firm with upward tendency." The same circular tells us that the excess of importation this year over the two preceding years has been equal to about three-months' supply; but as this excess includes everything that the Welsh manufacturers had on hand, the very sweepings of their warehouses, there are certain kinds and grades of which we have not a three-months' supply. What then? We shall very soon resume our importations, and, when we do resume, the consumers will be compelled to pay in duties very nearly as much as the tin plate costs free on board at Swansea.

There is a certain elasticity about the logic of protectionism that leads to results such as would be obtained in a system of mathematics where twice two sometimes made three and sometimes five. If a mathematician of this school produced calculations that were unfavorably criticised, he would always be able to say that his critic only made out a case by giving the wrong value to the factor two in a particular part of the calculation. These observations are in part suggested by a paragraph in the *Tribune* giving the decennial rate of increase of population shown by the last English census, which is only 11.64 per cent., the smallest on record, while that of 1811 was 18.06 per cent., and that of 1821 was 15.80 per cent. Upon this it is remarked, "Inasmuch as the rate of increase of the population affords the surest gauge of the prosperity and material progress of a nation, it will be seen that England's economic condition was infinitely superior in the times when her industries enjoyed the fostering care of the protective tariff to what it is nowadays under the blighting and disastrous reign of so-called free trade." Now this cannot be meant as a joke, because it would not be safe to allow jesting upon the sacred subject of the tariff in the columns of the *Tribune*. Some of its elderly readers would be sure to take it seriously and to ask for explanations which it would be dangerous and unpleasant to make before a critical public. But if it be taken seriously, what are we to think of the bearing of the principle laid down upon the effect of protection in this country during the last decade? Has this effect really been blighting and disastrous, as the principle requires? Is the trouble with the Republican tariff or the Republican census? We do not ask for information for our own use, having clear views upon the subject, but there must be many readers of the *Tribune* capable of reasoning that if two and two make four, twice four ought to make

eight, and they are certainly entitled to an explanation of the relation of the lessened rate of increase of population in this country for a period during which our industries have been enjoying the fostering care of the protective tariff.

The public have very good reasons for distrusting the accuracy of Mr. Porter's census, but it is not often that this distrust is so entirely justified as it is by his defence of Bulletin No. 82. This bulletin made the ordinary expenses of New York city appear to be about $17,000,000 more than they are admitted to be by Comptroller Myers. In the case of the cities of Boston and New York, Mr. Porter included the county expenditures with those of the city, while in the remainder of the 100 cities taken for comparison he seems not to have included the county expenses. This proceeding is obviously misleading, and it is not easy to understand why it was resorted to. But the manner in which he verifies his inquiries is the remarkable feature of his method. He compiled a statement of the expenditure of the city of New York, and sent it to the Comptroller with the request that he would look it over and correct it. Not hearing from the Comptroller, he seems to have thought that the statement must be published without any further attempt at verification. He now calmly assures the public that if the statement is incorrect it is not the fault of the Superintendent of the Census, but of the Comptroller of the city of New York! The secretary of the Comptroller, however, declares that the statement was never received by him, and the question now arises, To whom will Mr. Porter charge the error of the statement? Probably he will blame the Post-office, and consider that he thus frees himself from all responsibility. But it is not encouraging to be given to understand that we are to receive the census returns subject to the proviso that they may contain errors which the Census Bureau trusted to outsiders to correct, and that the silence of these outsiders, whether due to the failure of the mail or whatever cause, is to be construed as an approval. The assistance of outsiders is of importance, but when it is not rendered the Census Bureau ought to take some pains to supply its place by verifications of its own.

Prof. Richmond Smith grapples, in the columns of the *Congregationalist*, with the problem of restricting immigration, taking the position that the difficulty arises from regarding the matter as national rather than international. He has no doubt that it will soon be regulated by international agreement, which will provide that each nation shall take care of its own unfortunates at home, and not connive at or assist their emigration as at present. But Professor Smith goes on to argue that if we demand of European nations that certain classes of persons shall not be sent to us, they have a right to demand that we shall not receive such classes of persons as they do not desire to have emigrate. He believes that the sentiment prevalent in this country concerning compulsory military service is false, and that we do wrong to "look with lenient eyes upon the youths who emigrate to avoid it." This he declares to be unpatriotic conduct upon the part of these youths, which we should not encourage. As to the objection that our enforcing the conscription in European countries would destroy the last refuge from political tyranny and oppression, he says it is old-fashioned. In the last century, it is true, liberty was unknown, and revolution was necessary to gain freedom of thought and speech. But all this is changed, and revolution is no longer necessary, and we should refuse to receive any European who cannot bring with him the certificate of the authorities of his native land that they consent to his departure. We do not consider this solution as very practical, since any party in this country that proposed to assist European Powers in enforcing their compulsory military service would be buried under an avalanche of popular indignation; but aside from this objection, we have only to consider the case of the Russian Jews in order to appreciate the despotic theory of government that underlies Professor Smith's proposal. There will always be many human beings who do not consider that "all modern civilized governments allow such participation in public affairs that revolution is no longer necessary for the vindication of human rights"; and it is to be hoped that despotism will never so far prevail as to be able to prevent men who feel they are oppressed by their own government from taking refuge in lands that offer them greater liberty.

The Committee in charge of the Baron Hirsch fund in this city aim to colonize as many of the Russian refugees as possible, and in order to make colonization more feasible, it has seemed best to connect an industrial feature with the agricultural enterprise. All the conditions favor the success of the experiment. The settlers, many of whom were agriculturists at home, and all of whom are animated with an ardent desire to make agriculture their permanent occupation in this country, must be possessed of at least $200 per family. The Committee, on their part, offer them good land on liberal terms and the means of cultivating it, and those skilled in manual labor, as many of them are, will be assisted in procuring remunerative work. The provision by which one-half of the land purchased is set aside for future sale to newcomers of whatever race or religion, is intended to prevent an undesirable isolation of the colonists, and will commend itself to all who are anxious for the rapid assimilation of every class of immigrants. That the colonization of Russian Hebrews can be successfully accomplished is proved by the example of the settlements established near Vineland, N. J., where about 700 families, all of them self-supporting, are devoted to fruit-raising and vegetable-growing. The success of this colony and of other settlements in the far West vindicates the wisdom of the policy of Jewish colonization inaugurated in this country, with such self-sacrificing zeal, by the late lamented Michael Heilprin.

Gen. S. C. Armstrong of the Hampton (Va.) Institute has been making a trip over the Southern Pacific route to San Francisco, on his way, for a summer vacation, to the Sandwich Islands, where he was born, the son of a missionary. He kept his eyes open for everything bearing upon the condition of the negroes as he travelled through the South, and saw and heard sundry things to confirm his view that the race is, on the whole, making as rapid progress as could be expected. At New Orleans he met Mr. Hutchinson, who is President of the Morgan line of steamers and manager of the Southern Pacific Railroad, a Southerner born and bred, who "has a clear-headed, fair view of the black man, infinitely more hopeful and helpful for him than any politician's solicitude." Mr. Hutchinson told him that negroes are employed on a perfect equality with whites in the machine-shops of the railroad at Houston, Texas, all hands being paid according to their ability, without the slightest reference to any consideration of race. This testimony brings out a striking contrast between North and South, upon which Gen. Armstrong thus comments: "The trades unions and prejudice at the North forbid this. When people begin to see more clear and straight into the negro question, they will realize that the industrial freedom which he enjoys at the South is far greater than that at the North. No black young man in the South is more badly off than the trained American mechanic, fresh from Col. Auchmuty's or other industrial school, in New York and elsewhere, who, on graduating, has no chance for work alongside of the emigrant mechanic who has landed that day at Castle Garden. The white man is at the mercy of the trades unions: the black man in the South is not, to the point of exclusion; only the lazy are hopeless."

A perceptible change in the attitude of Southern whites towards the education of the blacks is illustrated by a despatch from Port Gibson, Miss., to the New Orleans *Times-Democrat*. It appears that some benevolent women of the Presbyterian Church in the North have decided to establish an industrial institute for colored girls in Mississippi, but have not settled upon the location. The fact becoming known, the citizens of Port Gibson held a public meeting at the Court-house the other day, and adopted resolutions that, "Whereas we are desirous of expressing our interest and sympathy for all educational movements having in view the intellectual and moral improvement of our colored citizens, we invite the projectors of the movement to visit Port Gibson and confer with our people, with a

view to having such institute located in the vicinity of Port Gibson; and that we hereby promise our moral and active support to such institute, if planted in this vicinity." It is not many years since the people of any Mississippi town would have contemplated with aversion the starting of a school for "nigger girls" in their place; and the fact that in Port Gibson they not only invite the establishment of such an institution, but also promise their "moral and active support," is full of significance.

The controversy over the Railroad Commissionership in Massachusetts between the Democratic Governor and the Republican Council revives the periodical discussion as to whether the Council is an institution worth preserving. It used to be a common thing to divide the executive authority between the Governor and some body of this sort, but there are now only two States besides Massachusetts which hold to the old rule. There has been of late years a steady growth of opinion in the direction of centring power in one executive head, upon the theory that a single man can be better held responsible, and that when thus held solely responsible he will render better service. This has been the fundamental principle upon which almost all recent changes in municipal charters have been based, and it applies, of course, quite as well to State constitutions. When the people of Massachusetts elected William E. Russell Governor, they meant to intrust him with the executive authority, and it is an anomaly that he should not be able to exercise that authority unless a body of councillors belonging to the other party approve his ideas.

A very important matter was brought forward at the University Convocation on Thursday by Mr. Andrew D. White in his discussion of the topic, "Coördination of University, College, and Academy." He contrasted the lavish generosity of our people to the universities and colleges, and the large sums expended on our common schools, with the slender revenues of our high schools and academies. The intermediate schools, he declared, are utterly unable with their present resources to secure the educators that they need. But the importance of their work is undeniable, and unless they are properly equipped for it, the material which they pass on to the university will not be in such a state of preparation as to be most advantageously handled there. Mr. White went so far as to propose that the training given to the two lower classes in the universities should be turned over to the intermediate schools—a proposition suggesting that recently made for shortening the course at Harvard by a year. Whether this policy is wise or not is a question; but there is no doubt that our training-schools have been comparatively neglected in the distribution of the great gifts to the cause of education. Phillips Academy at Andover has recently made an appeal for subvention which shows an almost startling difference between the size of its endowment and that of any college or university having an equal number of pupils. No one will deny that the instructor in the preparatory school has harder work and less pay than the college professor. Few, we think, will not admit that this work is as important, and requires as high qualifications, as any that is to be done in the whole range of education.

The overwhelming defeat of the Parnellite candidate at Carlow probably puts an end to the political career of Parnell himself. But its effect does not end there. It will convince the people of England that the home-rule cause is not dependent upon the fate or fortunes of any particular man, but is a permanent, self-perpetuating force in the sister island. More than this, it will prove that moral influences are stronger in Ireland than personal attachments—a point of supreme importance in the coming general elections. When the Parnell scandal was first disclosed in court, his adherents said that the case was not an unusual one, and that many of his accusers were as bad as himself. They refused to take the view that Parnell had incapacitated himself to be an effective ally of the English Liberals, whose Nonconformist membership would have nothing to do with a proved adulterer. But the priesthood of Ireland rendered most important service at this juncture by opening the eyes of the people to both the moral and the political consequences of sustaining Parnell. To their influence more than to any other cause is due the collapse of Parnellism, of which the Carlow election is the indisputable sign. The reaction upon English public opinion must be very great and wholly in favor of the Liberal party.

The returns of the census for Scotland show that the tendency of population to concentrate is as manifest there as in this country. The Registrar-General divides the communities into five classes — principal town districts, large town districts, small town districts, mainland and rural districts, and insular rural districts. The first class shows a growth of over 12 per cent., the second a growth of over 20 per cent., the third of over 6 per cent. In the fourth, population has remained nearly stationary, but in the islands a decrease has taken place, which, in view of their serious over-population, is a gratifying showing. Some of these islands are in fact not fit for human habitation except during a part of the year. The most rapid increase in population has taken place in Glasgow, but Edinburgh, Dundee, Aberdeen, Leith, and Paisley all show increases of from 10 to 20 per cent. In 1841 Scotland had 2,600,000 inhabitants, and Ireland had 8,196,000. In 1891 Scotland has 4,033,000 and Ireland about 4,700,000; so that if existing tendencies continue, the population of Scotland will be the greater in 1901.

The prorogation of the Spanish Cortes till November leaves public business in a highly unfinished condition. Cánovas's labor bills, upon which he counts so much to secure popularity for his Administration, had clear sailing in the Senate, but were not even taken up in the lower house. The Government's financial measure, involving a loan from the Bank of Spain and the extension of the monopoly of that institution, had passed the Chamber by a large majority, and was under discussion in the Senate, at last mail advices; the telegraph does not say whether it has been agreed to, though it is altogether probable that it has, since the Treasury is badly off for money and would not allow the authorization of the needed loan to be deferred. Cuban affairs are left in a sad tangle. The new budget for the colonies was not voted, and that means the extension of the old budget for another year. The new budget was open to very serious objection on the ground that it made no adequate allowance for the effect of the treaty of reciprocity upon Cuba's revenue from customs; the only attempt in that direction was the proposed tax on real estate devoted to sugar-growing. Even that clause fails now, and the treaty will go into effect utterly disregarded in the estimate of income and expenses. If Spanish financiering were not of so happy-go-lucky a kind, this fact might be taken as an indication that the treaty is by no means so important a measure as has been indicated. But its details are soon to be made public, and then we shall know how badly the financial affairs of Cuba have been bungled.

A curious document was published in Brazil early in June over the signature of the ex-Emperor. It was signed at Cannes, April 23, and reached the public through a partisan of the empire, Viscount Taunay. Entitled an "Account of Office" (*Fe de officio*), it sets forth the ideas and aims which Dom Pedro says he cherished throughout the fifty years of his government of "his dear Brazil." Some things he is able to mention as actually accomplished, but more are spoken of as ends he strove for and hoped to reach, all in good time. He desired, he says, a free Church in a free State, but only when the education of the people would enable them to profit by those institutions. The address also has parts which look like a programme, though, on the whole, it has more the appearance of a political testament. It certainly has a characteristic conclusion: "In scientific investigations and in constant study I have found consolation, and kept myself from moral tempests." In some quarters the address was regarded as a political manifesto, or at least a feeler, intended to sound popular opinion on the question of a possible restoration of the Empire. But most people thought it simply the harmless attempt of an honest old gentleman to justify his conduct as Emperor. It has not caused a ripple of excitement; nor, on the other hand, does it appear to have lessened the kindly personal regard which has always existed among the people for Dom Pedro.

THE DRAIN OF GOLD.

THE continuance of the export of gold after sterling exchange had fallen below the exporting point has caused much anxiety and perplexity in the financial world. Not far from $70,000,000 have been exported within three months, and, in spite of the fact that the rate of exchange is now such as to make the operation apparently a losing one, the export has gone on and may be renewed at any moment. As men are not in the habit of deliberately going on with losing operations, it is obvious that, in some way not visible to the public, an advantage is expected to arise from these operations. Just how this profit is to arise, we may not be able to determine until the persons engaged in the transaction choose to take us into their confidence; but it may be possible to get some light upon the situation from a review of some of its conditions. Upon a subject on which so many intelligent men are in doubt, we do not wish to dogmatize. Our remarks are to be taken as tentative, and as representing a state of affairs, so far as the drain of gold is concerned, that is conceivable, although it may not be actual.

Let us in the first place ask ourselves how much gold we have. A year ago the Director of the Mint estimated it at about $700,000,000. He was able to point to some $65,000,000 in gold bullion and some $255,000,000 in coin held by the Treasury, to some $78,000,000 in the national banks, and to some $34,000,000 in other repositories. The remainder of the estimated amount held, some $260,000,000, was declared to be, in accordance with a venerated tradition, in the hands of the people. There are many reasons for supposing the existence of this last fund to be mythical. We are not talking of gold that exists in the shape of breast-pins and finger-rings, in teeth-fillings, and mirror frames and gildings, but of gold available for financial purposes.

Is this money to be found in the pockets of the people? No; for it is common experience that there is very little gold coin in circulation. When people get it, they generally pay it in to the banks, and there it stays. If the people do not carry it in their pockets, or pay it into the banks with their deposits, they must hide it somewhere. Do they put it in their safe deposit vaults? No; for those who have occasion to visit these vaults see no one handling bags of coin. They see men storing away stocks and bonds to large amounts, and such bulky articles as bullion could not be laid away to any great extent without exciting notice or comment. Do the people, then, hide their gold in old stockings, or under their cellar floors, or in their back gardens? It is conceivable that such practices exist, but there is not the slightest evidence that they prevail to any extent. Where, then, is this great fund of $250,000,000 or $260,000,000 of gold to be found? We apprehend that it exists only in the monetary tables of the Government and in the imagination of financiers.

If this view is correct, what is our present situation? The Treasury had on the first of the month about $177,000,000 of gold coin, and $62,000,000 bullion, say $240,000,000. Of this, $100,000,000 is a gold reserve, supposed to be specially pledged to the redemption of Government notes. This would leave say $140,000,000 available gold, against which there are outstanding certificates to the amount of about $120,000,000. If these certificates were drawn, there would remain about $20,000,000 in the Treasury on which to maintain gold payments, or, if the reserve be available, $120,000,000. To this should be added the amount in the hands of the banks, which is not definitely known, but was computed to be, a year ago, about $112,000,000. Upon the whole, it is probably not safe to estimate our stock of gold, including the $100,000,000 reserve, at much more than $350,000,000, or about one-half of the amount commonly assumed. A further loss of $70,000,000 might bring us within sight of the stoppage of gold payments.

Let us now proceed to consider the course that would naturally be adopted by a man who thought that all the circumstances indicated a change from gold to silver payments in this country. Every one knows the mainspring of the silver movement. Many honest and simple-hearted people are wild for silver, but the momentum of the demand comes from the feeling that it will enable people who are in debt to pay their creditors in something that costs less than gold. That is why we must have free coinage of silver. The present law confines the profit of the operation to the Government. But if the coinage of silver were free, the prices of all commodities, being then measured in silver, would rise, and every producer would obtain the wherewithal to pay his debts at less sacrifice than at present. Now it is not to be supposed that the creditor will supinely view this proceeding. Not only creditors but a great many shrewd persons will ask themselves, whenever an alteration of values is to be expected, "How can we make any money out of it, or how may we manage at least not to lose any money out of it?" Two ways are conspicuously open. The creditor may dispose of the obligation of his debtor at its present gold value, leaving the new owner to take his chances, or he may, if the terms of the debt allow it, insist upon present payment before the depreciated standard comes into effect. This is the first way. The second is to become a debtor, borrowing money at present convertible into gold, or buying commodities on credit at their gold price, with the expectation of paying the debt in silver. In the former way the creditor would escape loss and would have his gold ready for any use that presented itself. This would be his own gold absolutely. In the latter way the speculator would get gold or its equivalent that would be legally his own, but subject to a claim for its amount which he would expect to satisfy in silver. The former way amounts to a purchase of gold. The latter way amounts to a sale of silver. In the former way an investment is made that is secure against loss and depreciation. In the latter way one may also make an investment in gold upon credit, that may not only be secure against loss, but involve a profit.

It will perhaps enable us to see a little more clearly into this intricate matter if we pause to note that there is strictly nothing international about it. The United States, as a corporation, owes nothing to the Republic of France, or the Empire of Germany, or the United Kingdom. The debts with which we are concerned are the obligations of private persons, including corporations, to private persons. This observation is of importance because we are apt to speak as if, in view of free-silver coinage, foreigners would send over their American securities for sale here. But if these securities are not due, there is no compulsion upon Americans to buy them, any more than there is upon Londoners, and there is no particular reason, under the circumstances, why they should sell better here than in London. They cannot be sold except for a price satisfactory to the buyer, and the considerations that affect him are not those of his citizenship or residence. Hence it appears that such a realization as we have described for the purpose of getting gold need not involve any transfer of securities from the other side of the water, and herein lies the answer to those who say that gold is not being accumulated in this way because the street is not full of securities bearing a London ear-mark. In short, there is just as much inducement for timid and for cautious New Yorkers to sell American securities for gold as there is for timid or cautious Londoners.

But it is the peculiarity of the situation that there is no inducement to retain gold in this country when it is realized. The prime uncertainty, that which starts the whole movement, is the doubt in the minds of men of wealth, whether, if they lend gold now, or, what is the same thing, hold securities that are now payable in gold, they may not hereafter be obliged to take their pay in silver. No one will deny that there is a possibility of this result taking place in this country, or that there is, humanly speaking, no possibility of the kind in England. In short, if any one has a fund of gold, he will be likely to do better with it abroad than at home. If we are going to have free silver, gold in its present amount would be a drug in the market here; and on the other hand it is in rather unusual demand abroad. The Russian Government seems to have been accumulating gold. The Bank of France is allowing interest on gold deposits. And Mr. Goschen's significant speech, reflecting upon the slenderness of the reserves of the English banks, is not improbably bearing fruit.

The movement that we have described is, as we have said, not so much a movement for profit as for security. There is, however, nothing incompatible in this with a movement which some good observers profess to see arising out of speculation in wheat futures. That is an illustration of the second way above referred to, in which human nature may be expected to act in view of an anticipated disturbance in value. If the skies look stormy, some anglers will secure their game and get on shore; but some prefer to fish in troubled waters.

WANAMAKER'S LATEST VERSION.

Mr. John Wanamaker took the witness-stand in the Keystone Bank inquiry on Friday for the second time. He had been summoned ostensibly to explain the discrepancies between his first evidence and subsequent testimony, but it was soon clear that he was present in order that he might make an immediate defence against some entirely fresh charges which were to be produced. The new charges were in the suppressed Bardsley statement which the editor of the *Public Ledger* had "for grave public reasons" declined to publish in his newspaper. This proved to be a report of two conversations which had been held with Bardsley by members of the staff of the *Public Ledger*. We will consider the revelations of this document and Mr. Wanamaker's reply to them first, and his explanations of his former evidence afterwards.

Bardsley makes, in his conversations, three direct charges against Mr. Wanamaker. We give them in their order in his own language:

"Marsh told me that John Wanamaker knowingly held over 2,500 shares of our over-issue [fraudulent Keystone stock] and had demanded $100,000 for them, although he had never paid or given any value for them whatever. Wanamaker's demand was that Mrs. Lucas was to give $50,000 of that amount, Marsh $25,000, and the bank the remaining $25,000."

"A plan was arranged that the stock was to be thrown into a pool or given up, in order to help the rebuilding of the bank. Everything seemed clear for a speedy and satisfactory arrangement when John Wanamaker upset all our plans by his remarkable demand, accompanied by the threat that unless the $100,000 was paid over to his lawyer, P. F. Rothermel, he would close the bank. Marsh was frightened and did not know what to do. I told him to engage good lawyers at once and to instruct them to demand the over-issue from John Wanamaker, and not pay him a cent. I showed him that John Wanamaker was knowingly guilty of a crime in retaining those over-issued shares, and that he must not be permitted to bulldoze the bank. Marsh took my advice and engaged Mayer Sulzberger and John G. Johnson. They demanded the stock, and Wanamaker reduced his demand to $25,000, but he and his lawyer were told that if the stock were not returned by a certain specified date legal action would be taken against him. Before that date John Wanamaker weakened and returned every share of the over-issue."

"Let me explain to you what sort of a borrower John Wanamaker was, and how he borrowed. Here's an instance: In March, 1890, Marsh came to me in a great fidget and said that John Wanamaker wanted $200,000 from the bank, and must have it right away. Marsh added that he told Wanamaker that the bank had not that large amount of money to spare—hadn't it on hand, in fact—and Wanamaker said to him that 'he knew where to get it.' Marsh said to me that Wanamaker was a good customer of the bank anyhow, and he wanted to oblige him. I told him that I could not do anything for him. Two days afterwards he returned and said that John Wanamaker was persistent and must have the money, that he knew the bank did not have it, but if I would lend it the bank would not ask the interest, but would pay over to me direct whatever Wanamaker would agree to give. I let him have the money and John Wanamaker got it. The books of the bank ought to give a good idea of his transactions."

It is not strange that the friends of Mr. Wanamaker were unwilling to have these charges published. They connect Wanamaker for the first time with the missing $2,000,000 of city and State money which disappeared through the Keystone Bank into which Bardsley put it, and connect him also more closely than ever with Marsh and Bardsley. The first and second confirm the former evidence of Wanamaker and other witnesses that he was seeking to obtain money from Mrs. Lucas and Marsh for the fraudulent stock which he says he received from Lucas only as collateral. The third makes a direct charge, for the first time in the inquiry, that Wanamaker demanded and received $200,000 of the city money from Bardsley through Marsh as a loan. There have been rumors of such a loan having been made from the outset, and Mr. Wanamaker denied them emphatically on his first cross-examination. Now they assume definite form as having been common knowledge between Bardsley and Marsh, and again Mr. Wanamaker denies them emphatically, saying: "I pronounce that absolutely and unqualifiedly false from beginning to end, without any foundation of fact of any sort whatever."

In reference to the other two charges, Mr. Wanamaker admits that he did try to obtain money from Mrs. Lucas for the fraudulent stock, but says he considered the stock genuine, and has no proof to-day that it was not. He is less explicit in his testimony in regard to his demands on Marsh for money for this stock, but admits that when Marsh and the Vice-President of the bank called on him in Washington about it, "I felt obliged to say, that they must either settle with me or I could not, in justice to myself, allow the Comptroller of the Currency to be ignorant of the fact that they were claiming that some of the stock I held was improper stock." This is frank confession that he was trying to extort money from them for that stock, after he had been told that it was fraudulent, on threat of revealing the condition of the bank to the Comptroller and having it closed. The Comptroller's recollection is, that Marsh told him that Wanamaker's demand was for $50,000.

The sum and substance, therefore, of the new charges against Wanamaker, through Bardsley's conversations, are, that he borrowed $200,000 of the public money from Bardsley through Marsh, and that he tried to extort $50,000 from Marsh as the price of stock which he had been told was fraudulent, on threat of having the bank closed. He meets the first charge with a sweeping denial, and he virtually confesses the truth of the second.

In regard to his former testimony, Mr. Wanamaker makes very elaborate explanation. He says, of the 2,625 shares of genuine stock which he neglected to mention at all in his first statement, and which appear on the books of the bank as having been issued either to himself or to his secretary or office-boy, that he took them at Mr. Lucas's request to raise a loan of $40,000 to oblige Lucas, and that they never were his and he never had a penny's interest in them before or after. In regard to the fact that the books of the bank show that the greater part of the 2,516 shares of fraudulent stock were issued after Lucas's death, instead of long before, as he declared in his first statement, Mr. Wanamaker explains that all the certificates were issued in Lucas's lifetime, but were not all placed with his brokers till afterwards, and that the dates are not the dates of issue, but of the transfer. He passes by in silence the fact that these shares were issued in the name of his employees.

There are several points which are far from clear here, but it is as clear now as ever it was that Wanamaker, from the time that he received this fraudulent stock till the moment when Marsh made it valueless by confessing the truth about it and the bank to the Comptroller of the Currency, was using it as collateral and was demanding cash, ranging from $100,000 down to $50,000 for it, from Marsh and Mrs. Lucas as the price of its surrender. He persists in saying he does not yet believe it to have been fraudulent, yet he admits that he threatened to tell the Comptroller it was fraudulent if Marsh did not give him money for it. On minor points he is diffuse, and voluble, and pious, but on these he stands convicted out of his own mouth. Yet the Philadelphia *Public Ledger* says of his second statement, much as it said of his first: "Mr. Wanamaker's testimony was again a clear, comprehensive, and conclusive refutation of all the intimations and innuendos that have been made against him concerning the bad business of the Keystone Bank"; and the rest of the Wanamakered press of the city takes similar views.

REPUBLICAN MORALITY IN CONNECTICUT.

A bitter "journalistic row" between the proprietors of two Republican newspapers in Connecticut has resulted in the revelation of some very ugly party secrets. A short time ago the proprietor of the Hartford *Evening Post*, Mr. John A. Porter, who is also a member of the Legislature and a close personal friend of Gov. Bulkeley, published in his newspaper an article entitled "The Whole Story," in which severe reflections were cast upon the conduct of the proprietor of the New Haven *Palladium*, ex-Judge Lynde Harrison, who was Chairman of the Republican State Committee in 1884, and who has been for many years one of the ablest leaders of the Republican party in Connecticut. Both in and out of his newspaper, Judge Harrison has been outspoken in condemnation of the course of the Republican majority in the Legislature in refusing to allow the Democratic candidates for Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary, and Comptroller, who were elected in November last, to enter into office. He held that while the Democratic candidate for Governor had not received a sufficient number of votes to elect him, these candidates had, and that, in refusing to unite with the Democratic Senate in formally qualifying them for office, the Republicans of the House were pursuing an unjustifiable course. The Hartford *Evening Post* presumed to rebuke the Judge for his utterances on this point, and has finally goaded him into the publication of an open letter, which was printed on Friday morning.

Judge Harrison's letter is one of the clearest exposures of a clumsy piece of political

rascality ever made. It should be borne in mind that he is speaking as the recognized leader of his party, and that his long and devoted record of party service has never borne the faintest taint of Mugwumpism. His deliverances are official and are likely to be final, and they can be summed up in a very few words. He says there appeared in Republican circles, soon after the election in November, rumors that the Republicans of the House would attempt to force the Democrats of the Senate to concur in the election of the Republican candidate for Governor, by refusing to allow the Democratic candidates who had been elected to the offices of Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary, and Comptroller to be qualified. As soon as he heard of this plan, he denounced it in and out of his paper as unfair and impolitic, and it was so regarded by other leaders of the party. When the Legislature met, a select committee of the House was appointed to investigate the returns for State officers, and Mr. Porter was made its Chairman. After it had completed its work, Judge Harrison says that Mr. Porter went to him and told him that certain gentlemen wished him to make a report declaring that the Democratic candidates for Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary, and Comptroller had not been elected, but that he could not do so because he believed the contrary. Judge Harrison attended two meetings of the Committee, at which a few other Republican leaders were also present, and at each of these Mr. Porter favored a report declaring the three Democratic candidates elected. Such a report was drawn up at the second meeting on January 27, and Mr. Porter took it away with him to have it copied by a typewriter.

Between the afternoon of January 27 and the morning of January 28, an astonishing transformation was effected in this report. It was presented to the House on the latter date, and proved to be a declaration that the Committee had found that there had been no election for Lieutenant-Governor and Secretary, and that, in regard to the Comptrollership, the Democratic candidate had been elected, but should not be allowed to take office till the Senate would consent to join the House in an investigation of the election. Judge Harrison says that this report astonished him, and he characterizes it in the following vigorous language:

"I did not hesitate, after January 28, to tell you, as well as others, that I looked upon the report as dishonorable; that I had been cheated by you, and had been betrayed into taking part twice in a council with you on the subject when you very well knew, by what took place on January 7, that I would have nothing to do with the controversy in any manner, nor take part in any council on the subject, if it was intended to take the unfair, unwise, and impolitic course which was suggested.

"The report that was finally made went further than was suggested in November and December. You knew, as did many others, that the Republican party would not sustain you for any length of time in keeping out of office men who were elected, merely because the Democrats refused to do what the Republicans believed to be right in the matter of the Governorship. You are believed to be responsible for changing that report between the 27th and 28th of January. In making that change you did not dare to follow the lines of boldness suggested in November, but you imposed upon the honest members of the House by making a report which, in the light of all the events since that time, is clearly and unequivocally false."

The Judge charges Mr. Porter with the entire responsibility of this "unequivocally false" report, says that by some means or other he induced all his fellow-members on the Committee to sign it, and declares that the Republican members of the House accepted it because they had confidence in the Committee. These members, he declares, acted in good faith and in ignorance of the facts. "You," he remarks to Mr. Porter, "knew better. It is said there is forgiveness for those who sin ignorantly, but for those who sin against light there may be no forgiveness in this world or the next." Judge Harrison might have added that while in the moral world there is indeed no forgiveness for those who sin against light, in the Republican party there is seldom forgiveness for those who sin and get found out. This is the aspect of his case which will most depress Mr. Porter.

As for the effect of the disclosure upon the politics of the State, Judge Harrison freely predicts disaster. He himself gives the Opposition a fine campaign document in this letter, and especially in the following passage: "I am a Republican, and I believe in fighting political campaigns fairly, squarely, and for all they are worth. Politics is sometimes said to be a game; but it should be played by gentlemen in an honorable way. When beaten in the game, pay up, and don't try to steal the stakes." As a parting shot to Mr. Porter, he addresses him this solemn admonition, which, coming as it does from a loyal Republican, should be pondered deeply by all the Republicans of the State:

"Finally, Mr. Porter, you ought to understand that thousands of Republicans in this State consider that the honor of their party is at stake in this matter. The national platform of 1888 reaffirms the devotion of the party to the principle that every lawful ballot shall be duly counted. In the Republican State platform of September, 1890, it is demanded that throughout the length and breadth of the land a free ballot and a fair count be assured. The position I have maintained, and still hold, in relation to Gen. Merwin is in affirmance of these great principles. The position you and the *Evening Post* take in relation to the minor officials is that a fair and honest count may be reversed by tricks in the secret conclaves of the final canvassing board, and such a position is one which the Republican party of Lincoln, Grant, Garfield, Harrison, and Blaine will repudiate whenever it has an opportunity."

No Republican newspaper in the country has been more fervid in its demands for a pure ballot in the South than the Hartford *Post*, whose proprietor is now disclosed as the perpetrator of a piece of political rascality worthy of a Returning Board of Southern carpet-baggers. That such a thing should have been done successfully in a New England State shows more clearly than anything else that has happened lately how completely the Republican party has passed into the hands of its Quays, Dudleys, Wanamakers, and Porters.

COUNTRY READING AND VOTING.

THE editor of one of the oldest "country weeklies" in New England, the Litchfield *Enquirer*, on retiring from journalism after a quarter of a century of editorial work upon that paper, calls attention to the local changes in the conditions of rural journalism during the long period. In the county named, where twenty-five years ago there were but two weekly newspapers—not long before that only one—there are now nine. This change has taken place, too, in a county distinctively rural, filled with waning farm towns, and whose population, outside of a few factory townships, has shown a decided decrease. The increase of newspapers has not been due to any stronger natal appetite for newspaper reading, but simply to the cheapening, in the retiring editor's opinion, of the relative or absolute cost of the things by which country newspapers are produced, and especially by the introduction of the "plate matter" as a substitute for actual type-setting, at a saving of 75 per cent. What is true of Litchfield County is, we doubt not, true in a marked degree of the country at large; and when the new census gives us the statistics for a decade during which the use of "plate matter," ready-made cuts, "syndicate letters," "patent outsides," and similar "wholesale" newspaper material has enormously increased, we shall probably find an enormous proportional rise in the number of rural weeklies also.

The census of 1880 gave in the United States a total number of workers of both sexes and in all occupations of 17,392,099, and of this nearly one-half, or 7,670,493, were classed as agricultural. These ratios will probably not be sustained in the new census, owing to the drift of population to the cities and factory towns, but it is safe to say that at present at least three-eighths of our workers, and presumptively of our population and of our voters, are on the farm and among the class whom the country newspaper most directly touches. The vital change, therefore, in the forms and conditions of country journalism is a matter of the utmost interest when that journalism stands in immediate relations to a body of our voters which can hardly number less than five millions. If we could search the matter to the bottom, we should very likely find that the many farm agitations now in progress are due almost as much to the shifting in country journalism as to any other intellectual cause, and particularly so at the West.

A distinctive institution of the old rural life was known as "the county newspaper," whose specialty was the petty news of all the county towns. Almost every rural county, if of fair size, had one of these journals, much more rarely two. They were partisan to the core, they never abated their partisanship, and because they had a sort of local monopoly of printed opinion, they exercised collectively a mighty party influence. But at present the "county" newspaper proper is decidedly on the wane—has, indeed, almost passed away. The term survives, but only as a bequeathed one, and the old monopoly has been broken. Where there used to be one country newspaper, we now find two or three, representing various parties, cheaper by 50 per cent. than the old "county" sheet, and two subscribed for at the old price of one. Let any new party grow up

or a serious schism arise in an existing party, and it cannot be "howled down" by an autocratic county sheet as in the old political days, and can, with very little cost, establish an organ or organs of its own. The Farmers' Alliance at the West, for instance, has apparently found no dearth of country papers willing to support its cause. A few decades ago such a movement would have found very few indeed. Moreover, the rivalry in news-hunting, or rather the higher desire of news by the reader, has, among the multiplied country papers, much diluted the acidities of partisanship.

While, however, the political effects of the new state of country journalism are undoubtedly benign, and are showing themselves in looser party ties among the farmers, the good effects of that cheaper journalism on their moral and mental nature are much less obvious. The material wave of "brainy, breezy" journalism, of flashy writing, of distorted ideas as to "news," has not been stayed in our cities, but has passed with full flood into the country newspapers also. How far they are vitiating the rural readers there are few means of judging; but it was noteworthy that when, some months ago, the Springfield Mass., *Homestead*, an agricultural journal widely circulated among the farmers, asked its readers to send in a list of what they deemed the ten "best books," the first ten voted for by a great majority were works of fiction, and a very large number of the replies came from the mothers and daughters of the farm. Either the fathers and sons did not care to reply, or they did very little book-reading at all.

CORSICA IN SUMMER-TIME.

AJACCIO, June, 1891.

LIKE that very taking model, Miss Lydia Nevil of St. James Place, London, in Mérimée's most charming story of 'Colomba,' I write to you partly for the pleasure of dating my letter from Ajaccio. There has been considerable talk of a daily line from Nice to Corsica, making the passage in six hours; but when one has seen the comparative poverty of the island, it seems very doubtful if it would pay. The line, in fact, that carries the mails thither just now has failed. The talk on my way over was of this failure and the severities of the French bankrupt law, which are not small. The law enacts that, among other consequences, the bankrupt is deprived of all his political rights. Morelli, the owner of the line, is a Senator from Corsica, but, being no longer even an elector, he has been expelled from the Senate.

I had been waiting for nearly a year to get across, but, on the two weekly sailing days, it seemed particularly possessed to blow great guns. Once I started by way of Piombino, on the Italian coast, meaning to go to Elba and find some way of crossing from there directly to Corsica; but that day large trees were snapped off and there was no boat. I rarely find myself tempted to envy the yachting people who come here in the winter; and, indeed, many of them comfortably lay their craft up in port and pass two or three months at the hotels. I now understand thoroughly why so few people, out of all the thousands of pleasure-seekers who come to the Riviera, cross to Corsica, and why they will always continue to be rather few. It is the turbulent Mediterranean, wofully chilly in winter, and not the dangers of travel in the country—well dissipated now if they ever existed—nor the primitive nature of much of the accommodations.

By a slight coincidence the *Bel Ami*, the jaunty little sloop of M. Guy de Maupassant, was lying in port as we steamed out. It was a descriptive passage in some of Maupassant's writings—in 'Une Vie,' I think—that first made Corsica real and modern for me. We sailed at four in the afternoon, and were at Bastia the next morning. The town is backed up against high mountains. One is not expected to admire Bastia so much as Ajaccio, inasmuch as it is hardly a winter colony and resort for foreigners, like the latter, but its landscape is quite as pleasing, and one thinks more of it after having seen Ajaccio. They are not far from the same size, having both somewhere about 20,000 inhabitants. The houses run up into the air six, eight, and even ten stories. The same thing is true all over Corsica, even in the villages. This is novelty number one, and not a prepossessing one; it gives a tenement-house and factory-town look, and is very encouraging to squalor. It is, with little doubt, the vestige of Genoese tradition; the Corsicans threw off the yoke, but remain bound to this day to the fashions of their former rulers. Inquiring, in order to have the local theory of the usefulness of these sky-scraping buildings, the reply was made to me, "It is the custom," and again, "Building-stone is very cheap here, you know; it costs almost nothing."

I made the point of my first excursion into the country Cardo, the little village where Colomba and Ors' Anton took final leave of the friendly bandits and their comic dog "Brusco," and tried to induce them to leave the country. It is high in the hills, and very like, in all respects, say Falicon, above Nice. A few houses in front are neatly lime-washed, as if it were expressly done for the effect from below; the rest are all brown, gray, black with age, mere stone-heaps, as rude as the habitations of the ancient cliff-dwellers. It was hardly less deserted and silent than the famous *maquis*, the brushwood thickets which I traversed in mounting by a short cut. It looks down upon the vacant port of Bastia, but not upon the thick of the town, which clusters around one of those warm-colored old Vauban citadels that ornament most Mediterranean ports. The slopes were grown principally with almond and olive-trees and patches of grain. Country houses or cottages, as everywhere in the island, are few. The Corsicans are famous office-holders; at Nice, for instance, they abound in the Custom-house, the railway, and among the prison-guards. There is something in the Corsican character which leads him to desire to "boss" his fellow-men, if only as a concierge. These functionaries in course of time secure their retreat and return to the island to live upon their pensions, but even they do not aspire to a little house and garden: some curious instinct of sociability leads them to herd like the rest in the unpleasant tenement-houses. In the vacant port, I finally found that my still-cherished plan of crossing from Bastia to Elba direct, on the return, was not possible of realization. I knew already there were no steamers, but there used to be some boats freighting across iron ore from Porto Ferrajo to be smelted here, which, as the distance is short, and for the adventure, might have served for once. I applied at these smelting-works, and found that they had ceased to be operated.

In the afternoon it rained so furiously that veritable sheets of water in the streets disputed the right of way with the passengers. I employed part of this time in looking up, in the city library, our old friend James Boswell's narrative of his journey in Corsica, in the year 1765, which I had not been able to see until then. He proposed—seeker for celebrity and always athirst for the personal acquaintanceship of great men—to make a journey in Corsica because it was a country that no traveller had yet seen; and he came out, with a letter from Jean Jacques Rousseau, to find the patriot-hero Paoli, then in the midst of his wars. I followed upon his trace in many ways; and found myself the more comfortable in my lumbering diligence for thinking over how he made much of his journey on foot, knocking down chestnuts from the trees, drinking from the clear brooks, and likening himself, with a youthful gusto, to the primitive men. In Paoli's apartment, in the Franciscan convent at Corte—which I find replaced by a spick-and-span new one, only the ruined tower of the church remaining—he rallied the well-to-do monks, telling them they were "nihil habentes et omnia possidentes." It is hard to repress a smile at the pleasant incongruity when we find him saying, of the insurgent chief, in the wilds of Corsica, "I quoted to Paoli, on this occasion, some of the sagacious remarks of my respected friend Samuel Johnson." He was overawed by Paoli at first, but soon made great headway with him and all the camp, even to the point of putting on the dress, and singing "Hearts of Oak" to these patriots. There is but a single fault in the brief narrative: it is so very short.

There is a section of railway, narrow-gauge, built out of Bastia, and another out of Ajaccio. They have not especially got into the guide-books as yet. On the long gap from Corte southward, necessary to complete the through line, work is actively progressing. Then there are two important branch lines, one down the flat and malarious eastern coast, and one to Calvi, which I found a prodigious old fortress on a rock, in fertile country, beaten upon almost continually by violent winds. The eastern plain is being well planted with eucalyptus and with vines and fruit-trees and turned to very profitable account. We made a sharp bend to the west, up the small valley of the Golo. You have an excellent view of the two decisive battle-fields—but twelve miles apart—of Borgo and Ponte Novo, where, respectively, Corsican independence, as against the French, was first brilliantly successful, and then completely wiped out. It is hard to see how the fevers can follow up the turns of such fine dashing torrents as the Golo, as they are said to do, but the evidence seems little open to dispute. "If here," I say to myself, "why not into other mountain districts elsewhere?"

I got off at the village of Ponte Leccia, to make a sort of pilgrimage to Paoli's birthplace at Morosaglia, and so over the high pass, the Col de Prato, to the springs of Orezza. There are Corsicans who put Paoli, as their hero, almost above Napoleon. It is extraordinary what an interest he excited in his time, when you consider the small scale of these operations. Rousseau, as I have shown, Alfieri, Frederick the Great, and Joseph of Austria were his friends and admirers, and not for political reasons, as Pitt might have been, who leagued him against the French. He had a great deal to do with forming the character of the young Napoleon, and it would not be difficult, perhaps, to find a trace of the influence of this very early champion of independence even in our own Washington. This district

was the chosen fastness of Corsican insurrection: the lonesome convents hidden in the solemn chestnut forests sheltered Paoli and his council of government. The convent at Morosaglia is built, as it were, by rule of thumb; it is as rude and massive as if dug out of rock or clay, and its only ornament is a baroque belfry, typical for the class. You may recall two years ago some little stir over the bringing back of the remains of Paoli from London. He died there in 1807, and had a tablet in Westminster Abbey. I had a letter to the Canon Saliceti, who was the chief manager of this whole important affair. He is an amiable enthusiast about his subject, and a descendant of that Saliceti, representative of the people, one of whose acts was to arrest the young Napoleon at Nice, on the eve of his first campaign in Italy. The committee were flatteringly received by the notabilities of England—dined, among others, by the ex-Empress Eugénie, took the body with pomp through the streets of London, and afterwards had a triumphal procession in the island.

The monument is not a statue, but the ancestral house in which Paoli was born. It had pretty much fallen to decay. It belonged to a Corsican of high position, Franceschini Pietri, the chamberlain of the Empress Eugénie, and he presented it for the purpose. It is very plain, and in the restoration has probably been made, like Napoleon's house at Ajaccio, somewhat better than it was in the time of its famous owner. He is buried in the chapel. Beside him is a bust which, like the fine bronze statue at Corte and other portraits, is a pleasant surprise. I was rather prepared for a mountain warrior in goat-skins; on the contrary, here is a gentleman of the court in lace ruffles and queue, with even a point of humor on his handsome face. You think of Washington and Goldoni at one and the same time. I looked into the school at Morosaglia, and, later, into the college at Corte, both still supported in part by small funds he left them in his day.

You go down at a hand-gallop, on the other side of the pass, into the Castagniccia, the chestnut country *par excellence*. I took pains to taste some of the flour made from the chestnuts, the bread of the poorer people, and found it slightly sweet and very good. The villages peep through the tender, sunny green of the almost unbroken chestnut foliage, and delicate ferns carpet all the ground. I dined in company with the Mayor of Piedecroce, and after dinner we went out to look down upon the signal fires which the villagers lit up one after the other in honor of the fête of St. Pierre on the morrow. The Mayor says as many as 2,000 people come to drink the water of Orezza in July and August. It is a very agreeable, sparkling water. There is an extensive bottling establishment in the bottom of the valley. People don't go down there except to drink, but stay at one of the three villages high above. The Baths of Lucca are slightly recalled, but the accommodations are much more primitive and not greatly cheaper.

A Corsican officer at Nice, who gave me a letter, had wanted to wager that I would find nowhere in the world a slovenlier city than Corte. I had thought this perhaps was merely his own lack of experience in travel; but he was right. Corte, the old capital, is a highly picturesque crag reeking with filth, and this trickles down even into the modern portion, in which some excellent modern improvements have been made. The diligence ride to Vizzavona to resume the train is a long five hours' pull, over steep roads, but always good. The people in the villages are small and spare, the women about as often blondish as brunette. The costume can hardly be called picturesque: the men wear, almost as a uniform, poor suits of brown corduroy and nondescript cloth caps. You would often confound them rather with grimy English factory hands. The corduroy is afterwards cut down, in baggy fashion, and clothes the children too. You are exactly alongside the highest mountains, snow-capped and very Swiss. Here the Russian grand-duke, George, had been lately hunting the wild boar and the moufflon. On the seat beside me sat a little schoolmistress, who told me a very good bandit story of late experience in her own school-room. Your informants on this subject generally begin by declaring that it is all stuff and nonsense, "des fumisteries," and end by relating quite naturally experiences of their own that show it to be of frequent occurrence. The vendetta and a popular leniency towards assassination in quarrels are undoubtedly about as common as ever. But it must be borne in mind that bandit, in Corsica, means one who is under the ban of the law, and not necessarily, if at all, a robber. I was assured by many that one could go safely from one end of Corsica to the other, at any hour of the day or night, and I am much inclined to believe it. The bandit, you are comfortably assured, even if you should fall in with him, would befriend rather than injure you, unless you should tell the gendarmes of him.

The famous Bellacoscia outlaws are still at Bocognano, as they have been for forty years, in spite of a late determined new attempt of the Prefect to break them up. They have a hamlet, flocks, herds, and crops of their own. He sold off their cattle. At Ajaccio, through fear or sympathy, nobody would buy them, and they were sent to Marseilles. An acquaintance at Bocognano told me they were good to the needy. A poor man could go to them and get fifty or sixty francs, or they would give him an order on a merchant in Ajaccio for a sack of flour, to be repaid. I don't know whether these orders are honored as were those of Castriconi, in 'Colomba,' who used to write certain requests to people—oh, quite without threats; that was not his style—or whether they are a legitimate commercial transaction. One of my drivers, by the way, claimed to have driven Colomba in his own stage—the old lady of Sartene who passed for the original of that character. He says she was a little old woman, so short that her feet would not touch the floor, so she sat herself comfortably down upon it; she was illiterate but very intelligent, and had made several journeys to Paris in carrying out her schemes of retribution.

The pretty valley down to Ajaccio seems tame after the Castagniccia. It is cultivated only in spots; the original *maquis* covers all the rest. One of the local journals in Ajaccio was complaining indignantly of the ex-Empress Eugénie because she had just bought an estate at Cap Martin, near Monte Carlo, instead of buying it on the Casone. The Casone is an area out at the end of the suburban street, the Cours Grandval, where hotels and boulevards have been slightly begun by large companies and abandoned. "Yes, those Bonapartes," says the journal in question, "they were born in Ajaccio; when they were in power they did nothing for us, and now they squander their millions elsewhere." To make this the more interesting, it is to be mentioned that the domain was presented to the town by Napoleon's uncle, Cardinal Fesch. The grotto of Napoleon's boyhood is out there, too. It consists of some large smooth boulders, disgustingly daubed over with names, many in red and blue paint, in a way I have never seen approached in iconoclastic America. There is not the slightest attempt made to protect it.

Ajaccio is not embowered in oranges and roses like the Riviera towns, though, on the other hand, its oranges are of much better quality. It is very little embellished as yet; the strangers who come to pass the winter have not made much impression. The bay, the sea, are charming, and so is the Rue du Marché with the marble statue of the First Consul in a ring of palm trees in the centre; but elsewhere there is much that is unkempt. The climate is capable of producing everything, but, as it is, or used to be, in some parts of Southern California, it has not yet done so. All this time the temperature was delightful: it was summer, but it was not hot; as you walked the wide dirt promenade of the Place Diamant, under the somewhat scrubby sycamore trees, the sun was warm, but the breeze, coming in from the sea in front, was exactly what you would wish it to be.

I was at Napoleon's house about the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo. The lowest of the three stories is the show apartment, with very dilapidated furniture; the upper two have been occupied by the Princess Marianne, an obscure relative by marriage, who very lately died there. As her effects were being sold off, I was able to secure a small souvenir of the famous homestead, which would not have been so easy on ordinary occasions. The house is still very plain, though it was improved both by Joseph and Napoleon, after his return from Egypt. It is a part of one of the general high masses of stone and mortar, in a dingy street; no garden, no privacy, no elbow-room. It could never have been possible to keep away from the swarming neighbors, any more than it was in the bullet-riddled Gaffori house at Corte, that other residence of Charles Bonaparte. When all the Bonaparte boys and girls were piled in here in their youth, it must have been pretty close quarters.

The Bonaparte tradition does not gain in sentiment here among its earliest memorials. Even the monuments that had everything in their favor are somehow lacking. The principal one is by Viollet-le-Duc. It is in the edge of the Place Diamant, by the sea, and represents the bronze Emperor on horseback, a handsomer Marcus Aurelius, with his four bronze brothers, four kings, marching at the corners. The line of direction is said to be straight for St. Helena, and all their backs are turned upon the Place. In spite of Viollet-le-Duc, it is amateurishly classical, thin, and unreal. But after awhile there begins to be something fantastically striking about all these bronze brothers riding and striding away towards St. Helena, ignoring sublunary things and all that lies between. It is weird, as if they were walking in their sleep and ought to be waked up.

William Henry Bishop.

MIRABEAU.

Paris, June 25, 1891.

M. Louis de Loménie did not have time to finish the great work on Mirabeau which he had begun, and in which he used the papers left by the great orator to his executors. His son, M. Charles de Loménie, has published the notes left by his father, and has added just enough to them to give some unity and continuity to the work. Two volumes appeared a few years ago, in which M. de Loménie set forth the stormy youth of Mirabeau, his

quarrels with his family, his trials. The third volume, which now appears together with a fourth, begins in the year 1786, three years before the convocation of the States-General. We find Mirabeau at Berlin, where he had been sent on a secret mission and where he studied the work of the great Frederick. M. de Calonne was employing Mirabeau in this fashion in order to muzzle him (*pour le museler*). He arrived in Berlin just after the death of the great Frederick and remained in that city for six months; when he returned to France, he was in hopes of obtaining some official mission. "I am worth more than the majority of the King's ministers by reason of my birth, and as for my capacity, I leave it to be judged," were the terms he used in a letter to his friend the Abbé de Périgord (afterwards Talleyrand); but he obtained nothing and had to return to his work of pamphleteer. He immediately attacked M. de Calonne, to show him that "s'il était bon à prendre, il n'était pas bon à laisser."

During the period which preceded the Revolution, we find Mirabeau aspiring, like all Frenchmen, for new institutions, without knowing exactly what these institutions were to be or how the change should be effected. His mind was like a mirror in which images appeared only for a moment. There were, however, some fixed points in his sentiments. He had been a victim of arbitrary government, he had conceived for it a great hatred; he had incurred the severity of his own caste, he had conceived a great hatred of all privileges, and become a liberal like La Fayette, Alexis de Noailles, Mathieu de Montmorency. He had not learned much from the philosophers—he speaks coldly of Voltaire; but he greatly admired Rousseau; the "school of nature" was his natural school. Was he not led by his passions and his instincts as much as, if not more than, by his intelligence?

With his extraordinary gifts of elcquence, his Southern ardor, his tempestuous disposition, his activity which amounted to restlessness, he was born to be the most powerful instrument of the Revolution. As soon as the States-General were summoned, he went to Provence in order to take his place in the States of the province among the nobility; but the Tiers counted upon him. "The Tiers," he writes to his sister, "follows me with marks of confidence and enthusiasm. . . . I have never seen a *corps de noblesse* more ignorant, more stupid, more insolent. These people would make of me a tribune of the people if I did not take care." Mirabeau, who would have been willing to be chosen by the nobility of his province, was excluded by it; he was elected at Aix and at Marseilles as deputy of the Tiers-État, and chose to stand for Aix. It is interesting to know what were the articles of the *cahier* of the Tiers of Aix. The desiderata of this cahier were—liberty of the press and individual liberty, constitutional government and ministerial responsibility; "the clergy ought not to form an order in the State; its property ought to be sold." The cahier did not go as far as the abolition of hereditary nobility; it only asked that nobility might not be acquirable by money, that all feudal rights consisting of payments in money should be redeemable, and all personal servitudes abolished. It insisted upon the conservation of the provincial States of Provence.

On the whole, this cahier was not very revolutionary; it expressed the average opinion of the country. Unfortunately, the local agitation which accompanied the elections to the States-General produced what Taine calls a spontaneous anarchy; there were great disorders in many places; the defeat of the *ancien régime* was certain; a noisy and arrogant party was adverse to reform, but in reality everything had to be reformed, and when the States-General assembled, France was in a sort of chaos. Each deputation of the States made its separate entry in the Salle des Menus-Plaisirs of Versailles; the Duc d'Orléans, who appeared in the deputation from Crépy-en-Valois, was saluted with great applause. When the deputation from Aix was introduced, "some hands," says Grimm in his correspondence, "were disposed to render it the same homage, but they were stopped by a murmur of disapprobation, the sense of which will be understood by M. le Comte de Mirabeau."

Mirabeau was much offended; he felt himself suspected by the Assembly. He had no influence at first, but he was not a man to submit to this sort of antipathy, and he soon forced himself on his colleagues and made them feel his power. He founded immediately a paper with this epigraph: "Novus rerum nascitur ordo." There were at the time only privileged papers, submitted to a censor, like the *Mercure de France* and the *Journal de Paris*. Mirabeau asked no permission, his paper was suppressed; he immediately published another under the title, *Letters of the Comte de Mirabeau to his Constituents*.

In the struggle between the two privileged orders and the Tiers, Mirabeau took sides with the Tiers. For six weeks, discussions took place on the mode of taking the vote in the States; this discussion was in reality a struggle between the privileged and the non-privileged classes, between the old and the new régime. A great Minister would have found in the States the elements of an upper and a lower house, on the English model; but there was no great minister. It was absurd to have three permanent assemblies; finally the Tiers absorbed the nobility and the clergy. One of the elements of a good constitutional system was absent, and royalty found itself before a single chamber.

Mirabeau made his début in these important discussions. He soon was recognized as a leader in this reunion of 500 individuals, thrown together from all parts of the country, without a chief, without any hierarchy, all free, all equal, all wishing to be heard before they would listen themselves. Mirabeau wished to save the monarchy; at the same time he wished to keep his prestige with the people. The task was almost impossible. The royal sitting of June 23, 1789, in which the King spoke as the ancient kings did in the *lit de justice*, and announced his determination to preserve the ancient orders of the kingdom and modified some of the resolutions of the States-General, was followed by an insurrectionary movement. The legend will have it that Mirabeau, speaking to M. de Dreux-Brézé, who brought to the Tiers the order to retire, said: "Allez dire à votre maître que nous sommes ici par la volonté du peuple, et que nous n'en sortiront que par la force des baïonnettes." In reality, from Mirabeau's own account to his constituents, the scene was less melodramatic. M. de Brézé said: "Gentlemen, you know the intentions of the King"; upon which Mirabeau said: "We are assembled by the will of the nation and we will only go out by force." To which M. de Dreux-Brézé answered: "I can only recognize in M. de Mirabeau the deputy of the bailiwick of Aix, and not the mouthpiece of the Assembly." It is not at all likely that Mirabeau should have spoken of Louis XVI. as "votre maître"; but, with the exception of this word, the legendary answer differs little from the true one. This answer has done as much for the fame of Mirabeau as all his speeches.

The States-General had now become a National Assembly—Mirabeau seems to have been the first to use this word. The fear of a military *coup d'état* brought on the revolutionary movement of the 12th, 13th, and 14th of July and the destruction of the Bastille. Mirabeau did not appear at first (his father died on the 11th); but he reappeared on the 14th, when the revolution was triumphant; and when the King made his appearance in the Assembly, it was Mirabeau who reproved the marks of loyalty and fidelity, and asked "that a silent respect should mark the first appearance of the Sovereign in a moment of sorrow." "The silence of the people is the lesson of kings," was not said by him, though it was afterwards attributed to him, but by the Bishop of Chartres.

The forced journey of the King from Versailles to Paris was the real beginning of the Revolution and of the dictatorship of Paris. The taking of the Bastille was but an incident: it was the distinctive trait of the revolt, it gave a popular image to the Parisian insurrection and to all the insurrections which began over all the surface of France; in truth, what fell with the Bastille was the whole ancient administrative order. The troops were removed from the capital, and there was no authority left in it but a new administration which received its inspiration from the multitude. During this first period of the Revolution, Mirabeau is hand in hand with such men as Camille Desmoulins; he is a popular idol, a new "Roi des Halles." When the first constitutional discussions begin in the Assembly, he appears in another character: the fiery tribune shows in himself the qualities of a statesman; he knows, he feels, that something must be thrown athwart the great currents of popular opinion. He took a great part in all the constitutional work of the Assembly of 1789, in the declaration of rights, in the abolition of the feudal system, in the questions of a second chamber and of a royal veto. The real struggle was between Mounier, who, with Lally-Tollendal, Clermont-Tonnerre, and M. de la Luzerne, represented what may be called the English ideas, and especially the principles of a second chamber and of a royal prerogative, and Sieyès, the famous author of the pamphlet on the Tiers, who would have no second chamber, and who had unfortunately more influence with the Assembly. Sieyès was a vain, dogmatic, dialectic theorist. "Politics," said he, "is an art which I think I have brought to perfection."

Mirabeau vacillated, it must be confessed, between these two influences. His good sense showed him the wisdom of Mounier's ideas; his love of popularity inclined him at times to the solutions which seemed more in accordance with the popular caprice. On the question of a second chamber, Mirabeau abandoned Mounier; he did not even speak; he knew that the majority had made up its mind. He was firm on the question of the necessity of the royal sanction for the laws. "Without the royal sanction," he said, "I would rather live in Constantinople than in Paris." His ideal seems to have been a strong king and a strong chamber, working in unison for the people. Was the right of veto to be absolute, or was it to be only suspensive? Great discussions took place on this point. Mirabeau was in favor of the veto, but his utterances were such that he was not considered or represented as a partisan of an absolute veto. The Assembly adopted the suspensive veto, and in consequence of this vote Mounier and his friends

left the Constitutional Committee. A new Committee was appointed. Sieyès and Talleyrand remained in it.

While the constitutional work was going on, the revolutionary work did not cease; and, in fact, the revolutionary work had its constant influence on the Constitution-making. The insurrectionary forces of Paris invaded Versailles, entered the Assembly, and forced the King to return to Paris. The conduct of Mirabeau during the 5th and 6th of October was at least equivocal; he made a violent attack on the Queen on the morning of the 5th, but disappeared during the next day, while the château was invaded by the mob and the guard were massacred. A short time after these events, the Duc d'Orléans and Mirabeau dined together at Versailles at M. de La Marck's. "I saw clearly," writes M. de La Marck, "that there was between them a coldness which excluded the idea of a secret understanding." A few days afterwards, the Duc d'Orléans suddenly asked M. de La Marck, "When will Mirabeau serve the Crown?" M. de La Marck was surprised, and merely said, "It seems to me that thus far he has not moved in that direction." We shall, however, see Mirabeau take that direction, and we may follow him in his efforts for the preservation of the monarchy.

DEMOCRATIC ASSUMPTIONS—IV.

EQUALITY.

LONDON, June 18, 1891.

No "fundamental" of the democratic creed is more assailable—as none has been more successfully attacked—than the dogma of human equality. The proposition that all men are born equal, if looked at as an axiom of political science, is indeed patently absurd. The difficulty nowadays for any thinking man is not to perceive its absurdity, but to understand the reasons which have at times commended it to universal acceptance. Difference, we now see, is the law of the universe; it is certainly the law of human nature. Men vary in physical strength, in intellectual capacity, and in moral sensibility. Look at the world at any given period of history, and the phenomenon which arrests attention is the inequality of individuals and of classes. Strength and weakness, knowledge and ignorance, riches and poverty, every attribute or circumstance you like, serves to discriminate one person from another. A human being's destiny is in many things fixed from his birth. The distinction of sex alone introduces an element of diversity and inequality into the whole framework of society. People do not start fair in the battle of life. Predestination is a theological term which has fallen out of use with the decline of the school of divinity to which it belonged; but predestinarianism, as it existed before the birth, so it will survive the death, of Calvinism, for it expresses one way, and that to many persons a natural way, of looking at the facts of life. Whoever compares a class of well-fed, well-trained, well-conducted schoolboys with a gang of young thieves, will feel inclined to assert that some men are as obviously predestined to the practice of ordinary virtue as others are foredoomed to become the slaves of crime and vice. To say that a good deal of this radical difference results from social arrangements, will not suffice to reëstablish our belief in the natural equality of man. We are compelled to ask whence arise the inequalities of society, and history drives us back to the conclusion that the harshness of social arrangements itself originates in the injustice of nature. To say more on this subject is unnecessary; to denounce or expose the paradox that men are born equal is, at the present day, to "force an open door."

But though the doctrine that all men are created equal neither needs nor repays confutation, every serious student must feel that the arguments used to expose the favorite error of Rousseau and of his acknowledged or unacknowledged followers are unsatisfactory. It is easy to show that men neither are created equal, nor, if they could all for a moment be placed on the same footing, would be likely to remain equal for a day; but it is impossible to show that an inaccurate formula which has been accepted as true not only by isolated thinkers, but by whole generations, does not contain an element of substantial truth. Nor, if any man will divest himself at once of democratic and of anti-democratic prepossessions, is it difficult to see what this element of truth is. Mankind are distinguished from each other by obvious and important differences, but they are also linked together by the similar attributes of a common humanity. On these admitted facts two opposite views of society may be based. A well-ordered polity, it may on the one hand be contended, should correspond with and even foster the differences which distinguish one body of men from another. This is the notion which underlies the aristocratic or oligarchical theory of government. The true object, it may on the other hand be maintained, of every social or political arrangement which in the long run benefits mankind, is to cherish and give prominence to the characteristics which are common to all human beings. This is the idea which supports every form of popular government. Thinkers or statesmen who are influenced by the belief that the attributes wherein men resemble one another have a far deeper and more permanent importance than the characteristics in which they differ, will always tend towards the opinion not that men are equal, but that they should, as far as possible, be treated as though they were equal. This is the doctrine of human equality put in a reasonable form. Its absolute truth, even in this shape, admits of doubt, but a candid arguer would find it difficult to maintain that, as thus understood, the doctrine is clearly untrue.

This rational belief in equality has stood the test of time. Its defence ought to be based on the frankest admission that the idea of a golden age when men, being all equal and all happy, lived unoppressed by tyranny and uncorrupted by priestcraft, is one of the idlest dreams which ever deluded mankind. For if we want to see how great are the triumphs of equality, we must confess that the earlier stages of human development have been marked by inequality among individuals and classes. Society has originated, if we are to trust history, in the rule of the few who were strong over the many who were weak. Equality is not the beginning from which society starts, but the goal towards which enlightened civilization tends. Belief in equality—that is, in the supreme importance of the characteristics common to humanity—has released men in one sphere of life after another from the bondage and tyranny of nature. Equality before the judgment-seat, equality in the church, equality in civil rights, equality in political power, have, by the slowest degrees, and only in the more civilized portions of the world, been first the ideals of jurists, prophets, and statesmen, and next have become principles which more or less govern the world. Trust in human nature may well be exaggerated, but that it has in civilized countries produced gigantic and often beneficial results admits not of denial.

Two considerations, moreover, which are often overlooked by reasoners who, from the time of Plato downwards, have fixed their gaze upon the evils, both theoretical and practical, of democracy, have in the modern world strengthened the belief in human equality. The first of these considerations is that the inequalities which exists in a given society rarely correspond with the real and essential differences which make one man the superior of another. It was not true in the days of Rousseau that men in France or elsewhere were born naturally equal, but it was true, towards the end of the last century, in France, as in almost every other European country, that the inequalities of society were absurd and oppressive. Throughout the whole French nation it would have been difficult to discover a human being less fit to rule France than Louis XV. To subject the wisdom and knowledge of Turgot to the prejudice and weakness of Louis XVI. was so far from being a recognition of the essential differences between man and man, that it was in reality the successful attempt to give to a man with the talents of a locksmith the right to control a minister endowed with the genius of a statesman. The second of these considerations is, that there is nothing more real, though few things are less recognized, than the equality of ignorance. Politics do not yet approach the character of a science. Where the wisest know little, the difference is, or seems, little between ignorance and knowledge. This is the reason why a good number of sound arguments against the follies of democracy fail to command much attention. Mr. Huxley, for example, has recently reproduced the old and instructive comparison between the management of a ship and the guidance of the State.

"I should be sorry," he writes, "to find myself on board a ship in which the voices of the cook and the loblolly boys counted for as much as those of the officers upon a question of steering or of reefing topsails, or where the great art of the crew was called upon to settle the ship's course. And there is no sea more dangerous than the ocean of practical politics."

All this is true, but Mr. Huxley forgets, what the citizens of a democracy are only too apt to remember, that a competent politician has nothing like the knowledge of statecraft that a competent mariner has of seamanship. If the leading statesmen, moreover, of England or of the United States cannot claim to be captains when called upon to guide the vessel of state through the ocean of politics, the average elector or citizen thinks at least that he can give a verdict on the political issues submitted to his decision with more intelligence than a loblolly boy can steer a vessel during a storm. Whether this opinion be true or not, it is easy to see why in England, France, or America, the doctrine of human equality, if put in a reasonable form, should receive general assent. Be this as it may, one thing is certain: belief in equality is essential to confidence in democracy. Sap the general confidence in this dogma, and you shake the foundation of popular government.

Two influences are undermining this basis of democratic faith. The predominant philosophy of the day is anti-democratic. Any mode of abstract thought can, it is true, combine with any theory of politics. The orthodox piety of Johnson and the theological scepticism of Hume were each compatible with Toryism. The utilitarianism of Hobbes made

him the advocate of despotism; the utilitarianism of Bentham made him the supporter of popular government. Locke, who formulated the creed of the Whigs, was the intellectual parent of Rousseau, who was the prophet of despotic democracy. Yet certain phases of philosophic opinion favor, if they do not produce, certain conditions of political thought. One author after another has shown that the theories of Locke, and still more of his disciples, were at any rate congenial to ideas of democratic equality. "Men, I think," he writes, "have been much the same for natural endowments in all times"; and there is no reason to suppose that to thinkers influenced by Locke's philosophy this statement seemed to savor of paradox. The last writers of repute who in England represented the tradition of the eighteenth century, were Mill and the now almost forgottten Buckle. All their speculations are colored by the assumption that the differences among men are in no sense innate, but in the main the result of circumstances; and Buckle announces this view in the loud-voiced, dogmatic manner which gave his writings for a moment such tremendous vogue, and has now robbed them of their really deserved reputation. "We have not," he tells his disciples, "any decisive ground for saying that [the moral or intellectual] faculties are likely to be greater in an infant born in the most civilized part of Europe than in one born in the wildest region of a barbarous country"; and he adds that "we often hear of hereditary talents, hereditary vices, and hereditary virtues; but whoever will critically examine the evidence will find that we have no proof of their existence." He teaches, in short, that the child of one of the savages who harassed the march of Stanley is as likely to be endowed with the intellect of Newton, or with the benevolence of Howard, as is the son of the most intellectual or the most spiritually minded of English, of French, or of German parents.

There is no need to dispute that this paradox, regarded as a paradox, calls attention to a constantly overlooked truth. At the present day we overestimate the influence of inheritance. The two points to be noticed, however, are these: the first is, that the view of human nature repeated with pompous exaggeration by Buckle directly favored the belief in political equality; the second, that a doctrine once held by all the best thinkers of their time could not now be unreservedly maintained by any man of education and ability. The 'History of Civilization in England' was published in 1858; in 1859 appeared Darwin's 'Origin of Species.' Among the many effects of the latter work one, at any rate, is, we may conjecture, permanent. Words like those uttered by Buckle will never be uttered again by a man of anything like Buckle's parts or knowledge. But the matter does not end here. Not only is the philosophy which fostered ideas of political equality discredited, but a mode of thought for the time rules the world which is in a sense anti-democratic. By this I do not mean that Darwinism has, or ought to have, any immediate bearing on the politics of the day. Few things are more absurd than the way in which partisanship endeavors to enlist science in its service. Darwinism will not be found any more serviceable for the defence, say, of the House of Lords than Christianity for the support of ecclesiastical establishments. The way in which the doctrines taught by Darwin and, still more, the popular perversions of these doctrines tell against democratic ideas is, that they produce an atmosphere in which these ideas cannot easily flourish. Notions such as those embodied in the phrases "struggle for existence" or "survival of the fittest" may favor individual freedom, but they certainly are not cognate to conceptions of human equality. Darwinism is historically and logically connected with Malthusianism; and Malthus was the opponent, and has hitherto been the invincible opponent, of Rousseau. The declining authority of theology, moreover, is, strange though the assertion may sound to democrats, injurious to the reputation of some democratic dogmas. The equality of Christians as members of the Church favors the equality of men as citizens of the State.

The circumstances of the day are pressing on the attention of democratic societies the differences which divide races and classes. Changes in the prevalent philosophy of the time tell slowly, if at all, on the political convictions of the people. It is, as I have insisted again and again, obvious facts, or at least appearances, which guide the conduct of mankind. Men's theories and actions are so curiously intertwined that while, on the one hand, their conduct is governed by their ideas, their conceptions in turn are the result of their conduct and their needs. The belief in equality has been hitherto readily entertained by an English or American artisan partly because it has flattered his self-love, and partly for the stronger and much better reason that the belief is, within certain limits, roughly or approximately in correspondence with facts. Bright once said that if you took by chance the first ten or twelve respectably dressed men who passed through Temple Bar, you could form out of them a ministry as competent as most cabinets. The saying, though no doubt uttered more than half in jest, contained a real meaning. There are thousands of Englishmen or Americans who, if placed by accident in office, would not show themselves markedly inferior to the politicians who nominally direct the destinies of civilized countries. *Quantulâ sapientiâ mundus regitur* is a profound and even a consolatory saying. It may have been cynically uttered, but a career such as Abraham Lincoln's reveals the grand side of what sounds like a mere sneer at human imbecility.

But the doctrine that all men in a civilized country are fit to perform the duties and entitled to enjoy the full rights of citizens, if true at all, is applicable only to countries and races which have reached a certain stage of civilization. This limitation on the belief in equality has, till recently, been of so little practical importance to an ordinary Englishman or American that he has been able to overlook its existence. But every day which passes thrusts this unrecognized limitation more decisively on his attention. Science has practically lessened the size, and prosperity has increased the population, of the world. In every land which is inhabited or ruled by the English race, ordinary men are awakening to the knowledge that they are liable to be pressed upon by classes and races which are certainly unlike, and, as Englishmen assume, are inferior to, the man of English descent. Does the American or English workman really think the Chinaman or the negro or the Japanese his equal? Are the artisans of any country prepared to concede willingly real equality, or even substantial justice, to the Jew? Is it at all certain that the inhabitants of America and Australia will, say, fifty years hence, be eager to welcome to full citizenship emigrants who bring with them the poverty and the ignorance of the Old World? The answer to all these questions is, to say the least, open to doubt. Every moralist who wishes well to his kind must hope that, as the struggle for existence becomes harder, and race presses upon race, the claims of justice may turn out to have as much might as they have right. However this may be, one thing is clear: whenever the democracies of England or of America are called upon to adjust their relations to other races, they will assuredly be compelled to adjust their political theories to new facts. That they will cling to the truth contained in the dogma of human equality is possible, and, it may be hoped, probable. But the applications of this dogma will, it may be expected, receive certain restrictions. The dogma itself will sink to the position of a probable, and, so to speak, qualified belief. It will gain in reasonableness, but it will lose what I may call the quality of inspiration.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

ST. GAUDENS'S STATUE OF REST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A day or two since, I came across, among the telegraphic despatches in the daily papers, one about a very remarkable work of art which I have recently, by chance, had occasion to study and admire. I refer to the bronze memorial to the late Mrs. Henry Adams, executed by St. Gaudens, and placed by her husband over her grave in the cemetery near the Soldiers' Home at Washington.

To my surprise, and I may as well add disgust, I find this memorial, a draped female figure, referred to in the despatch (which I presume is going the rounds of the press) as a "figure of Despair, . . . heroic size, whose expression and attitude perfectly represent the subject." The notice adds that "the venerable rector of Rock Creek Church is shocked, and longs to get this unchristian monument out of his churchyard." I know nothing of the rector in question; nor, until I chanced to be in Washington in May last, had I ever heard of that last work of St. Gaudens, which cannot fail to excite a great deal of attention hereafter; but it must be singularly annoying, both to the sculptor and to Mr. Adams, to see this striking moument heralded over the land as "a figure of Despair"! To one, also, who appreciates a work of true art, such a heralding is singularly exasperating.

The figure in question is in bronze, heroic size, and is marked by the strength, boldness, and severe simplicity, as well as originality, of the artist's treatment. In my judgment, St. Gaudens has done nothing more memorable. It represents Rest—sudden rest, and complete cessation from weariness and pain — at the Grave. It is certainly true that there is about it nothing of the conventional mortuary art—that dreary array of anchors and urns and angels and crosses and lambs, those monuments of the artistic ineptitude of skilled workmen in stone which make modern cemeteries terrible and cause the man of educated taste to wish to be buried in the sea—there is in St. Gaudens's production nothing of all that, and, in so far, it constitutes a new departure; but it is a departure for which it is high time, and one most desirable to be made.

Not improbably the rector of Rock Creek Church may have failed to appreciate at first glance what is, in point of fact, one of the few really great and noticeable mortuary memorials in existence, one in which St. Gaudens can take justifiable pride, and the visitor a deep, and almost painful, pleasure. But it is

sincerely to be hoped that those who are led to visit the Rock Creek Cemetery from the desire to look upon, and I may add to study, one of the most striking and suggestive of modern bronzes, will go there with a sufficient degree of elementary art education not to mistake a memorial symbolic of Rest for a "Figure of Despair"! D.

NEW YORK, July 11, 1891.

THE TARIFF ON "SMALL POTATOES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wonder if the enclosed interesting circumstance about Custom-house decisions will be new to you. A letter arrives to me of the most ordinary dimensions, is marked "Suspected liable to customs duties," is found to contain only some foreign postage-stamps—some bought at the post-office and thus new, some used ones, taken from letters of the sender, and having therefore no value whatever at the place from which sent. Both kinds are assessed for duty by the Boston Collector of Customs, and at the full value of similar stamps in the hands of dealers already on this side of the water.

The interesting thing is, that from this it follows that the printed paper money of other countries must also be dutiable, as printed matter, and every five pound note of the Bank of England which is in the possession of a traveller when he lands here must pay a duty of $6.25. The same must be true of every piece of paper money imported by banks or other institutions.—Yours truly,

WILLIAM B. CLARK.

WELLESLEY HILLS, MASS., July 8, 1891.

Notes.

GINN & Co., Boston, will issue during the present month 'Ethics for Young People,' by Prof. C. C. Everett of Harvard.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'The Faith Doctor,' by Edward Eggleston.

The Gossip Printing Company, Mobile, Ala., have nearly ready 'Alabama State Troops, in Camp and Field,' by T. C. DeLeon.

Mr. George A. Aitken, author of a Life of Sir Richard Steele, has now completed his work upon Arbuthnot. The volume, which will be issued by the delegates of the Clarendon Press, Oxford, will probably appear in the autumn. Besides containing all that is known of the Doctor, it will give a collection of all the miscellaneous (non-scientific) writings that can with certainty be assigned to him. There will also be a full bibliography. Mr. Aitken, who is quite a young man in years, is one of the private secretaries to Sir Arthur Blackwood, the permanent Under Secretary to the British Post-office. Like Anthony Trollope, Edmund Yates, Clement Scott, and many others who have served on the staff at St. Martin's-le-Grand, the young author illustrates the happy combination of the performance of postal duties with the pursuit of letters.

The poems of Emily Dickinson, the Amherst recluse whom Andrew Lang calls "a poet who had constructed her own individual 'Ars Poetica,'" continue in active demand, the eighth American edition being already in preparation. An Arabic translation made in Syria has passed through several editions.

Under the title, 'Unhappy Loves of Men of Genius' (Harpers), Thomas Hitchcock gathers six short biographical essays, previously published separately, upon Gibbon and Madam Necker, Dr. Johnson and Mrs. Thrale, Goethe and Charlotte von Stein, Mozart and Aloysia Weber, Cavour and the Unknown, and Irving and Mrs. Carlyle. The substance and treatment of these topics are sufficiently indicated by the title; there is no novelty in the story, except that the love of Cavour is comparatively little known. The author's style is pleasing, and, as a series of sketches of infelicity in love among the men of genius and brilliant women, the volume is entirely adequate.

Mr. James Vila Blake adds to the list of his varied works a new volume of papers upon out-of-the-way characters and stories, 'St. Solifer, with Other Worthies and Unworthies' (Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.), in which he mingles curious information with fancy, and plays at moralizing. The range of sources mentioned is from the 'Decameron' to the 'Zend-Avesta' and Greek mythology, and the resulting essay is one of those nondescripts of easy reading which must be classed with the "sports" of the summer season, being neither fiction, religion, nor good plain sense, yet partaking of each.

The admirers of Dr. John Brown, the author of 'Rab and His Friends,' owe a debt of gratitude to the family, who have secured the publication of some admirable personal sketches of him and his sister by a lady whose acquaintance with them was like that of one of the household. The full title of this brief, but delightfully familiar, memoir is 'Dr. John Brown and His Sister Isabella: Outlines,' by E. T. M'Laren (Edinburgh: David Douglas). The book is beautifully printed and bound and makes a thin quarto. Two excellent portraits of Dr. Brown and one of his sister are given, and there is also an engraving of Symington church and churchyard, which makes a pretty tailpiece to the volume. As the present issue is marked as the fourth edition, the merit and charm of this memorial seem to have been already appreciated by the friends of this favorite of many minds.

Six years have elapsed since we noticed Mr. C. P. Kunhardt's 'Small Yachts: Their Design and Construction Exemplified by the Ruling Types of Modern Practice' (*Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.). The first of the remarkable series of contests between American centre-board sloops and British cutters in 1885, 1886, and 1887 had not taken place, we think, before this useful work appeared. The *Puritan* would shortly beat the *Genesta*, next year the *Mayflower* the *Galatea*, and the third year the *Volunteer* the *Thistle*. The *Puritan*, the *Mayflower*, and the *Galatea* are figured in the new and enlarged edition of 'Small Yachts' just published, and there are other traces of these international trials of invention and seamanship. While the "ruling types" have undergone a change, the general scheme of Mr. Kunhardt's treatise remains unaltered, and his folio volume is as comely as it is practically serviceable to yachtsmen of large as well as small craft.

We have received from the publishers revised editions of Appletons' well-known 'General Guide to the United States and Canada' and 'Handbook of Summer Resorts,' together with a new 'Canadian Guide-Book' from the competent hand of Prof. Charles G. D. Roberts. This work opens at Niagara Falls and closes at Yarmouth, N. S. As would be expected from the author's name, the descriptions, besides being minute, have a literary flavor not commonly associated with guide-books. There is an appendix for sportsmen. Numerous illustrations and plans and three folding maps accompany the text. The typography is open and clear, and rather more readable than that of Sweetser's compact 'Maritime Provinces.'

A new 'Handbook of Amherst, Mass.,' has been prepared and published in that pleasant college hill-town by Frederick H. Hitchcock. The College naturally occupies the larger half of the compilation, and is abundantly illustrated with statistics and with plates. The work supplies a want, and we therefore wonder that Mr. Hitchcock did not consider an index indispensable.

After three years, a second edition of Prof. Goldwin Smith's familiar letters to the Toronto *Week*, 'A Trip to England,' has been published (Macmillan).

'New China and Old,' by the Rev. A. E. Moule (London: Seeley & Co.), consists of the recollections and observations of a thirty years' residence in China. The different subjects which are taken up, life in an open port, in an inland city, in the country, travelling, the house of a mandarin, etc., are treated with such a fulness of information and illustration from personal experience as to give the book a distinct value. There are also chapters upon Buddhism and Taoism as they affect the life of the people, and upon ancestor worship. This, the author, as well as many educated Chinese, regards as the greatest obstacle to the success of Christianity in China. The people in general look with indifference on a countryman who rejects either of the national faiths; but the Chinaman who renounces the worship of his ancestors not only cuts himself off from his kindred, but suffers a severe pecuniary loss in forfeiting his share of the property set aside for the expenses of the annual sacrifices. Mr. Moule writes soberly but encouragingly of the work of the missionaries and the general progress of the nation within the past thirty years. There is an excellent account of the educational system of China, showing the various processes by which a lad passes from the village school to the examination for the highest degree. A few illustrations from photographs add to the attractiveness of this interesting and suggestive book.

The article of greatest interest in the July number of the "Papers of the American Historical Association" is "The Fate of Dietrich Flade," by Prof. George L. Burr of Cornell. It augurs well for the development of historical studies in this country to see the wealth of labor and research—research not only into printed sources, but into all accessible documentary material—intelligently brought to bear to reconstruct a story which had become distorted, and then well-nigh forgotten. Nor has the intelligent research been wasted, for the story as now revealed to us throws a ray of searching light into some of the darkest recesses of the witchcraft craze of the sixteenth century. The other papers of the number are two academical discussions—one on "The Philosophic Aspects of History," by Mr. William T. Harris, and one answering the question, "Is History a Science?" by Prof. R. H. Dabney—and two Canadian papers, one by George Stewart, on "Historical Studies in Canada," and the other an historical retrospect of the relations between Canada and the United States, by John George Bourinot. The latter is an able presentation of the Canadian side of many questions that have been settled more or less completely by diplomacy.

The Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, 1891, April–June, contain a valuable collection of "Great Russian Animal Tales," with an introduction, a synopsis of the adventures and motives, a discussion of the same, and an appendix, by A. Gerber, Ph.D., Professor of German and French in Earlham College. The stories are fifty in number, and are condensed from an unpub-

lished version, by Prof. Leskien of the University of Leipzig, of A. F. Afanasieff's 'Narodnyia Russkiia Skazki,' already somewhat familiar to English readers from the 'Russian Folk-Tales' of Ralston, who purposely, however, omitted stories about animals. One of the most valuable features of Prof. Gerber's work is the synopsis of the adventures and motives of the tales, and their discussion under general classes instead of under each separate story—a method of arrangement which might be applied with great economy of time and space to future collections of folk-tales. All that is wanting is an alphabetical index of incidents, arranged under catchwords. The comparative notes are conveniently distributed under the heads of literary variants, oral variants, collections of variants, and source. Prof. Gerber has read extensively in the field of animal tales, and his conclusions as to the origin and diffusion of this class of stories are sound and scholarly.

The first Bulletin of the Library of Bowdoin College comes to us bound up with the obituary record of the college graduates for the year ending June 1, 1891. The other marked feature of the Bulletin is a list of poems illustrating Greek mythology in the English poetry of the nineteenth century, by Edward C. Guild. The arrangement is perspicuous and the result interesting. On this showing, Prometheus and Proserpine have had the greatest attraction for our poets. Cupid and Psyche, Hero and Leander, Jason and Medea, Hercules and Dejaneira, Admetus and Alcestis, Orpheus and Eurydice, and Endymion, lead the remainder. Crœsus and Sappho are allowed to slip in among the gods, demi-gods, fabled and semi-historic personages of the list.

The Senate of the University of Michigan has begun publication of a *University Record*, to appear four times during the year, and to chronicle the educational and scientific work going on under the auspices of the University. The scheme embraces even abstracts of meritorious theses. In No. 2 we read that the legislative appropriations to this institution since 1867 have amounted to $1,800,687; Wisconsin falls but little behind in munificence to its own University.

Mr. Francis Galton's communication to the Royal Society on a method of indexing finger marks is printed in *Nature* for June 11. He had already proved "the extraordinary persistence of the papillary ridges on the inner surface of the hands throughout life," and that "the impression in ink upon paper of each finger-tip contained, on the average, from twenty-five to thirty distinct points of reference" absolutely persistent with the rarest exceptions, so that any two would serve to identify a person. He now recommends his system of indexing as an immense reinforcement of A. Bertillon's anthropometric measures, used in the criminal administration of France and other countries; but its prime value in his own eyes has relation to racial and hereditary inquiries, concerning which use we shall hear from him by and by. His indexing can be applied direct to the fingers themselves without the aid of an impression. The forefingers are most variable in pattern.

Referring to an observation by Mr. Moncure Conway, in his article in *Harper's Magazine* for May, upon the English Ancestry of George Washington, a correspondent writes us: "As regards the account given by John Walker, in his 'Sufferings of the Clergy,' of the Rev. Lawrence Washington, it should interest Mr. Conway to know that the original manuscripts upon which Walker's work is founded are preserved in the Bodleian Library, Oxford. There are about 25 to 30 volumes in all. Of these some 7 are of a biographical nature, consisting of letters from persons who gave facts set forth in the printed work. Being myself one of those British who are interested in the question of Washington's ancestry, when at Oxford, last year, in pursuit of historical researches at the Bodleian, I made a rapid glance over these volumes, which, unfortunately, are not indexed, hoping to come across a letter from the 'ancient gentleman of his neighborhood' who had given a good character to the Rev. Lawrence; but my hasty search bore no fruit. An American who can give more time to the search than I was able to afford, may hope for more success. Some one should make a proper search, for, if the 'ancient gentleman's' letter be unearthed, it may fairly be expected to disclose the name of the 'poor and miserable' living which the Rev. Lawrence Washington was given after he lost that of Purleigh."

—In our prospectus the other day, of Oliver's History of Antigua, we mentioned some of the New England families connected with that island, including the Redwoods of Newport. This name, as everybody knows who has visited the famous Rhode Island watering-place, is attached to one of the most attractive proprietary libraries in the country, consisting of some 35,000 volumes, stored, amid many objects of art and curiosity, in a building of which the earliest portion dates back to 1750. The library itself was begun in 1747, when Abraham Redwood the second, who had become a Quaker by convincement, gave £500 towards the purchase of books, and Henry Collins the land for a building. It was in great danger of being scattered to the winds, and did suffer incalculable losses, during the British occupation, and it has experienced a great many vicissitudes since, ending in its being rich in collections and poor in endowment. The story of it has just been told in a stout volume, 'Annals of the Redwood Library and Athenæum,' edited by George Champlin Mason, and published by the institution itself. Mr. Mason had charge of the last enlargement of the building, in 1875. He had the artist's instinct to follow the action of George Snell in 1858, when Peter Harrison's beautiful old design was respected in making an addition, and this was a singular good fortune for the library. Mr. Mason has gone through the official records, culling out what was notable in the regulations or the gifts, and adding copious biographical sketches and other notes. He shows by the books mentioned in wills how cultivated the first settlers of Newport were, and he is able to print the entire list of the original Redwood purchase. Dr. Ezra Stiles, the most, if not the only, noted librarian of Redwood, is cited as deducing "the abilities of the seventy or eighty worthy ministers who first settled in New England from the libraries they brought with them from England." Two items in the 'Annals' are to be remarked for their historic significance, and we preface them with the reminder that Newport, after having lost its slave trade, retained its pro-slavery sympathies, partly in consequence of direct commerce with the South, and partly owing to the annual influx of Southern visitors. On Feb. 13, 1860, the directors of the library declined to place on file a free copy of the *Anti-Slavery Standard*; on Feb. 13, 1865, they voted thanks and free use of the library to Col. T. W. Higginson for his lecture on the "The Freedom of South Carolina." The work, which is uniform in size with the author's 'Reminiscences of Newport' and 'Annals of Trinity Church, Newport,' has been very handsomely printed, and is embellished with numerous portraits. The ancient initial letters we recognize as having done service in Florentine printing-offices more than three centuries ago.

—The two volumes of Max Müller's 'Lectures on the Science of Language,' after passing through numerous editions essentially unchanged, have now, almost thirty years after their first appearance, been accorded, through the destruction of the old plates, a most encouraging opportunity for a fresh start in life (Charles Scribner's Sons). "It is difficult indeed," says Prof. Müller, with much plausibility, in his preface, "for an author who lives beyond the number of years generally allotted to scholars, to know what to do with his old books"; but what our author finally determined upon in this particular case was "to make one more attempt to render these volumes as correct as he [I] could." This he seems to have done, but he has not rendered the volumes particularly correct. His plan was not to rewrite or reconstruct them, but to patch them up. He added a page here and there, and now and then he reluctantly parted with a paragraph that had come to be too bad for anything. He corrected some of the bad etymologies that had figured as illustrations, and here the German-English side fared better than the Greek and Latin, for there are swarms of blunders left of the sort that connects *Naxos* with νῆσος and derives *nomen* from **gnomen*. These were well enough for "'fo' de war," but it seems too bad to use up new plates on them now.

—There is evidence of a largeness of view and a generosity of thinking that have always characterized this writer in his readiness to recognize the important results of recent investigation. For instance, he accords rightfully to Brugmann's 'Grundriss,' as representing the third stock-taking in the history of the science, a position at the opening of a third period in its development. Still, he does not seem to have assimilated the results of these recent years, nor to have readjusted the body of his thinking to them. They appear merely as a veneer over the old material. Thus, insisting as he does still on ranking the science of language among the physical sciences, instead of among the historical sciences, where it belongs, he is led into perpetuating his utterly meaningless discrimination between phonetic change and "dialectic change" (*cf.*, *e. g.*, ii., 216ff, 253). The changes, he says, which give French *quatre* for Latin *quatuor* and English *four* for Gothic *fidwôr* are ascribable to phonetic corruption, which, "being due to a relaxation of muscular energy, admits of a simple physiological explanation, and depends on causes which are always the same." On the other hand, however, *quatuor* and *fidwôr* "can only be explained as the result of dialectic variation"; and while phonetic changes "can be reduced to very strict rules," dialectic changes "cannot, at least not with the same unerring certainty." This is the most hopeless quiddling, and simply shows that the most essential discussions of the last fifteen years have passed our author harmlessly by, and left his views upon the most fundamental questions of the life of language absolutely free from contamination.

—A recent number of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* contained a noteworthy paper on Isaac Rousseau, the father of Jean Jacques, by Prof. Eugène Ritter of the University of Geneva, well known for his studies of the 'Confessions' and the correspondence of the author of 'Emile.' Isaac was

a watchmaker by trade (*maître et marchand horloger*), like his father David before him, but he varied his occupation by giving dancing lessons with two partners, one of whom fell under the displeasure of the Calvinistic authorities for having asserted that a man forced to change his religion would not be damned, and had to apologize on his knees. By the terms of the partnership Isaac secured for himself the privilege of travel abroad, having inherited a nomadic disposition, both racial and family, which he was to pass on to his more distinguished son. He accordingly spent some years on the shores of the Bosphorus, there being a Genevese colony at Pera, whose pastor was the chaplain of the Dutch Legation. From this clergyman he brought back in 1711 a letter to the association of pastors in Geneva; but a far more important consequence of his return was a fresh paternity, of which Jean Jacques was "le triste fruit," since the mother died in childbed. Isaac was in 1715 appointed one of the collectors of the clerical association just mentioned, and was on the way to civic promotion when his unlucky love of hunting led him to quarrel with a land-owner who objected to his passing through a field of standing grain, and to wound him. To avoid the law he fled the Genevan territory, was condemned in contumacy, and was an exile for years, abandoning his family. As Rousseau bore his father's lineaments in his face, so Prof. Ritter finds in the career of Isaac the destiny of Jean Jacques. He throws a great deal of light on the latter's descent and family connections, correcting many errors in the 'Confessions'—all involuntary, as Prof. Ritter believes, and unpremeditated. Incidentally he gives from the records a picture of Genevan manners which might easily be matched in Puritan New England.

— In the 'Sitzungsberichte der königlich preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin' (May 28, 1891) there is an interesting essay by Dr. F. Liebermann entitled "Ueber den Quadripartitus, ein Englisches Rechtsbuch von 1114." The 'Quadripartitus' is the earliest Anglo-Norman law-book, concerning which very little was known until Dr. Liebermann published the results of his investigations. The work was compiled in 1114 in Wessex, perhaps at Winchester. The author was an ecclesiastic, perhaps in the employ of the royal exchequer. His object was to collect the Anglo-Saxon laws, together with the legal enactments of William the Conqueror and Henry I. The work begins with the Dedication, in which the writer dwells on his misfortunes and the immorality of the Norman nobles. Then follows the Prologue, in which he emphasizes the prominent place of Cnut's laws in Anglo-Saxon legislation, gives a brief sketch of English history from Cnut to 1113, and outlines the plan of the whole treatise. In Book I. the Anglo-Saxon laws are translated into Latin, with those of Cnut as the basis of the collection. This first book is identical with the 'Vetus Versio' of the Anglo-Saxon laws. No manuscript of these laws approaches in completeness this portion of the 'Quadripartitus.' In Book II. the author, turning from the past to the present, brings together important documents relating to the reign of Henry I., which throw much light on the constitution of England. This book ends with the canons of the English synod of 1108, and a valuable version of Henry I.'s enactment concerning the hundred and county courts.

—According to the Prologue, Books III. and IV. were to deal with procedure and theft respectively. They are not extant; perhaps they were never written. The 'Quadripartitus' was used by the compiler of the 'Leges Henrici I.,' the two collections having much in common. Twysden, Lappenberg, Cooper, Kolderup-Rosenvinge, Hardy, Thorpe, and Schmid published fragments of the former, but they had little knowledge of the work as a whole. Dr. Liebermann will soon publish a book entitled 'Quadripartitus, ein Englisches Rechtsbuch von 1114,' in which he will print the Dedication, Prologue, and Book II., and give a fuller account of the work and its author. He will print Book I. in his forthcoming edition of the Anglo-Saxon laws.

THE HOUSE OF MURRAY.

A Publisher and His Friends: Memoir and Correspondence of the Late John Murray, with an Account of the Origin and Progress of the House, 1768–1843. By Samuel Smiles, LL.D. 2 vols. With portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

This work contains a very rich collection of documents for literary history, especially during the period of the first half of this century. The great book-making age which began with Scott and Byron is the real subject of the volumes, and it is passed in review with an abundance of figures and details. Authors of every degree of reputation and books in every department of publishing receive more or less extended notice, and, to make the view complete, the periodical literature of the time is closely attended to. Murray lived in the world of books and was a great potentate there. The history of his affairs touches authors and publishers, literature and trade, poetry and politics; and no phase of his varied connections is neglected. In such a mass of matter the compiler might have been easily confused to the confusion of his readers; but the selection is well-proportioned, the arrangement is admirable, and the knowledge conveyed is great in amount. The mere names of writers mentioned would make a dictionary and the titles of books a catalogue, but a thread guides safely through the labyrinth; and Murray himself, so far from being lost in his retinue, keeps the throne in Albemarle Street, and impresses his personality as a man of business and a friend of literary men so constantly upon the reader that these memoirs of publishing never cease to be biography also.

Nevertheless, it is not possible for the reviewer to do more than pick and choose from the abundance at hand, and naturally we shall confine our attention to the great names. Byron is the pride of the house. Murray had the luck to discover him in "Childe Harold," and from the time when the noble lord (and such he always was to Murray) came in to look over the sheets and say to the enthusiastic publisher, "You think that a good idea, do you?" as he lunged at the book shelves with his cane, down to the burning of the Memoirs of the dead poet in the library fire, Murray never failed in his devotion. Byron's letters to his publisher have long been familiar and highly prized, and here we find not much that is new from his pen; but on the other side Murray's own letters complete the correspondence. He sent to the poet a great deal of flattery and not a little good advice, given with more tact than effect. The attitude of Byron's admirers in England towards the genius of their idol is brought out most strikingly, and was worth all the illustration it receives. There has been no such enthusiasm for literary men and their works, with the exception of the *furore* awakened by Dickens, as that which was so generously given to Scott and Byron. Sir Walter yet holds his own against all the chirping of the field, and one still feels the point of Lord Holland's compliment on reading the 'Tales of My Landlord'—"We did not one of us go to bed all night, and nothing slept but my gout." The case is different with Byron's 'Tales,' and one cannot read the chorus of praise without being keenly aware of the exaggeration due to the time. The elder D'Israeli, to take a strong case, writes to Murray of "The Siege of Corinth":

> "I am anxious to tell you that I find myself this morning so strangely affected by the perusal of the poem last night that I feel it is one which stands quite by itself. I know of nothing of the kind which is worthy of comparison with it. There is no scene, no incident, nothing so marvellous in pathos and terror in Homer or any bard of antiquity. . . . I could not abstain from assuring you that I never read any poem that exceeded in power this, to me, most extraordinary production. I do not know where I am to find any which can excite the same degree of emotion."

Gifford was a critic hard to please, but he yielded completely to the spell. He quoted from memory passages of "The Corsair"—a thing Murray had never known him to do before. The expression of his opinion is always the same: "I keep my old opinion of Lord Byron. He may be what he will. Why will he not *will* to be the first of poets and of men?" And on a later page he adds: "I have lived to see three great men—men to whom none come near in their respective provinces—Pitt, Nelson, Wellington. Morality and religion would have placed our friend among them as the fourth boast of the time." The infatuation of the ladies is represented by a passage from a letter of Mrs. Graham: "He provokes me with fancying himself hated. Good God! did he know how many have with breathless interest watched his steps, grieved for him, praised him, and, where they could not, turned aside their eyes, like the patriarch's pious son, that they might not look upon his frailties, he would never return all this with misanthropy." Sir Walter Scott's admiration needs no fresh illustration, but here is a characteristic passage in connection with his admirable review of the third canto of "Childe Harold": "No one can honor Lord Byron's genius more than I do, and no one had so great a wish to love him personally, though personally we had not the means of becoming very intimate"; and as to the review, he says: "If you think it likely to hurt him either in his feelings or with the public, in God's name, fling the sheets in the fire." Byron was so sensible of the "delicacy" and "tact" of this review that he confessed as much to Murray before knowing its authorship. But without further examples it is abundantly plain that the worship of Byron infected the most intellectual class as well as the sentimental public.

"Don Juan" called forth the most serious remonstrances, and Byron appears to have heeded his literary advisers less in the case of this work. Some question of copyright was raised by the first issue of the early cantos without name of either publisher or author, a fact which abandoned it to the pirates; and on the matter being taken in hand to recover the rights, a good deal of discussion arose about the nature of the poem. It is amusing to find Sharon Turner seriously reporting an opinion from Shadwell that it could be defended on "one great tendency of the book," which was "to show in Don Juan's ultimate character the ill effect of that injudicious maternal education which Don Juan is

represented as having received and which had operated injuriously on his mind." Lady Caroline Lamb, all of whose communications are lively, writes to Murray that he "cannot think how clever I think Don Juan is in my heart." She reminds him more than once that he used to call her his "left hand." The continuation of "Don Juan" drew from Croker a very striking letter of criticism, in which he told some home truths very directly. He has just read the third and fourth cantos: "What sublimity! what levity! what boldness! what tenderness! what majesty! what trifling! what variety! what *tediousness!*—for tedious to a strange degree it must be confessed that whole passages are." He goes on to compare Byron in this point to Brougham (whose "general powers of intellect" he thought unequalled among the men he knew), aptly enough, and he did not consider "Don Juan" so objectionable on moral grounds as to deserve severe condemnation; but some of its personal and political expressions seemed to him much more serious matters, and in what he added on this topic he showed sound judgment, though it was spoken in a high Tory vein:

"I cannot but think that if Mr. Gifford or some friend in whose taste and disinterestedness Lord Byron could rely, were to point out to him the cruelty to individuals, the injury to the national character, the offence to public taste, and the injury to his own reputation, of such passages as those about Southey and Waterloo and the British Government, and the head of that Government—I cannot but hope and believe that these blemishes in the first cantos would be wiped away in the next edition; and that some that occur in the two cantos (which you sent me) would never see the light. What interest can Lord Byron have in being the poet of a party in politics, or of a party in morals, or of a party in religion? Why should he wish to throw away the suffrages (you see the times infect my dialect) of more than half the nation?"

He winds up with a reminder that the Pulcian style is easily written, as had been shown by Frere, Rose, Cornwall, the "Blackwood Magaziners," and others, and it therefore was needful that Byron should distinguish his use of the form above the ordinary. Between comment and warning, the letter is an admirable critique.

Murray's personal relations with Byron were subject to some strains, but they remained friends. One thing that especially annoyed Murray was Byron's giving the copyright payments to friends, and he was justifiably irritated when Byron took back a copyright which he had yielded to Murray and asked him to pay the original liberal offer (£600) to Godwin, Maturin, and Coleridge.

"Your Lordship," he says, "will pardon me if I cannot avoid looking upon it as a species of cruelty, after what has passed, to take from me so large a sum—offered with no reference to the marketable value of the poems, but out of personal friendship and gratitude alone—to cast it away, on the wanton and ungenerous interference of those who cannot enter into your Lordship's feelings for me, upon persons who have so little claim upon you, and whom those who so interested themselves might more decently and honestly enrich from their own funds than by endeavoring to be liberal at the cost of another, and by forcibly resuming from me a sum which you had generously and nobly resigned."

The persons referred to are Rogers and Sir James Mackintosh. In the end Byron took the money for his own use. On the other hand, when Byron was offended by some corrections of Gifford's in "Manfred," and wrote smartly, Murray knew how to temper apology with reproof. The passage is characteristic enough to quote:

"I assure you that I take no umbrage at irritability which will occasionally burst from a mind like yours; but I sometimes feel a deep regret that in our pretty long intercourse I appear to have failed to show that a man in my situation may possess the feelings and principles of a gentleman; most certainly I do think that, from personal attachment, I could venture as much in any shape for your service as any of those who have the good fortune to be ranked amongst your friends."

Byron was certainly obliged to Murray for warm devotion, and, in the famous destruction of the poet's personal memoirs, for a deed of honor.

We have lingered upon the Byron chapters because of the already close association of Murray's name with the most famous of his authors, and also because the other literary memorials offer no such continuous story except in what relates to the *Quarterly*. This latter topic stands second in interest, and about it clusters a good deal of matter. Gifford himself is written of with some warmth of feeling. His character and career are carefully honored, and the respect and affection that Murray had for his editor are made to have full effect in diminishing the prejudice that surrounds his posthumous fame. He could write, it is acknowledged, with "terrible severity," but nobler qualities of his nature, his kind acts, and the soundness of his literary judgment are fully shown; there is no doubt but that these memoirs will raise his reputation. He was as much an element in the success of the *Review*, probably, as Murray himself, to whom it owed much because of the pride he took in it and the untiring energy with which he worked for it. The corps of contributors was a strong one, but secrecy long kept them obscure, and most of them were men whose lives, if written, are seldom read. The brief notices here found and the expression of character in one or two selected letters are welcome and help to vivify the names of the period. George Ellis, Sir John Barrow, Rose and Frere, the Hebers, and a score of others are thus brought forward, and they make a group of interesting minds. Sir Walter Scott, Southey, and Croker are more prominent because they were in a peculiar sense the pillars of the cause. Sir Walter, as always, writes entertainingly, kindly, and busily, showing the workshop of a laborious life and the exhaustless energy of his mind. Southey affords some of the best expressions of an author's vanity and deception about his works. Though he wrote for Murray at a hundred guineas an article, and averaged more than one article to the number, he looked on his ponderous histories and prolix poetic tales as his real work, and he had as little doubt that "Kehama" was an "acorn" and the "Lady of the Lake" a "Turkey bean," each with its appropriate length of years, as he had that he had beaten Napier out and out as an historian of the Peninsular War. He was, however, the chief dependence of the *Quarterly*, and invaluable, as Lockhart remarked, in giving it a certain tone agreeable to its constituency. Lockhart summed up Croker, too, very justly, if tartly, when he said that Croker had "the bitterness of Gifford without his dignity, and the bigotry of Southey without his *bonne foi*"; but that he had something besides is plain enough to a tolerant and attentive reader of his letters. His edition of Boswell, which every one knows Macaulay "crushed," sold, we are informed, 50,000 copies. Lockhart himself is finely characterized by Sir Walter in a long letter written to defend him against those who criticised his appointment to the editorship; and the portrait, though it presents him at his best and as Sir Walter knew him, is lifelike. His cold reserve and superciliousness were wholly compatible with fine critical discernment, and in these letters it is only the last that is to be found.

The total impression made by the "Reviewers" is of a body of men able in mind, of much breadth of information, and just in ordinary judgments, notwithstanding the violence of expression which some of them indulged in when their prejudices were interested or their anger roused. It is with pleasure that one notes how constantly and vigorously Murray discouraged personality both in his own *Review* and in *Blackwood's*, when he had a property interest in the latter, and how sound a principle he lays down upon the point. Even then the modern magazine was beginning to develop and its ideal to appear. He protests also against both "talent" and learning when introduced only for their own sake. "Information," is his cry, "news," as much in the magazine as in the press; and his convictions on the point are expressed with a certainty and definiteness such that a modern editor would have little to add to them.

The more important persons of the Memoirs are grouped about Byron and the *Quarterly*, but there are scores of authors who cannot be included in either of these sets. Murray's drawing-room is the only place where all are to be met, and there a procession is constantly passing of historians, poets, and travellers, native and foreign. The list is a long one, and includes many names of distinction in other walks than belles-lettres, and it is seldom that a name is mentioned without some incidental information of a personal or literary nature. The letters of Coleridge, for instance, relating to a translation of "Faust," are full of character-illustrations; there is the usual complaint about "bringing even my intellect to the market," and the self-esteem that kept no bounds. The most noticeable point is the statement that, just as he had improved "Wallenstein" by his translation of it, he meditated remodelling "Faust," giving it a finale, and so bringing it, recast and rewritten, on the stage. He would not in this case retain more than one-fifth of the original. The plan, of course, fell through. He complained very much of the reception of "Christabel": "Let it not be forgotten that while I had the utmost malignity of personal enmity to cry down the work, with the exception of Lord Byron there was not one of the many who had so many years together spoken so warmly in its praise, who gave it the least positive furtherance after its publication." The vanity of authors receives ample illustration. The hope of immortality was in many breasts a certainty. Wordsworth's self-confidence was large, and is commonly thought exceptional, but Southey and Coleridge thought as well of themselves, and the lesser fry kept the fashion of the time. Hogg, for instance, writes of his 'Pilgrims of the Sun': "I cannot help smiling at your London critics. They must read it over again. I had the best advice in the three kingdoms on the poem—men whose opinions even given in a dream I would not exchange for all the critics in England—before I ever proposed it for publication. I will risk my fame on it to all eternity." Sir Walter, great in this as in other qualities of character, took the best measure of his genius; and it is amusing to find him, in his curious review of the earlier Waverley novels, saying against himself all that his recent critics have urged. Thus he writes of the 'Black Dwarf,' for instance: "The narrative is unusually artificial; neither hero nor heroine excites interest of any sort, being just that sort of *pattern* people whom nobody

cares a farthing about." This is as much as any devil's advocate could say.

In the way of character-illustration nothing is so out of the common run as Murray's account of Frere's marriage:

"Apropos of Mr. Frere: he came to me while at breakfast this morning, and between some stanzas which he was repeating to me of a truly original poem of his own, he said carelessly: 'By the way, about *half an hour ago* I was so silly' (taking an immense pinch of snuff and priming his nostrils with it) 'as to get *married*.' Perfectly true. He set out for Hastings about an hour after he left me, and upon my conscience I verily believe that if I had had your MS. to have put into his hand, as sure as fate he would have sat with me reading it all the morning and totally forgotten his little engagement."

He had, a note informs us, left his wife at the church so as to show his poem to Murray. But, as we have already said, the literary information of these volumes is inexhaustible, and it is the more useful because most of it concerns the less distinguished writers.

Murray himself deserves a parting word. His real character is that of a man of business, and a full account is given of the trade-affairs of the house. He acted up to a high standard of business morals, and sustains in his relations with the trade a reputation of the most honorable sort. The dealings which he had with authors were remarkable for their liberality and fairness, and the repeated testimonials of literary men when writing to each other, as well as when thanking Murray, show how unusually pleasant they found it to conduct business with him. He had a love of literature and a true and deep regard for genius. He was proud of his connection with books and men of letters. He made money out of them, and succeeded in his ambition of leading in his trade, but he did this without contracting a sordid habit or incurring enmity. He was able to heal what differences did arise in the course of business. The history of his relations with Moore, after the destruction of the memoirs, and the correspondence he had with the younger Disraeli after their serious quarrel over the founding of the unsuccessful daily, the *Representative*, are excellent examples of a forgetting spirit in the trials of friendship. Personally, too, he made and kept friends, and it is observable that, although he did not at once attach men to him, his good qualities seem to have grown upon acquaintance, and those who regarded him most warmly were the friends who had known him longest and most nearly. The fact that his social position was that of a man in trade is occasionally obvious enough, but it appears rather in the bearing of others towards him than in his own actions or habits of thought. He was praised by the best and won their respect, and in the hundreds of transactions referred to in these volumes he appears invariably with honor, unless a single instance of "a trick," involving nothing more than sharpness, and immediately acknowledged by Murray to have reflected some discredit, be excepted; and it was a trivial affair. The celebrated gibe, imputed to Moore and supposed to be directed at Murray—"Now Barabbas was a publisher"—could not have found a butt less to its purpose. The saying is here restored to Campbell, who made it and imposed it on some other publisher. For Murray the reader of these memoirs will entertain only a high regard.

THE EVOLUTION OF MARRIAGE.

The Evolution of Marriage. By Ch. Letourneau, General Secretary to the Anthropological Society of Paris, and Professor in the School of Anthropology. [The Contemporary Science Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 373.

THE history of the development of any social institution has this for its most noticeable effect upon the mind of the reader: it suddenly changes the perspective in which he is in the habit of looking at the world, and he sees, if only for a moment, that modern civilization is but a brief breathing-place, won by a nearly desperate struggle out of vast regions of gloomy savagery which have preceded it and which surround it. In the case of Prof. Letourneau's book on marriage, the space given to modern, and especially to non-French, ideas on the subject is even disproportionally small, and the feeling of disgust at the whole human race with which one rises from its perusal, is more profound than the true condition of things demands. One feels the need of reading some fine poetry or work of fiction to remind one's self of the very different region in which the relations between the sexes can, in man's present high estate, have play.

M. Letourneau is the author of two important works—one on the 'Evolution of Morality' and one on 'Political Evolution in the Different Human Races.' In the present book, his main object is the collection of all the facts in regard to the marriage relation as it has existed at all times and in all places, and even among the higher animals. These facts have been patiently gleaned from the writings of ethnographers, travellers, legists, historians, and zoölogists. These facts are extremely curious and interesting when taken by themselves; their theoretical consideration, with a view to the foundation of what the author calls the science of ethnographical sociology, he modestly leaves to others. This modesty is not altogether misplaced, for the few generalizations and prognostications which he permits himself have not the ring of the work of a scientific mind of a high order.

The point most strongly brought out by this immense array of facts is that women have been treated, without exception, in primitive times, like slaves, or rather like domestic animals. Our present strict ideas in regard to sexual morality, invaluable as they are in marking us off from a state of savagery, have their unquestionable origin in the right of proprietorship in women like that in goods and chattels — a proprietorship which we find claimed in savage and even in barbarous countries without any feeling of shame. Women are a form of property which it is difficult to guard, both because they are

"unskilful in defending themselves, and because they do not bend willingly to the one-sided duty of fidelity that is imposed on them. Their masters, therefore, protect their interests by a whole series of cruel restraints, rigorous punishments, and ferocious revenges, which are left at first to the good pleasure of the marital proprietors, and afterwards regulated and codified. . . . I have previously shown, in my 'Évolution de la Morale,' that the unforeseen result of all this jealous fury has been to endow humanity, and more particularly women, with the delicate sentiment of modesty, unknown to the animal world and to primitive man."

Among men, as among animals, the development of the marriage relation is by no means always in harmony with the degree of the development in general. Very primitive societies sometimes practise monogamy, and very brutal customs are sometimes found among races much more advanced in other respects. Among animals, the carnivora usually live in couples, but that is not the case with the South African lion. Bears, weasels, and whales, on the other hand, are monogamous. Sometimes nearly allied species have different conjugal customs: the white-checked peccary lives in troops, while the white-ringed peccary lives in couples. Among monkeys some are monogamous and some are polygamous: the *Macacus silenus* of India has only one female, and is faithful to her unto death. Birds furnish the most remarkable instance, among animals, of devotion to a single mate; they are superior in this respect to all other classes of animals.

The idea of treating wives, whether one or many, with the most shocking brutality is peculiar to the human being of the male order; it is unknown among animals. The words humanity and brutality ought, in fact, to interchange their meanings, as far as conduct towards women is concerned:

"It would be difficult to imagine a more cruel servitude than that of the Australian woman, always beaten, often wounded, sometimes killed and eaten according to the convenience of her owner. The Fijians . . . amused themselves with beating their mothers and with binding their wives to trees in order to whip them. A Fijian named Loti, simply to make himself notorious, devoured his wife after having cooked her on a fire that he had forced her to light herself. No kind of ferocious cruelty was condemned by the morality of the country."

And other savage races use all their skill in inventing other nameless forms of torture for women. There have been only two exceptions of any importance to this general rule of barbarity towards women. Among the ancient Egyptians and among several of the Berber tribes a different state of things has prevailed. Diodorus affirms that in the Egyptian family it is the man who is subjected to the woman, that "the Queen receives more power and respect than the King, that among private individuals the woman rules over the man, and that it is stipulated between married couples, by the terms of the dowry contract, that the man shall obey the woman." This assertion of Diodorus is confirmed by the demotic deeds—at least for families which were in the possession of property. The laws regarding inheritance were such that women were often richer than men, and could dictate how the marriage contract should be drawn up. Married women held their property separate from their husbands, and could make contracts without their authorization. The husband was careful to stipulate, as a precaution, that the woman should take care of him during his life, and pay the expenses of his burial and tomb. This state of things lasted until the time of Philopator, who, in the fourth year of his reign, reduced women to their customary state of subjection by a royal decree to the effect that henceforth all transfers of property made by the wife should be authorized by the husband. This remarkable legal independence of women in Egypt, which had, of course, its natural effect upon social relations, may perhaps be referred to the influence of the Berber races, which, according to Egyptian traditions, played an important part in the foundation of ancient Egypt.

A certain emancipation of women seems to be a characteristic trait of Berber societies. At the present time, among the Touaregs of the Sahara, who have preserved their independence and the purity of their race better than the Kabyles, the rich women enjoy a social position analogous to that of the ladies of ancient Egypt. In spite of the Mussulman law, the Targui woman practically imposes

monogamy upon the man; she would immediately seek a divorce if her husband attempted to give her a rival. "Absolute mistress of her fortune, her actions, and her children, who belong to her and bear her name, the Targui lady goes where she will and exercises a real authority." They know how to read and write in greater numbers than the men, and it is to them, says Duveyrier ('Touâreg du Nord'), that is due the preservation of the ancient Lybian and ancient Berber writing. Leaving domestic work to their slaves, the Targui ladies occupy themselves with reading, writing, music, and embroidery; they live like intelligent aristocrats. Many of their customs indicate delicate instincts which are absolutely foreign to the Arabs and to the Kabyles. They strongly remind us of the times of the Southern troubadours and of the *cours d'amour*. But with the Touaregs, as with the Provençals and the Acquitainers of the twelfth century, who may well have had Berber ancestors, these diversions and gallantries were for the higher classes, and did not prevent the slavery of women among the poor. "It is important also to remark that the independence of the Berber lady rests on the magic power of money. 'By means of accumulation,' says Duveyrier, 'the greatest part of the fortune is in the hands of the women.'"

Among the Kabyle women there remains no trace of the maternal family and very little of the advantages which it generally confers on wives and mothers. One custom, however, recalls the proverbial liberality of the Berbers in conjugal matters: the married woman is allowed the "right of rebellion." If she has just complaints to make, she begins by telling one of her relatives, who fetches her back to her father openly, the husband not being permitted to oppose. After four years of separation, the union is dissolved. But this is the only remnant of the freedom which the Kabyle women once enjoyed. And "we are acquainted with the date at which the last seal was placed on their subjection. It was only a hundred and twenty years ago that the men refused henceforth a legal position to women in the succession of males. At present the Kabyle woman, whether married or not, no longer inherits."

The freedom which the possession of property conferred upon women in later Greek and Roman times is better known. Anaxandrides makes an unfortunate husband bewail himself thus: "If, being poor, you marry a rich woman, you give yourself a mistress and not a wife; you reduce yourself to be at the same time a slave and fool." But this independence of women was not of long duration. The subjugation of the world by Christianity, as Sir Henry Maine has clearly shown, meant the resubjugation of women by their husbands. The early Church having formulated the opinion that the sexual relation is contemptible and vile, by an easy error of logic came to the conclusion that women are contemptible and vile as well.

The moral of all this would seem to be, for those who are not satisfied with the present position of woman, superior as it is to that which she has held at any other time or place (since her freedom is not now associated with looseness of manners), that an important means towards the desired result would be to obviate their still too frequent relative poverty. It is perfectly plain that nothing is more hazardous to the happiness and to the permanence of marriage, or more destructive to the feeling of equality that ought to pervade the married state, than for young girls to feel, in even a slight degree, that they are expected to marry as the only natural mode of providing for themselves. Rich fathers ought to regard it as a duty to give their daughters a feeling of perfect independence, and poor fathers ought to put their daughters in the way of supporting themselves by their own exertions. As a means to this last result, the friends of women will do well to concern themselves with opening the more lucrative professions to them, and with seeing to it that they obtain equal wages with men for equal work.

There is another moral. Every lawyer knows that while legal enactments are now very thoroughly reformed as regards the property-rights of women, women constantly themselves render them of no avail by giving their property entirely into the hands of their husbands upon marriage, through ignorance or inadvertence or politeness. This is very wrong conduct on their part. It is absolutely essential to the preservation of the dignity and the independence of women (the history of marriage in all ages shows it, if it could not have been deduced from theoretical considerations), that they should be on a par with men as regards property and education — the two things that have, in modern times, supplanted physical force as elements of power. Hence it is the duty of a woman, no matter how much confidence she may feel in the honor and integrity of the coming husband, to preserve her property-rights intact, as a not inessential element of a wider than personal morality.

CASATI IN CENTRAL AFRICA.

Ten Years in Equatoria and the Return with Emin Pasha. By Major Gaetano Casati. Translated from the original Italian manuscript by the Hon. Mrs. J. Randolph Clay, assisted by Mr. I. Walter Savage Landor. With upwards of 150 illustrations, colored plates, and four maps. 2 vols. F. Warne & Co. 1891. 8vo.

MAJOR CASATI owes his present distinction as an African traveller solely to his chance connection with Emin Pasha. He evidently possessed some excellent qualifications for a successful explorer—courage, tact, kindliness of disposition, and a ready faculty for adapting himself to native life, as well as some scientific training. But a natural indolence, increased by the enervating influence of a torrid climate, and to some extent a lack of means, apparently prevented him from accomplishing anything of importance. His travels being confined to regions already visited by other explorers, he adds little to our knowledge of Africa beyond names of streams, a few vocabularies, and accounts of trivial native wars. The descriptions of the customs of the natives even, which his ten years' life among them gave him abundant opportunities of observing carefully, are unfortunately not entirely trustworthy, since they were mostly written from memory, the greater part of his notes and papers having been destroyed. This fact necessarily detracts very much from the value and interest of his book, which is largely a confused and rambling mass of reminiscences, clumsily put together without proper regard for order or connection.

He went to Africa in 1880, at the invitation of his countryman, Gessi Pasha, to explore the Welle. This is an important stream which, rising in the mountains to the northwest of the Albert Nyanza, flows westerly through the Niam-Niam country—no one in 1880 knew whither; its discoverer, Dr. Schweinfurth, maintaining that it was a tributary of Lake Tchad, while others, including Mr. Stanley, held the theory, since proved to be true, that it was a branch of the Congo. Before proceeding to the river he passed a few weeks with Gessi, of whom he gives an interesting but too brief sketch. This unfortunate officer, probably the ablest of Gordon's lieutenants, had just put down the slave-hunters' revolt under Suleiman, son of the notorious Zebehr Pasha, and was about to return to Egypt. On his voyage down the Bahr-el-Ghazal he was caught in a succession of vegetable dams, the "sudd," and lost some five hundred of his companions, soldiers and prisoners, by starvation. The horrors of this three-months' imprisonment, from the effects of which he himself never recovered, dying before he reached Cairo, are but faintly indicated in the extracts which are given from his diary. Nearly four years were spent by Casati in wandering about that part of the Welle basin known to the readers of the 'Heart of Africa' as King Munza's dominions. But an attempt to solve the mystery of the river's course, by following it to its outlet, failed, and the outbreak of the Mahdist rebellion forced him at length to take refuge in the Equatorial Province.

It is an independent testimony to the accuracy of Stanley's and Jephson's portraiture of Emin Pasha that Casati's differs from theirs in no essential particular. In these pages he is the same upright, kindly man, devoted to science, warm-hearted but moody and irritable, clinging to the semblance of power though indifferent to its substance, self-confident but easily deceived, irresolute and vacillating in purpose, disinclined to accept advice, and blindly obstinate in adhering to his own judgment in preference to that of the men about him. The Italian traveller, however, does present the Pasha in a new and unexpected light in attributing to him a resolve which, if true, goes far towards explaining the strange reluctance of his soldiers to accompany him to Egypt. "On May 27, in the midst of general discouragement, Emin, anxious to find an anchor of safety and to save his prestige from total ruin, had uttered these imprudent words: 'We white men shall escape—I answer for it. We will give our black soldiers to my good friend Kabba-Rega, the King of Unyoro, and he will permit us to cross his boundaries.'" This came to the soldiers' ears, and it was impossible afterwards, according to Casati, to disabuse them of the conviction that they were to be sold as slaves when they left the province. His account of the events of the next succeeding years is confused and fragmentary, he himself remaining inactive until May, 1886, when he went to Unyoro to serve as Emin's representative with the King. His mission was to keep open communications with Uganda, and to obtain permission for the passage of the Egyptian garrison through the country on its way to the coast. In neither of these designs was he successful, and, after seventeen months of fruitless negotiations and patient waiting, he was driven out of the kingdom. The story of his adventures in Unyoro, his imprisonment, his imminent peril and fortunate escape, is told in a dull and lifeless way, but the description of the noted Kabba-Rega, his manner of life and the organization of his warriors, is interesting.

Casati gives no explanation of the mysterious and fatal delay of Emin in searching for the Relief Expedition, merely mentioning that he himself informed Emin of Stanley's arrival on January 16, and that it was February 25

when the steamer started for the place indicated, less than fifty miles from the station on the lake where Emin then was. Nor does he add anything of interest or importance to Mr. Jephson's account of the revolt of the Egyptians, the deposition and detention of the Pasha, and the invasion of the Mahdists. In all these stirring scenes he takes no active part, but poses as the faithful friend and sagacious counsellor whose advice, if it had been followed, would have warded off all disasters. He does, however, express very well the feelings with which Emin and his followers regarded Stanley's impoverished advance column. They "looked with wonder, eyes wide open, and dubious hearts, at this remnant of the Expedition, of which the Governor had sung so many praises, and which he had taught them to consider a fount of comfort. Of what value were thirty cases of Remington cartridges? They had not in the least changed the situation of the Equatorial Province." It is also unnecessary to dwell upon Casati's account of the march to the sea, in which he indulges in a good deal of rather querulous, though at times probably proper, criticism of Stanley's arbitrary ways. His characterization of this noted leader, however, is just as well as generous:

"Stanley is a man remarkable for strength of character, resolution, promptness of thought, and iron will. Jealous of his own authority, he does not tolerate exterior influences, nor ask advice. Difficulties do not deter him, disasters do not dismay him. With an extraordinary readiness of mind he improvises means and draws himself out of a difficulty; absolute and severe in the execution of his duty, he is not always prudent or free from hasty and erroneous judgments. Irresolution and hesitation irritate him disturbing his accustomed gravity; his countenance being usually serious. Reserved, laconic, and not very sociable, he does not awaken sympathy; but on closer acquaintance he is found very agreeable, from the frankness of his manner, his brilliant conversation, and his gentlemanly courtesy."

The brightest parts of Major Casati's book are the conversations, which are given with much vivacity. There are also many interesting references to native life and customs. The following, which he observed at the zeriba of a successor of Munza, resembles a custom which, according to Shakspere, once prevailed at the court of Denmark:

"It is with great pomp that the king commences smoking. The long pipe, which is always used new, is carefully prepared and lighted by a special officer. Bowing low, this functionary advances towards his sovereign, and, bending his right knee to the ground, presents the pipe to the king. Trumpets are sounded and drums beaten. The bystanders fill the air with *Azanga amombe! Azanga amombe!* while a cloud of smoke issues from the royal mouth and surrounds the august visage with an aureole."

Among the papers of our author which were destroyed was a collection of fables gathered from the different tribes with whom he lived. A few are given from memory, some of which show great similarity to those of other races. We cite the most interesting from the comparative point of view:

"A chameleon once challenged an elephant to a race. The latter accepted, and it was arranged for the next morning. During the night the chameleon placed some of its brothers at short distances along the road upon which the race was to take place. Next day at dawn, the elephant came up and commenced running, the chameleon quickly mounting upon his tail. At every meeting with a chameleon the elephant asked, 'Are you not tired yet?' 'No,' answered the animal which had been placed on the allotted track. At last the elephant stopped, tired and breathless, and declared himself conquered."

Our author has been unfortunate in his translators. Too many passages have been rendered into faulty English, and there is an evident unfamiliarity with the geography and literature of Central Africa. The work is attractively got up, and is profusely illustrated with portraits, reproductions of photographs of natives, and original sketches, often very sensational, of incidents in the author's narrative. No hint is given as to the source of the pictures of the natives, but that of King Azanga is a copy of Munza's portrait in the 'Heart of Africa.' The purely scientific part of Maj. Casati's work is represented in these volumes by some meteorological observations and some lists of words in seven different native languages or dialects.

Life of Wm. Tecumseh Sherman, late retired General, U. S. A. By W. Fletcher Johnson. Carefully reviewed, chapter by chapter, by Maj.-Gen. O. O. Howard, U. S. A. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros. 12mo, pp. 607.

It was inevitable that the death of Gen. Sherman should seem a proper occasion to manufacturers of books to bring out new biographies of him. "Demand," in trade, means not only the public wish for a particular thing, but a general interest in a subject which may make anything "go off" which promises to gratify that interest. But Sherman's autobiography is so much more fascinating and so much more authentic than anything another person could write about him, that the would-be biographer finds decidedly hard lines. Not till Sherman's papers and correspondence shall be published and the official war records completed, will there be new material enough to make it really worth while to write a new Life.

The present effort in that direction is as palpable a case of a book made with scissors and paste as has ever been seen. Large extracts from the war correspondence of newspapers supply the thrilling battle descriptions, without correction of the blunders of fact and even the blunders in names which filled those vivid but notoriously inaccurate sketches. They were spicy condiments for the breakfast-table in 1862, but to reproduce them bodily to-day as history is comical. The authentic facts are necessarily copied or paraphrased from Sherman's own Memoirs, or reprinted from Gen. Howard's papers on the Atlanta campaign, already published. Every feature of the book shows haste. It has no index. Of the portraits there are two of Gen. Schofield, one of which (and the better likeness of him) is made to do duty for Gen. Butterfield. Typographical errors abound. In making up the forms, the matter of pages 440 and 441 has been bodily interchanged.

Gen. Howard furnishes a brief introduction, in which he really disclaims responsibility, saying, "The part undertaken by me, and to which I have strictly confined myself, has been to review the work, some of it already in proof type, and the remainder in manuscript, going over each chapter with considerable care, and suggesting such changes as I thought the truth of history demanded." He adds that the quotations (which are a very large part of the book) are, of course, not to be assumed as vouched for in fact or in opinion.

Switzerland. By Lina Hug and Richard Stead. [Story of the Nations Series.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890. 8vo, pp. 430.

Switzerland has had a long and eventful history, and to condense its chronicles into a single volume in an interesting manner is not an easy task. Yet the authors of this book have succeeded well. The earlier part of the narrative is naturally more interesting than the later, for it contains the drama of the struggle for independence which, though familiar to the reader of history, has perennial attractions to the lover of freedom. But when this is over, Swiss politics declines gradually to a dead level of pettiness which continues almost unabated till the close of the eighteenth century. Brilliant events and startling situations are not essential to history, for institutions and civilization may be in quiet working out their problems in a manner quite as absorbing; but it would seem as if the history of the ten decades before 1798 gave the lie direct to that already doubtful proverb, "Happy is the people whose annals are uninteresting," for it was a period neither of political happiness nor of institutional growth. It would be difficult to make the story of it attractive. With the present century, however, begins a new era. The germs of modern constitutional liberty begin to expand, and, although kept back under the pressure of ancient prejudice and privilege, the advancement is certain. The contest for free speech and personal liberty; the gradual expansion of the State constitutions until they became too full of popular rights to be contained in the antiquated Confederation; the bursting of the chrysalis in the war of secession, and the founding of a strong Federal Government almost within this generation—all these are facts of interest to the general reader, as well as to the special student of institutions, and link the first century of the republic with its latest.

Six hundred years have passed since the Confederation first asserted its right to live. On the 21st of August, 1891, the anniversary of the signing of the first "Perpetual League" will be celebrated by the nation in Canton Schwyz, where the original compact took place, and where the original document is still preserved. Six centuries are a long time, but not long enough to wipe out many old Germanic traits which still exist in Swiss institutions. The political instincts of the nation are distinctly traceable even back to the time when the Alemannic hordes first settled in the country, and the history of the Confederation leads one into many interesting paths of study. No other country except England furnishes so much that is of interest to American history, and in no country, without exception, can American constitutional problems be seen so well in process of solution. The book before us will at least prepare one for more particular study of Switzerland's laws and institutions.

Gray Days and Gold. By William Winter. Macmillan. 1891.

Mr. Winter's graceful and meditative style in his English sketches has recommended his earlier volume upon (Shakspere's) England to many readers who will not need urging to make the acquaintance of this companion book, in which the traveller, in the unmistakable habit of a gray pilgrim, guides us through the quiet and romantic scenery of the mother-country with a mingled affection and sentiment of which we have had no example since Irving's day. The cheerfulness of his narrative is overcast by the fact that he is so often in a churchyard mood. Indeed, the book might fairly be described as an itinerary of the graves of the poets who do not rest in Westminster. It is naturally impossible for such a Shaksperian lover and devotee of

Stratford-on-Avon not to make the well-known church and its neighborhood the centre of his interest, and we have in consequence several added bits of description of Warwickshire and its memories; but there are besides sketches of the last resting-places of Moore, and Byron, and Gray, and many others whose title to remembrance is more humble. The short reports of the pilgrim's talks with sextons and graybeards are admirable in their simple truth, and give life to the mortuary atmosphere. From one of these elders we learn why Moore was well regarded by his rustic neighbors: "Yes, his name is widely remembered and honored here, but I think that many of the poor people hereabout, the farmers, admired him because they thought that he wrote 'Moore's Almanac.' They often used to say to him: 'Mister Moore, please tell us what the weather's going to be?'" The dealer in pictures at Nottingham explained why he did not have more photographs of Byron localities by saying: "Much more ought to be done here as to Lord Byron's memory, that is the truth; but the fact is, the first families of the county don't approve of him."

With a little of such anecdote and much romantic description of the regretful sort, Mr. Winter takes the reader through many of the memorable places in the literary past of England, into some cathedral towns, and over the country of Sir Walter, and he always praises the poet with warmth as he stands by his dust, and all that should not have been he buries in the oblivion of the grave with undiscriminating charity. It is altogether the pleasantest of books of the grave, and it concludes with a little peal of *in memoriam* poems quite in accord with the sentiment of his "gray days and gold."

Silva of North America. By Charles Sprague Sargent. Vol. II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THIS second volume of Prof. Sargent's 'Silva' has been promptly issued and contains forty-seven plates, illustrating thirty-one species of trees belonging to the four natural orders *Cyrillaceæ*, *Celastraceæ*, *Rhamnaceæ*, and *Sapindaceæ*. The general interest of the work is well kept up, and Mr. Faxon's drawings here reproduced are not less accurate and elegant than his illustrations in the first volume. *Cyrillaceæ* is a small order, containing not over half-a-dozen species of shrubs or little trees, all natives of America. The two trees (*Cyrilla racemiflora* and *Cliftonia monophylla*) which are given a place in the 'Silva' are found from Carolina to the Gulf Coast, and one of them grows also in the West Indies and South America. They are both called iron-wood, and both have small entire leaves and slender racemes of little white flowers, which are very showy when seen in contrast with the dark-green foliage. The wood is heavy and hard, but seems to have no use except as fuel. The next order is well known through the climbing bittersweet or waxwork, a common shrubby climber of our Northern thickets, whose orange-colored berry-like pods and scarlet-cushioned seeds are very ornamental in autumnal days. This plant, not being a tree, has of course no place in the 'Silva,' but its cousin, the burning-bush (*Euonymus atropurpureus*), sometimes reaches arboreal dignity, and so is counted as a tree. Next come two little-known trees of Florida, of this same order; the wood of one of them has been used as a substitute for boxwood. *Rhamnaceæ* is represented by nine trees, all Southern or Western.

One may be pardoned for wishing that a botanist who is so painstaking and critical about his Latin names for trees, would have taken the trouble to coin also good English names for them. Turning to his excellent account of *Rhamnus Purshiana*, we find offered as vernacular appellations "bear-berry" and "coffee-tree." The first of these names belongs by the law of priority to the *Arctostaphylos Uva-ursi*, a low, trailing evergreen plant of Northern mountains, and the other name is primarily appropriated by the Arabian gift to civilization, and secondarily by a Kentucky tree (*Gymnocladus*) the seeds of which have been sometimes used as a substitute for coffee. Why not call this *Rhamnus* "Pursh's buckthorn," and in like manner name the other trees of our silva, instead of repeating such names as "iron-wood," "yellow-wood," "bear-berry," etc., in half-a-dozen different genera and orders? It is important to settle the scientific names of plants; it is also important, and to a far wider circle of readers, to settle the common names, and if, in the case of some plant, as one botanist has pleaded, "common people have never named it," then let some competent botanist give the plant a common name; just as some years ago Prof. Robinson so happily gave to the *Aspidium acrostichoides* the name of "Christmas-fern."

In the order *Sapindaceæ*, seventeen trees are described, and some of these are of great interest to unscientific readers, for this order includes the buckeyes and the maples—three buckeyes and nine maples. The Ohio or fetid buckeye (*Æsculus glabra*) differs from all our other native species of this genus in having roughened pods, which are even prickly when young. The sweet buckeye, so long known as *Æsculus flava*, is here called *Æsculus octandra*, the oldest name; though the writer admits that "the stamens are usually seven in number." It would have pleased many students if the red buckeye could also have been described, but probably the statement of Elliot, that it "sometimes becomes a small tree near the mountains," is not corroborated by recent observers. The Californian species, here called simply "buckeye," has much more showy flowers than the other American trees of this genus, but is far less common in cultivation. The horse-chestnut, though best known of all, is, of course, omitted, as it is not a native of this continent.

The maples are better distinguished by their common names than by the scientific designations which Prof. Sargent has seen fit to select; for the sugar-maple is no longer *Acer saccharinum*, but is *A. barbatum*, and the name *saccharinum* is transferred to the silver-maple, hitherto generally called *A. dasycarpum*. The reasons for this change are not given in this book, but may be found in the pages of *Garden and Forest*. Whatever they may be, the change is most unwelcome, and can please no one outside of a small company of name-changers with whom "priority" overrules all other considerations. It is more than a pity to see so splendid a work as this 'Silva' marred by such disfiguring nomenclature.

Achievements in Engineering during the Last Half Century. By L. F. Vernon-Harcourt. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THE title of this book is ambitious; its character popular rather than technical. It gives a brief readable account of a number of the principal engineering works of the last fifty years, the subjects considered being arbitrarily selected and relating for the most part to railroad construction or river and harbor improvements; the developments of steam and electric engineering are not considered. It is in no sense a technical work; it is simply a compilation of descriptive matter, all of which is superficial and much of which is inaccurate. Its popular character makes the inaccuracies less important than like inaccuracies have been in previous works by the same author, but it is a pity that any work emanating from an engineer should be so poorly prepared.

A few references will be at least amusing to people familiar with railroad matters. On pages 38 and 39 we read that "they [Swiss railroads] had to be so laid out as to be always open except in quite exceptionally severe weather," and that, "in America, the blocking of trains by snow in winter is a more common event." The American railroad manager may be glad to know that the stoppages due to snow are more common than "quite exceptionally severe weather." The description of American railroads is extremely loose. In one place we read that the Northern Pacific and Southern Pacific Railroads escape the crossing of the second ridge near the Pacific Ocean, and so avoid steep gradients on the western slope, and immediately thereafter that the tunnels on all these Western lines nowhere attain a mile in length. The western range, passing by different names, extends from Lower California into Alaska, the only low passage being that of the Columbia River, along which the Union Pacific line is laid, the construction of which was quite as difficult as that of the mountain lines. The longest maximum grade on the Southern Pacific Railroad is in descending from this range at the Tehachapi Pass, while the same range is crossed by the Northern Pacific Railroad at the Stampede Pass with a tunnel 9,800 feet long, this tunnel, as well as the San Fernando tunnel on the Southern Pacific, being considerably more than a mile in length.

On page 117 we read that two bridges were built across the Ohio River at Louisville in 1870, with spans of 368 feet and 396 feet respectively, both being of the Fink truss system, "with no continuous bottom flange." There are two spans of these lengths in the same bridge at Louisville, but both of these spans, though built by Mr. Fink, are of a pattern entirely unlike the Fink truss, and have bottom chords throughout. On page 128 we are told that the term cantilever is given to continuous girder bridges by American writers, and the Kentucky River bridge is mentioned in support of this statement, while the term cantilever is said to be "only suitable strictly to structures which increase in depth over the piers." The peculiar definition is an invention of the author. The Kentucky River bridge is a cantilever bridge and is not a continuous girder; cantilever arms project from each end of the central span, these projecting arms supporting the ends of independent spans which reach to the two abutments.

Other mistakes could be quoted; one will suffice. On page 268, we read that the Chignecto Ship Railway will carry vessels on two lines of rails eighteen feet apart; whereas this road will have four lines of rails and really consist of two standard-gauge railroads tied together by occasional long ties connecting the four rails.

Engineering is supposed to be an exact science; even in the attempts to popularize it it should be remembered that exactness and accuracy are the same thing. Books like this had better not be published.

Boston. By Henry Cabot Lodge. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891. 12mo, pp. 242.

It is difficult to imagine what section of the reading public is to be pleased by this book. The list of published volumes in the series of "Historic Towns" embraces London, Exeter, Bristol, Oxford, Colchester, the Cinque Ports, Carlisle, and Winchester, abroad; New York and Boston here. It must be that these American histories are intended for a British public to whom any information about American affairs will be welcome, whether germane to the title or not. This inference is unavoidable since Mr. Lodge has not written a history of Boston, but has thrown together a hasty sketch of the history of Massachusetts for the last 250 years.

A town history is naturally a history of a town: it may deal with natural history or not; it may embrace genealogies or not; but it must contain a record of the acts of the inhabitants both in their collective meetings and in their authorized official work. It must treat of the laying out of lots and roads, of churches and school-houses, of manufactures and business enterprises, of war records and local affairs, or it is not a town history. Judged by this evident and well-known standard, Mr. Lodge's book is not a history of Boston, and is not even an attempt at one. His book might stand with scarcely a word of change for a history of Salem or Worcester, had either town been the seat of the colonial government. A few extracts from Sewall's Diary, a page or two of Bennett's travels, and a chapter on modern Boston politics are all the local touches. Once, indeed, on p. 211, he states that "the literary genius of Massachusetts produced Jonathan Edwards's remarkable essay on the 'Freedom of the Will,' Franklin's 'Poor Richard,' and the rhymes of 'Mother Goose,' usually attributed to Thomas Fleet of Boston." This is his solitary tribute to Boston literature, and it is a fair specimen of his treatment of the history of Boston. Edwards, of course, had nothing to do with Boston. 'Poor Richard' was printed in Philadelphia, the only place entitled to claim Franklin as a citizen and worker; and as to the claim that Thomas Fleet *wrote* the rhymes of 'Mother Goose,' it appears for the first time in Mr. Lodge's pages. It is an extreme case of literary carelessness, for even the inventor of the idle fable that Fleet printed an edition of the rhymes, never imagined that he wrote them.

But we do not care to review this book in the light of a contribution to the histories of Massachusetts. It is, at best, such a sketch as a student might dash off from general recollections of a familiar subject, and consign to a foreign market where competition was limited. Boston has indeed been unfortunate in its historians. The subject is too vast and probably too unremunerative to attract the necessary labor. The preliminary sketch by Thomas Pemberton, printed in the Massachusetts Historical Society's Collections (1st series, vol. iii, p. 241–304), in 1794, and Shaw's History (Boston, 1817), were mere outlines. Then came Dr. Caleb Snow's History, printed in 1825, 424 pages, which was a wonderful piece of work for the times, and which is still the nearest approach to a proper history. Samuel G. Drake's ambitious attempt to enlarge and continue Snow's book is a fragment, of value only for some new materials. Like Mr. Lodge, he confounded the history of the town with that of the colony, and failed to do any satisfactory work. Dr. Shurtleff's book is a proof that even a single portion of the history of Boston requires great space, and Quincy's Municipal History is a mere chapter covering a few years. The pretentious and heterogeneous 'Memorial History' is a mere warehouse of materials, good, bad, and indifferent, saved from utter neglect chiefly by the quantity and admirable quality of its illustrations.

Thus it will be seen that the historian of Boston has yet to appear, probably has yet to be born. In the meantime, the necessary materials are being rapidly accumulated. The city of Boston has printed the records of the town-meetings and of the selectmen; its defective archives have been repaired by copies of church records; its wills and deeds are soon to be removed to new and convenient offices: and the files of Suffolk County have been arranged, bound, and indexed. In fact, for the history of Boston as a town from 1630 to 1822, the one thing lacking is an historian able to face the accumulation of facts and to reduce them to order and due proportion.

As to the history of the city, if a writer can be found devoid of political bias, the preparation of a good volume is not difficult. It is a task best suited to a stranger, because, as Mr. Lodge has pointed out, there are still at work feelings of class and race which involve nearly all of the native-born citizens. The history of Boston deserves to be written on a broad scale, and yet with sufficient minuteness in parts. Two portions, usually predominant in town-histories, can be safely omitted—the natural history, since the little peninsula has no striking features; and the genealogies, because the material is lost. Most of our early towns have the records of the inhabitants; Boston has hardly any for the entire eighteenth century. On the other hand, the political and social record is unusually large, interesting, and important. The church history is well preserved and will prove valuable, while the industrial record is very instructive.

In his concluding chapter Mr. Lodge touches on the question of the present inhabitants of foreign birth or parentage. He has not ventured to discuss the problems; and, as an active and aspiring politician, he is wise in maintaining silence. He ought, however, to have pointed out the fact, of which he cannot be ignorant, that if Boston is now so largely peopled by the Irish race, these children of alien parentage are a unit in devotion to the place of their own birth. The O's and the Mac's, whose tongues have learned in the public schools to drop the parental brogue, speak of "our city" and even of "our history" with as undoubting faith as if they had first drawn breath in Essex or Berkshire, or even in Vermont or New Hampshire. Another generation, a little abatement in religious zeal all around, and these Irish boys will be typical Yankees. They already despise "foreigners"; by 1950 they will be ready to prevent any further immigration. But this chapter is too recent to be written to-day, or apropos even of Mr. Lodge's diffuse essay.

A Manual of Public Health. By A. Wynter Blyth, M.R.C.S., L.S.A., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

The sanitarian is like the hydrographer exploring a sea whose shoals he marks and whose submarine rocks he destroys, but in the midst of what was deep water at the last survey he now finds new volcanic peaks or freshly grown coral reefs. Cities, factories, applied chemistry, increased commerce by sea and land, all the conditions of the artificial life of dense populations, facilitate the destruction of disease-causes, but add a profusion of new ones. It is to the discussion of such problems that this book is devoted. The author of the work before us has English conditions and the English officer of health in his various capacities chiefly in mind, but what is desirable for English officials is acceptable, speaking generally, elsewhere. Sanitary science is as cosmopolitan as music; that of each country has its special characteristics, but the principles are common and universal.

The volume opens with an excellent essay upon vital statistics, containing a curious chapter upon artificial aids to calculation. That it is possible and convenient to extract the square root by machinery seems like a footfall of the Coming Race. Sanitation proper naturally begins with ventilation. By most persons the purity, or at least the innocuousness, of the breath of life is assumed as a matter of course, and the oppression that follows its contamination is referred to any but the true source. But the languor and headaches, the malaise and depression, that lead the ignorant to medicine, "domestic" and foreign, often depend upon self-poisoning whose antidote would be a broken window or an open fire-place. It is not from ignorance, but the author lays scarcely enough stress upon the nitrogenous waste from lungs and skin as the mischief-making element. The carbon dioxide indicates the danger, but is not, ordinarily, the real evil. It is the danger signal, not the dangerous thing. And the estimate (p. 64) that children require less than adults is misleading for working purposes, except as applied to the very young. As with the waste into the air, so with that into the ground and the water-courses. Ventilation and sewerage are complementary factors, the latter even more than the former noting the inroads, the special needs, and the progress of civilization. The rescue of the Thames from its degradation as a continuous cesspool is clearly illustrated by a map of London, showing the intercepting sewers that carry the sewage away from the higher levels. Sir Joseph Bazalgette, whose death has barely been announced, by those parallel lines not only saved the river, but broke up the excessive and almost ungovernable area into a group of manageable districts, making of an enormous unit a semi-independent federation. There are useful tables for calculating the flow of liquids, a fair recognition of the merits of the separate system, and a few pages upon sewage disposal. American sanitarians doubt that "the best material for soil-pipes is lead" (p. 286); it certainly is not when rats have access to it. And there is no mechanical difficulty in making perfect joints in heavy iron pipe. Careless plumbers may scamp their work, but poor work is no reason for abandoning good material. To carry the perpendicular soil-pipe outside of the house, while possible in the English climate, is not practicable in ours north of the Carolinas. Why may not much of the piping of the future be of glass, within movable wooden casing?

A couple of chapters on public nuisances, with the English laws in relation to them, are followed by a short section on disinfectants, discussing both their theoretical and practical aspects. As against the writer's definition of a disinfectant as "a chemical substance that by its poisonous action kills a disease-producing germ," we prefer that of the American Public Health Association, as "an agent capable of destroying the infecting power of infecting material." The section which appeals most visibly to the popular eye is that upon the "zymotic" diseases, which are now believed to be due to infecting micro-organisms. The general immunity from a second attack of eruptive fevers the writer explains by assum-

ing that the white cells, one of whose provinces seems to be to destroy such invaders, acquire additional power of resistance by the conflict. That is not as satisfactory as to suppose that the disease-germs leave in the tissues excreta unfavorable to the life of their kind. But neither hypothesis has been demonstrated. It is to be regretted that stress is not laid upon the wonderful persistence of the scarlatinal poison, whereby infected clothing, books, and toys will develop disease months and even years after being charged. Probably no disease is more to be dreaded, and none is more persistent in the life of its cause, than this red plague. The contagious nature of tuberculous disease is distinctly recognized, and the period is anticipated when it will be classed with diseases dangerous to the general health; for, as the author justly remarks (p. 485), "it is a far more important malady to have notified than such purely infantile complaints as measles."

Space does not permit reference to all the subjects in this excellent book, but we regret that in its relation to public health the abuse, if not the use, of alcohol is omitted; that the influence of arsenic, no longer confined in clothing and furniture to green dyes, is overlooked; that burial and cremation are not compared; and we should have expected to find some serious discussion of the repealed "Contagious Diseases Acts."

There are a dozen plates and diagrams, more than fifty other illustrations, and a good index. Exact references to pages in the footnotes are omitted unpleasantly many times, and there is an occasional uncertainty in proper names, as Farr and Farre (pp. 508 9), and Goldenberg (p. 421) may stand for Sternberg. The book is on a different plan and scale from ordinary Hygienes, and is very good.

The Oyster: A Popular Summary of a Scientific Study. By W. K. Brooks, Ph.D. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. 1891. 8vo, pp. x, 230. Ills.

THE condition of the oyster fisheries of Chesapeake Bay has been known to be precarious for fifteen years. The product has been, during that time, steadily decreasing in quantity and still more notably in quality. While other States, by confiding to private enterprise unoccupied bottom suitable for oyster culture, have put the business on a solid foundation, greatly enlarged the annual product, and given more or less lucrative employment to a constantly increasing number of their citizens, Maryland has seen her greatest source of wealth slowly but certainly subjected to a diminution which can only end, if her past policy be continued, in its complete destruction.

The population living on the shores adjacent to the fisheries has refused to permit any sort of private control of ground suitable for oyster culture; has defied all laws and regulations intended to protect the natural beds; has done everything in its power to obstruct scientific investigation of the condition of the beds; and, where individuals have reclaimed portions of the bottom, planted oysters, and seen, after years of waiting, the fruit of their labors almost ready for harvest, has robbed them of everything with absolute impunity. To most outsiders it would seem as if the best thing which could happen for the State of Maryland would be the complete exhaustion of the beds and the destruction of the business. This once accomplished, the ignorance and lawlessness now characteristic of the region could probably be overpowered by the public sentiment of the rest of the State, many of the marauders would be forced to emigrate to find a livelihood elsewhere, and a rational system might then be initiated. This, however, is a terribly high price to pay for what has been all along attainable by less radical methods.

In the hope of arousing a public sentiment which should take steps to remedy matters before it is too late, Prof. Brooks has prepared this little volume, which appears with a cordial introduction by President Gilman. It is admirably illustrated, and discusses the possibilities of oyster culture, the anatomy and development of the oyster, the artificial cultivation of oysters, the causes of the decline in the business, and the remedy. To be brief, the beds have been overfished, and the remedy is to authorize and protect private oyster culture. This is simple common sense, and has been the advice or, rather, the entreaty of everybody competent to judge for the last ten years. But people who will deliberately rob a neighbor of 300,000 bushels of oysters of his own raising after three years of labor bestowed upon them (see p. 203), are not likely to listen to common sense, or pay attention to anything short of a locust-wood club.

Much as it is to be wished, and fairly and sensibly as Prof. Brooks has written, it is almost certain that nothing will be done until the business has practically come to an end. Meanwhile North Carolina, Connecticut, Delaware, and even Georgia are making hay while the sun shines; even Virginia is moving in the right direction, and, when the catastrophe to Maryland comes, by a justice as rare as it is welcome, the chief offenders will be those to bear the well-merited loss.

Elizabeth of Roumania. By Blanche Roosevelt. London: Chapman & Hall.

"SAVE me from my friends!" must be the prayer of the Queen of Rumania if she be gifted with a tithe of the common sense and literary discrimination with which she is credited. If she be not, then Miss Roosevelt's skyrocket style is precisely adapted to the glorification of scribbling royalty. Each chapter of her laudation—it cannot be called criticism—goes up with a bang of ancestry, proceeds with a fizz of titles, and culminates in a shower of gushing (not fiery) adjectives, scattered with the utmost impartiality over Carmen Sylva's social position, personal charms, and literary efforts. One feels that Miss Roosevelt is very hard up when, despite her prefatory protestations that she is quite undazzled by the Queen's rank, the expression selected for special commendation for its characteristic originality is the hackneyed image contained in "The peasants bestrode their horses as if they were part of the animals themselves."

But skyrocket illumination is neither lasting nor satisfactory at the moment. Miss Roosevelt's "Study" informs us of nothing which previous biographers of the literary Queen have not told us, with the single exception of the all-important fact that the writer has met Her Majesty (sweet words), and has heard her read a play which may be presented some day in Vienna. Here, indeed, we lay our finger on the reason for the book's existence. On all other points Miss Roosevelt's information is derived from already existing accounts, which she copies so rashly that she makes "Frithiof" write "The Sagas of Tegner," instead of crediting Bishop Tegner with his famous 'Frithiof's Saga.' It would be interesting to know where, except on page 31 of this book, are to be found the "splendid gardens and promenades" attached to the palace of the Kremlin in Moscow.

Carmen Sylva is a fine woman, a talented woman, who has done some good work, as translations of two of her stories, "The Mother-In-Law" and "In Fetters," appended to this book, show. They also show, however, what Miss Roosevelt herself naïvely admits at one point, despite her desperate efforts to blink, and her asseverations that she has not moved an eyelash—that plain Elizabeth von Runkel would never have gathered sufficient laurel leaves to weave herself a wreath, had not a royal crown already rested on her head. Such strained overpraise as this volume contains is pretty sure to be counterbalanced by under-appreciation. The book contains two well-reproduced portraits of the Queen and a view of a room in her palace.

A Girl in the Karpathians. By M. M. Dowie. London: George Philip & Son. 1891.

FRESH, utterly unconventional, and wholly charming is Miss Dowie's account of her two months' ramble in Galicia. She makes no pretence to furnishing statistics of the country, although her map of the territorial dismemberment of Poland up to 1795 is highly instructive for people who are interested in that subject. What she does give is a very vivid picture of the country and of the people, with their picturesque costumes, graceful manners, quaint customs, and utter oblivion to morals in the Western sense of that word. She gives us a not too detailed journal of her summer experience, in which the reader soon discovers that Miss Dowie herself is by far the most interesting feature. She seems equally at home with the Ruthenians, the Poles, and the hybrid Huculs—less so with the Jews, whom she describes as enterprising, but dirty—and shares her cigarettes with all who will talk to her, as she absorbs their queer German and makes guesses at the other languages. Any one who inspects the dashing portrait of the writer, in her mountain suit of tweed coat and knickerbockers, flannel shirt and long leggings, will at once form an idea of the fascination of this canny young Scotchwoman. Her deeds are as dashing as her costume; and her style, replete with frankness about herself and others, is cast in the same mould. She is never at a loss for an adequate word or phrase. Her description of Polish may serve as an instance of her happy knack in putting things before one: "A Polish printed page is like nothing but a frogpond in spring—all tadpoles in various stages of development—some with, some without tails, and lots of queer, unknown, black, wiggly things that make one very nervous." Her mention of the postmaster who, having spoken nothing but Polish for forty years, determined to learn it, hired a teacher to give him a lesson every day—and abandoned the undertaking in despair at the end of six weeks—is equally good.

A book like this, however, one of whose great charms lies in its atmosphere, cannot be adequately represented by extracts, quotable as many of the phrases are. It must be read; and the reader will come to the conclusion that Miss Dowie may attempt other flights in literature with a more than usual certainty of immediate success.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alarcón, P. A. de. Brunhilde, or the Last Act in Norma. A. Lovell & Co. $1.
Anstey, F. Tourmalin's Time Cheques. Chicago: Chas. H. Sergel & Co.
Appletons' General Guide to the United States and Canada. D. Appleton & Co. $2.50.
Appletons' Illustrated Handbook of American Summer Resorts. 16th year. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Besant, W. St. Katherine's by the Tower. Harper & Bros. 60 cents.

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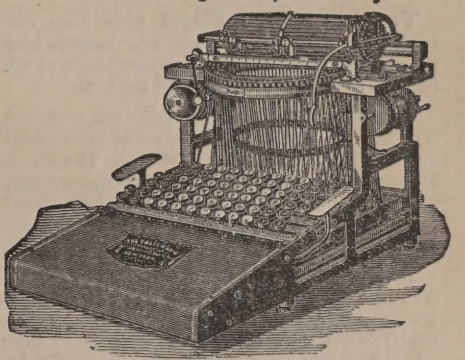

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Alphabetized, first by States; second, by Towns.

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CONNECTICUT, Wallingford.

ROSEMARY HALL. BOARDING and Day School for Young Ladies. Prepares students for College. Christmas term begins October 2. For catalogues address
Miss RUUTZ-REES.

DELAWARE, Wilmington, Franklin Street.

THE MISSES HEBB'S ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and girls reopens September 22, 1891.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

THE COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY.—College, Medical School, Dental School, Law School, Scientific School. For catalogues, address
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ILLINOIS, Bunker Hill (near St. Louis).

BUNKER HILL BOYS' HOME School.—Founded 1882. Fine equipments, location healthful, superior home and school advantages, college and business preparation, gymnastics, woodworking, and military drill. Circulars on application to Principal.

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ILLINOIS, Woodstock.

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LOUISIANA, New Orleans, 247 Prytania Street.

MRS. F. D. BLAKE AND MRS. L. Polk Chapman's French and English Boarding and Day School for Girls reopens Oct. 1, 1890. Students prepared for college. Ample grounds for outdoor exercise.

MARYLAND, Annapolis.

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Boarding Pupils limited to twenty. Students prepared for college.

Schools.

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MARYLAND, Baltimore, 122–124 West Franklin St.

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MARYLAND, Baltimore, 915 and 917 N. Charles St.

SOUTHERN HOME SCHOOL for Girls. Mrs. W. M. CARY, Miss CARY.
Fiftieth year. Summer address, Bar Harbor, Me.

MARYLAND, Catonsville.

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Principals: Miss M. C. CARTER, Miss S. R. CARTER.

MARYLAND, St. Mary's County, Charlotte Hall.

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MARYLAND, St. George's Hall, St. George's, Balto. Co.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Amherst.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Andover.

*ABBOT ACADEMY FOR YOUNG LA*dies will begin its 63d year Sept. 10, with superior accommodations in its new and improved buildings. Terms, $400 a year. PHILENA MCKEEN, Principal.

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Schools.

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Schools.

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Schools.

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NEW YORK, Syracuse.

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Schools.

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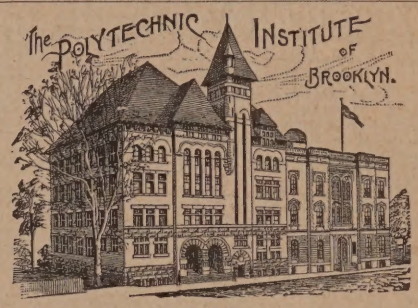

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 23, 1891.

The Week.

THE gratifying intelligence is communicated from Washington that in the last fiscal year the sum of sixty cents was earned by American ships in carrying United States mails to Europe. Foreign ships received for this service about $400,000 during the same period. With a view to stimulating this peculiarly rickety infant industry, the last Congress provided for a system of bounties to be paid to vessels of American construction for carrying our mails to foreign countries, and the Postmaster-General now publishes an elaborate advertisement defining the routes to be followed by these vessels. As the Republicans have squandered all the surplus in the Treasury, and as there is little prospect that there will be any excess of revenue for some time to come, it might seem unwise to undertake at present the payment of any more bounties than we are absolutely committed to. But we venture to say that apprehensions of this nature may be allayed, for not even Mr. Wanamaker's advertisements, made more tempting by a promise of bounties—a prize-gift, so to speak, with every package of mail taken—can presently create an American merchant marine, "with an aggregate tonnage of 154,000 tons, and at a probable cost of from $27,000,000 to $30,000,000."

At the time when the sugar bounty was under discussion, the Internal Revenue Bureau prepared estimates of the amount that the Government would be obliged to pay if the bounty went into effect. These estimates were based upon the existing production, and indicated that the bounty earned would be about $9,231,000. By the conditions of the law, every person intending to claim the bounty must make application by the 1st of July to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue for a license, which application shall state the amount of sugar he proposes to make during the ensuing year. These applications have now been received, and the result, as shown in a despatch to the New York *World*, is rather startling—or would be if the waste of a few millions by the Government produced any effect on the public mind. The Government's estimate of the cane-sugar product was 420,000,000 pounds. The applications from Louisiana alone show an anticipated production of 551,000,000. The applications relating to beet sugar show an expected product of twice the amount estimated by the Government. If these anticipations are realized, the Government will have to pay about $3,300,000 more in bounties than it counted upon. It is to be hoped that the applicants for bounties are too sanguine in their expectations.

It seems that the Republic of Venezuela is not attracted by the advantages of reciprocity as presented in Mr. Blaine's treaty. A despatch to the *World* states that the President of the Republic laid the matter before the Congress for its advice, and the answer of the Congress is to the effect that Venezuela would suffer a great loss of revenue without any compensating gains. The answer declares that the Blaine project has, besides an element of novelty, a tendency to harmonize great economic interests, and that it displays the result of vigorous thought developed by a notable statesman. But it is not exactly the thing for Venezuela, for that country would be compelled, if the treaty were accepted, to make up elsewhere nearly 33 per cent. of her customs revenue. Moreover, the abolition of duties upon the products of the United States would render the importation of like products from Europe unprofitable, and thereby further diminish the revenue from import duties. On the other hand, the exemption from duty of the agricultural products of Venezuela when imported into the United States could not be expected to cause any compensating rise in their prices. The Congress recognizes the advantages to consumers of reduced customs duties, and declares that such reduction should be the policy of every just and liberal government, but it points out that the necessity of obtaining revenue is at present paramount. All that the United States was able to offer Venezuela as an inducement to enter into the treaty was a continuation of the free import of coffee, and the exemption from duty of goatskins, honey, and certain kinds of sugar. This was coupled with the threat that if the treaty were refused, a duty of three cents a pound on coffee and one and one-half cents a pound upon hides imported into the United States from Venezuela might be imposed. On the other hand, the Venezuelans were to abolish the duties upon wheat and flour, corn and all its products, cereals, hay and oats, pork, lard, butter, cheese, cotton-seed oil, macaroni, coal, wood, tar, pitch, and turpentine, and machinery, including agricultural implements and mining and industrial utensils. Among products upon which duties were to be reduced one-fourth were manufactures of cotton, of iron and steel, of leather, of wood, and of rubber. It must be admitted that the bargain does not look very tempting from the Venezuelan point of view. The answer of the Congress is a document evidently prepared by very competent hands.

The French Chamber has voted to rescind the prohibition against American pork, and impose instead a duty of 20 francs per 100 kilos (or $4 per 220 pounds). This duty of about 40 per cent. ad valorem ought to be satisfactory to the McKinleyites, being considerably less than our duty on French silks, besides interposing fewer obstacles of an administrative sort. It would have been quite in accordance with *our* methods if the French Chamber had added to the specific duty a small ad-valorem duty also, and then passed a customs administrative bill requiring the butcher and the breeder of American swine to prove the cost of production of their pork. But, although the French are pretty well up in the science of protection, they have some things yet to learn. Whether they have yet learned that the American farmer will pay the duty on pork imported into France from this country and thus contribute to the support of the French armed and naval forces, is uncertain, but they can learn something of that kind by examining the speeches made in Congress in favor of the McKinley Bill. If we are to pay the duty as well as supply the pork, the bargain will be a hard one for us, and yet we fancy that a great many good protectionists will hail the repeal of the prohibitory decree as a great victory and boon. Such persons probably think that foreigners pay the duties that we levy on their goods and also those that they levy on our goods.

The McKinley duties were put on corduroys in order to oblige a firm of manufacturers in Rhode Island who had never made any corduroy, but who were confident of their ability to do so if a high enough duty were put upon the foreign product. Senator Aldrich had the duties increased to 80 and even 85 per cent. on the lower grades, which are used for clothing by poor people, raising the price from thirty to forty cents a yard, while the price of the high grades, which are used only by well-to-do people, was advanced only about three cents a yard. The result has been to force the poor people who formerly bought these goods for their clothing, to either pay a third more for it or buy some cheaper and less durable material. Like the tin iniquity, this duty was put upon an article not a particle of which is manufactured in America, or can be manufactured here without the importation of foreign skilled labor. A reporter tried to get from the agent of the Rhode Island firm who had this tax put on to enable them to give birth to an infant industry, a list of samples with prices, but he only succeeded in getting sight of a small piece of corduroy inferior in weight and quality to the foreign product. This sample, like those of the various American tin works, was only for exhibition purposes. No goods are for sale, or likely to be for a long time to come.

The *New Yorker Handels-Zeitung* publishes an interview with Secretary Foster on the subject of the Gold Movement, the condition of the Treasury, and kindred topics. Mr. Foster thinks that we sent abroad seventy million dollars in gold because we owed the money. He thinks that some of this gold will come back to us when the breadstuffs movement becomes active, but

not all of it. He thinks there will be a large demand for money then. This was one of the reasons why he decided to extend the 4½ per cent. bonds instead of paying them. He believes that this operation will add about $25,000,000 to the circulating medium. Another reason for extending the bonds instead of paying them was that "the expenditures are growing and the receipts in the Treasury are becoming smaller." This is the first admission we have seen in print, from any Treasury official, of a fact which the business community has considered an inevitable result of the pension and tariff legislation of the last Congress. The Secretary says that he should like to convert the 4 per cent. bonds also into 2 per cents having a longer time to run, but he does not think that the next House of Representatives will agree to that. That House, he thinks, will pass a free-coinage-of-silver bill, and that he is strongly opposed to.

There are signs of a disposition on the part of the Republican leaders to oust Mr. Quay from the Chairmanship of the National Executive Committee. They begin to talk of the difficulty they have had for some time in persuading him not to resign, and to intimate that after a long struggle Mr. Quay is getting the better of them. Mr. J. S. Clarkson now confesses that immediately after the election Mr. Quay began to talk in this way, claiming that the detail work of a political committee was not a proper employment for a United States Senator. The rest of the Committee unanimously opposed this contention, and by dwelling upon the absolutely harmonious relations that had prevailed among them, "the members becoming endeared to each other thereby," temporarily overcame Mr. Quay's determination. But he is a man of iron will. When he starts for a goal, he generally gets there, and he has fairly tired his colleagues into letting him depart. From all this it appears probable that Mr. Quay is to withdraw and Mr. Clarkson to take his place. The people are to understand, however, that Mr. Quay's career has had nothing to do with this change, and that the Republican party declines to take any credit to itself for deposing a disreputable leader. If he would only have remained, they say, they would have been only too glad to have him.

It looks very much as if ex-Judge Harrison would be "read out of the party" in Connecticut for revealing the facts about the Republican plot, led by the editor of the Hartford *Evening Post*, to steal three of the State offices from the Democrats. He is denounced daily in the Hartford organ as having "made an attack upon the Republican party," and that view is taken of him by nearly or quite all the party organs in the State. He is thus shown to be "no better than a Mugwump" or an "assistant-Democrat," and the party has no further use for him. Are his charges true? Oh, yes, but that makes his offence all the more unpardonable. He should have stayed in the party, kept quiet about its rascalities, and endeavored to "reform it from the inside." That is the only course for a loyal Republican to follow. As Quay says of Bardsley's theft of $2,000,000 of the public money, "he stole it as Bardsley, not as a Republican," and the Philadelphia newspapers all exclaim in chorus, "That is the point precisely." The editor of the Hartford *Evening Post* was trying to steal three State offices for his party, but he was trying to "steal as Porter, not as a Republican," and Judge Harrison should have either kept quiet about it or spoken of it only in that way.

The experts who have been examining the accounts of Bardsley, the thieving Philadelphia Treasurer, have made an elaborate report which shows that he misappropriated over $778,000 of public money, and that he sunk over $1,121,000 more in the Keystone Bank, making a total loss to the city and State through his rascality of nearly $2,000,000. He used over one million dollars in stock speculations, and it is interesting to note that Kemble, of "addition, division, and silence" fame, was one of his partners in these operations. The stubs of his check-books show that he used the public money as freely as if it were his own. Republican State officials were in great luck in enjoying his liberality with this money. One stub is marked: "To the order of myself for Wm. Livsey, State Treasurer, for his kindness to me during the year, $500." The Auditor-General of the State, Thomas McCamant, and one of his clerks, H. N. Graffin, were sharers with Bardsley in the rebates which he obtained from the Philadelphia newspapers on the public advertising. His accounts show that he obtained 40 per cent. commission on this advertising from four newspapers, amounting in one year, 1889, to $16,289, and that he put $7,144 of this into his own pocket, gave $7,144 of it to the Auditor-General, and $2,000 of it to Graffin. In 1890 he seems to have taken the entire commissions for himself, for he deposited over $17,000 to his own credit as "newspaper balance." In 1891 he deposited over $8,000 in the same way. One curious entry shows that he paid $1,000 to a newspaper, the *Item*, "in place of getting" the public advertising—that is to say, he took $1,000 of the public money and presented it as a "consolation prize" to an editor who had been disappointed in getting any of the advertising.

One of the newspapers which paid the 40 per cent. commission was the *Press*, that stalwart defender of Wanamaker and Quay and all the other Republican leaders who are not in jail or on the way there. The *Press* explains, in a truly Wanamakerish manner, as follows:

> "The *Press* paid no rebate on its city or State advertising. H. N. Graffin brought the Mercantile Appraisers' advertising to the *Press* and offered it at a rate which would pay the paper to print it after paying the commission which he demanded, of 40 per cent. It was a large volume of advertising, offered under conditions which permitted its publication without interfering with the general news or ordinary advertising of the paper. It could be obtained on no other terms except by paying the commission demanded; and, while the *Press* considered the rate exorbitant, it preferred to pay it rather than lose the business. The *Press* received from Mr. Bardsley a check for the full amount which the city paid for the Mercantile Appraisers' advertisement, and then gave H. N. Graffin his commission for bringing in the business."

It seems never to have occurred to the *Press* to ask how it happened that Graffin was able to dictate such exorbitant terms, or what the "pull" was which gave him control of so profitable a job. It says now that Graffin "collected not only for himself but for his superiors," that "Messrs. McCamant and Bardsley took advantage of their power to grossly abuse it," that the city is paying for its advertisements "more than they are worth," and that "the whole system of official advertising is conducted on a vicious principle." The *Press* is evidently as grieved at being caught in company with a lot of public thieves as good Mr. Wanamaker himself is.

In a surprisingly weak defence of Mr. Wanamaker's relations with the Keystone Bank and its rascals, the *Independent* makes this statement concerning that memorable incident in Washington, the night before the bank was closed, when Marsh made a final attempt to induce Wanamaker to give up his fraudulent stock:

> "Afterwards, when there was a thought of reorganizing the bank, Marsh and two other gentlemen, including the attorney of the Lucas estate, visited him [Wanamaker] in Washington to see if he were willing to surrender his stock for this purpose. He says he refused unless he were paid for it. Was this wrong? He held it as collateral, and it represented a large sum of money he had advanced; was it strange that he should want to get part of the money back, if possible?"

This is not in accordance with Mr. Wanamaker's account of the interview. He did not say that "he refused unless he were paid for it." Here is what he said, quoted verbatim from the Philadelphia *Ledger's* report of his testimony:

> "I said to those gentlemen that up to that time no person but Mr. Marsh had called the stock in question, but that now that the Vice-President of the bank and the attorney of the Lucas estate had done so, I felt obliged to say that they must either settle with me, or I could not in justice to myself allow the Comptroller of the Currency to be ignorant of the fact that they were claiming that some of the stock that I held was improper stock."

The *Independent* will see that demanding money for the stock, under a threat, in case of refusal, to give the Comptroller information which would lead to the closing of the bank, was a very different proceeding from a mere refusal to surrender it unless he were paid for it. It will see, also, that the good man was demanding money, something like $50,000, for stock which three good authorities had assured him was fraudulent. We put it to the *Independent* to answer its own question in regard to this ex-

traordinary conduct on the part of a Sunday-school instructor and public moralist: "Was it wrong?"

The *Christian Union* is even more cautious than the *Independent* in commenting upon Mr. Wanamaker's case. It says:

"We do not think it our duty to anticipate the further investigations which should be made, alike in the interest of the public and of Mr. Wanamaker, and which it must be presumed both the proper officials of the State of Pennsylvania and Mr. Wanamaker will demand. It must suffice to remind our readers that if, on the one hand, high position and even Christian reputation do not suffice to make unnecessary official investigation into such definite charges as have been preferred by Mr. Bardsley against Mr. Wanamaker, on the other hand there are always men and presses in the community ready to assume that one who occupies such a position and possesses such a reputation is to be presumed guilty until he is proved innocent. The reverse is certainly the case. The presumptions are all against the truth of charges so preferred, and the public, as well as the courts, should presume innocence unless guilt is established."

This is a distinct intimation to Mr. Wanamaker that he needs to demand further inquiry in order to establish his innocence, the *Christian Union* not taking the view of the Wanamakered press in Philadelphia that his last statement was a "clear, comprehensive, and conclusive refutation of all the intimations and innuendos that have been made against him." The *Christian Union* is surely not unmindful of the fact that the same "Christian reputation" which serves as a shield for a good man against charges of unworthy conduct, also demands from him great circumspection in his daily walk and conversation. It is because Mr. Wanamaker makes such loud professions of "Christian reputation" that he is held to so strict accountability for his acts. If it be a censurable proceeding for a carnal and worldly man to demand $50,000 for a block of fraudulent bank stock as his price for keeping quiet about it, is it not more censurable for a man of "Christian reputation" to demand it? And ought not his Christian brethren to rebuke him sternly for his conduct, rather than to seek to hide it under the mantle of his "Christian reputation"?

The Farmers' Alliance set out to capture the Democratic party in Mississippi and commit it to their sub-treasury scheme, but the Democratic leaders, with Senator George at their head, fought them from the start with the utmost vigor. It is already clear that the people are on the side of George, the opponents of the sub-treasury scheme constituting four-fifths of the recent Democratic State Convention, and enough Democratic county conventions have been held to show that both George and his colleague Walthall (if he will withdraw his refusal to be a candidate) will be reëlected to the Senate by the Legislature, which will have the disposal of both Senatorships, as no State election will be held after next November until 1895. The result of the registration for the coming election, by the way, shows that the whites constitute a large majority of the voters on the rolls, but few negroes having made any effort to pass the educational test.

An extraordinary spectacle is now to be witnessed at the office of the Register of Deeds in Brooklyn. That office closes its doors at four o'clock every afternoon, except Saturday, when they are closed at twelve, and at those hours the public must withdraw. Without the doors, however, stands a small army of clerks, apparently a hundred or more in number, equipped with small yellow books and writing materials. To these clerks the doors are again opened, they enter and fill all the desks of the immense Hall of Records, and work there steadily until ten o'clock at night. The superficial explanation of this phenomenon is, that this army consists of clerks employed by the Lawyers' Title Insurance Company to transcribe records, and that that company has made it an object to the Register to allow its employees special facilities. The ultimate explanation is, that the State has so utterly failed to manage the delicate and responsible work of maintaining a system of recorded titles that private enterprise has been compelled to step in and practically take the work off its hands by introducing more scientific methods. For many years it has been the deliberate policy of the officers having charge of the real-estate records to perpetuate an obsolete system of indexing for the purpose of swelling their own fees. In the cities of New York and Brooklyn this policy has only been met by giving their officers salaries and allowing them to satisfy the requirements of their positions by overcharging for disbursements and by the employment of superfluous underlings. Provided these things are secured to them, the records may take care of themselves, and if anything is to be made by allowing copyists special facilities, it is so much clear gain. The labor of transcribing all the records in New York and Kings Counties is something prodigious. The deeds alone must number more than a million, and the transcription of five deeds in an hour would probably be all that could be accomplished with proper regard to accuracy. Vast as the labor is, it has become so necessary that there will shortly be three complete sets of records of deeds and mortgages in Kings and New York Counties—one antiquated, cumbrous, badly indexed, but official, the others compact, convenient, and perfect as intelligence and money can make them, but having no official character. In the face of this showing, the plan of the philosophers who call themselves Nationalists to make conveyancing a Government monopoly would not seem to be justified by experience.

The English Labor Commission is bringing out some very edifying testimony from the representatives of the unions of workingmen. Some of them perplex the believers in improving mankind by Government inspection by testifying that most of the Government inspectors of factories are inefficient. Others discomfit the philosophers who hold that the conditions of the employment of laborers by capitalists are fundamentally wrong and unjust, by testifying that the Employers' Liability Act has had the effect of increasing the number of accidents, while the employers' insurance companies have made it hard for the men to get any damages. The advocates of compulsory temperance are pained by being told that the act prohibiting the payment of wages in public-houses is practically a dead letter. It might seem that the collapse of so many socialistic experiments at the outset would operate to discourage the believers in state regulation, but the testimony of these witnesses is overwhelming that the trouble is that the measures do not go far enough. What is wanted is that the State should maintain workshops where all the unemployed should find employment, or at least wages. Thus the trade unions would take care of their own members, their employers being unable to hire non-union men, and the State would take care of all whom the unions did not admit. We do not see why this is not a good experiment to try. It was tried some forty years ago in France, where it was unfortunately terminated by the sudden death of many thousands of the workmen in a difficulty with the military. The public workshops were found to be so unprofitable that their expenses had to be reduced; the workmen naturally struck, and, their employer being the State itself, they came in collision with the force of the State. But, as a rule, men will learn only by experience, and a sharp experience of this kind, if tried now, might save us from a more lingering and more fatal disorder.

The arrest of the murderers of M. Beltcheff, the Bulgarian Minister of Finance, is an event which may have very serious consequences. Beltcheff was shot dead on his own door-step, where he was standing in company with M. Stambuloff, the Prime Minister. As he had no enemies, while Stambuloff had and has many, the theory most commonly accepted has been that the murderers intended to kill the latter, but made a mistake in the darkness. The key to all the troubles in Bulgaria is the natural and burning ambition of that country to be an independent nation, and to expand as time and opportunity shall allow. Stambuloff represents this idea. Opposed to him is the faction which, whether in the pay of Russia or not, aims to make the country a dependency of the Czar. The greater part of educated Bulgaria sides with Stambuloff, but the other side has a considerable following among the peasantry, who only remember that when the Russians were in Bulgaria, money was plenty and the prices of grain and vegetables high. It is useless to speculate on the revelations that the trial of the assassins may yield, but it will be strange if some light is not shed on the Eastern question in general, including the Panitza affair and the kidnapping of Prince Alexander.

THE OHIO CAMPAIGN.

THAT the Democrats of Ohio would set their faces against the McKinley tariff, and against protective tariffs in general, and would renominate Gov. Campbell, were conclusions anticipated before the meeting of their State Convention. What position they would take on the silver question was a matter of doubt. The platform adopted favors free coinage, but this result was secured only after a stout battle on the part of the opponents of that policy, the majority being 99 in a convention of 700. Moreover, as we are informed, last year a free-silver plank was put in the platform without opposition in the Convention, and with but a single negative vote in the Committee on Resolutions. This year nine of the nineteen committeemen who voted were opposed to the plank. The silver plank, then, is not conclusive of the attitude of the party in Ohio next year, when the issue will become more pertinent than it is now; but it is something which cannot be overlooked. The Republicans have taken their stand on the present law, which, in our belief, will conduct the nation to the silver standard if adhered to, but by a gradual process. The Republican position is better than the Democratic in this particular, but the difference is not as wide as the poles.

The significance of the Ohio campaign will depend very much upon the way in which it is conducted. It is possible for the campaign managers to give such prominence to the tariff issue that the silver question will be lost sight of for the time being, and this seems to be the most probable course of events. The Republicans, by nominating Mr. McKinley, have taken their stand on the measure which bears his name, and the Democrats have in express terms acknowledged the challenge. "We accept," they say, "the issue tendered to us by the Republican party on the subject of the tariff, as represented by the so-called McKinley Tariff Act, confident that the verdict of the people of Ohio will be recorded against the iniquitous policy of so-called protection, championed by the Republican party in the interest of favored classes against the masses."

If the speeches made in the Convention may be taken as the keynote of the campaign, there will be, as there ought to be, an illuminating and enlivening discussion of the items of the McKinley Bill, and the Republicans will be put on the defensive at a hundred different points. So long as the controversy is waged over abstractions, very little headway will be made, but when the particular things in this measure are brought under review, it will be found to be essentially a dishonest measure. It is not necessary to affirm, and we do not affirm, that the persons who voted for it, or who now support it, are dishonest. The greater part of them are as honest as other people, but the measure itself reeks with dishonesty from beginning to end, as do nearly all the protective-tariff taxes ever passed by Congress. The reason why they are filled up with swindling provisions is perfectly plain. When Congress attempts to overhaul all the industries of the country, every man who has any special pecuniary interest in it is prompted to go to Washington to work for himself. Congressmen are for the most part lawyers, having little acquaintance with business, and even if they had much acquaintance with business in general, they could not have it with each particular trade. Probably the man having the most varied information in the last Congress was Senator Aldrich. Yet the blunders he made in dealing with particular things were in many cases startling and always pernicious. No doubt, in each such case he took the word of some interested party and made no independent investigation, for which, indeed, there was no time.

As illustrating Mr. Aldrich's ways of arriving at the truth, and as exhibiting the dishonesty of protective tariffs in general, we recall for a moment a confession made by that Senator when somebody asked him how the duty on iron ore had been fixed at seventy-five cents per ton in the tariff of 1883. Both houses had voted for fifty cents per ton, although in different bills. Not a vote had been taken authorizing any higher rate of duty. Morally, the Committee of Conference, to which the subject was finally referred, was bound to report the duty at fifty cents, neither more nor less. But when the bill was reported, this particular item had been raised to seventy-five cents, and it was necessary for Congress to adopt that rate and take the risk of its far-reaching consequences or to reject the bill altogether. When Senator Aldrich was asked why this had been done, he said that it was done at the suggestion of "Billy" Mahone of Virginia, who was not a member of the Committee, although he was a member of the Senate at that time. There is no reason, apparently, why any particular rate of duty, once agreed to by both houses, should not be increased in this underhand way at the suggestion of anybody, either in or out of Congress. There are several items in the McKinley tariff involving very large interests that were smuggled into the bill surreptitiously in the same way as Mahone's iron-ore tax was in the tariff of 1883.

The duty on tin plate was a swindle from the outset. The mainspring of that increased duty was not the hope and expectation of starting the tin-plate industry in this country, but of compelling people to use galvanized iron instead of tin for roofing purposes. The wool items of the tariff, again, are full of deceptive and swindling provisions which have been repeatedly exposed in the public prints and by manufacturers who are themselves protectionists. The fact that these deceptive and underhand provisions have brought no benefit to those whom they were intended to help, and have yielded only heart-burnings and mutual crimination between wool-growers and manufacturers, ought to be, and we doubt not will be, effectively used in the Ohio campaign. If McKinley is put to explaining *seriatim* all the bad things in his bill, he will be left with a large arrearage of overdue accounts.

THE DRAIN OF GOLD FROM THE TREASURY.

THE Treasury statement at the close of the fiscal year 1890–'91 (June 30) showed that the gold reserve held by the Government was, in round numbers, $117,600,000. This is very nearly the lowest sum held at any time since the resumption of specie payments. Once before the reserve has been ominously low—in May, 1885, when it sank to $116,000,000. During the fiscal year just elapsed it declined in two great jumps. On July 1, 1890, it was $190,000,000, on October 1 it was less than $150,000,000; then for six months there was a cessation of the drain, the amount being still nearly $150,000,000 on April 1. During the last few months, the amount has again fallen, and with extraordinary rapidity, going down to $133,000,000 at the close of May, and falling to less than $118,000,000 at the beginning of the new fiscal year. Whether the decline will proceed further remains to be seen. During the period since June 30 there has been no material change, the figures for Saturday, July 18, being $117,570,000.

The cause of this shrinkage, or rather the other side of it, is to be found in the character of the money received by the Government in payment of taxes. Until the beginning of the fiscal year (1890-91) those receipts had been for some time paid almost exclusively in gold. Until September 1 of last year the Government was still getting 90 per cent. of its customs receipts at New York in gold or gold certificates; but since then the percentage has steadily fallen, in March to 65 per cent., in May to 28 per cent., and in June was as low as 12 per cent. In other words, more and more of the public receipts have been in other sorts of money than gold; in silver certificates, in greenbacks, and in the new silver currency—the Treasury notes of 1890. At first silver certificates took the place of gold; then the new Treasury notes shouldered it out of the way; and finally the greenbacks have begun to come in. In the last full month, June, the silver certificates contributed 14 per cent. to the customs receipts at New York, the new Treasury notes contributed 29 per cent., and the old legal tenders or greenbacks no less than 44½ per cent.; leaving in gold only the beggarly 12 per cent. already stated.

Under such circumstances the gold holdings necessarily decline. The Government is constantly paying out gold, especially through the New York Clearing-house; and its maintenance of a gold reserve depends on a continual inflow of that metal in its tax receipts. If the present movement goes on a few months longer, the gold reserve of the Treasury will have disappeared, and with it the gold standard as the basis of our entire circulating medium. The significant sign of an approach to that unfortunate condition is always in the character of the money turned in to the Government at New York. The critical situation in May, 1885, to which we referred a moment ago, was brought about in precisely the same way, and it is doubtless in this way that the breakdown will eventually come.

The causes of the striking changes which

the last few months have shown are not far to seek. The leading cause, of course, is the issue of the new Treasury notes under the act with which the last Congress blessed us. Combined with it is the depression in business which set in last fall. The new notes are issued to the amount of four and a half millions a month, more or less. If the steady increase in the transactions of a growing community called for this additional amount, they would be used in the exchanges of every-day life, and would remain permanently in circulation. The saving of the gold standard under the old Silver Act of 1878 was that it did not necessitate, on the whole and in the long run, the issue of more silver than could be absorbed in this way. It is doubtful whether the doubling of the issue in 1890 would not have caused trouble in any event; but, coming as it did in a period of depression such as we have had for the last eight or ten months, the result has been inevitable. The new note issues have put forth more money than the community could conveniently use at the present scale of prices and under the present volume of business. They have not caused, as might have been predicted, that immediate revival of activity which our friend Mr. Bland and his associates have so often and so eloquently depicted as the certain effects of their panacea of "more money." They have drifted back into the hands of the banks, and through the banks into the Treasury. The movement has now reached the stage not only of an ominous decline in the gold reserve, but of an ominous wavering of general confidence in the ability of the Government to maintain the policy which it has successfully followed ever since the resumption of specie payments—that of paying gold to every public creditor who demands it. The marked inflow of greenbacks into the Government's hands is the unmistakable sign of that decline in confidence.

We will not be so rash as to predict an early breakdown. No doubt the maintenance of the gold standard depends on the continuance of gold payments by the Treasury, and the present drain is bringing the Treasury in sight of danger. But if the crops prove as plentiful as is expected, the movement may be checked. Abundant crops mean not only an increase of exports, which will check the call for gold on foreign account, but also a demand for currency in the West and South which will greatly aid the Treasury. The regular autumnal call for money "to move the crops" will carry to the West a large part of the silver certificates and Treasury notes which are now displacing gold in the tax receipts, and will cause gold to resume something like its former proportion. We may hope that the tide will soon turn, and that the gold reserve will be maintained at its present point, and even replenished to some extent. That it will be permanently maintained, however, cannot be hoped. The issue of silver money under the act of 1890 is excessive: four and a half millions a month is more than can be absorbed in the daily use even of a country advancing as rapidly in wealth and population as the United States. The silver notes sooner or later will crowd out the gold, first from the Government Treasury, and eventually, if the process is allowed to work itself out, from the country at large.

THE MISFORTUNE OF THE CENSUS.

It is probably the case that the ordinary citizen does not regard a census as a matter of very great consequence, and he concerns himself little with the criticisms that are made upon our census of 1890. This view, however, is entirely inadequate, and the matter is in so many ways of such extreme importance to the public that it deserves a careful examination. A census is not a detached event or phenomenon. Viewed by itself it is of comparatively little interest. Its significance appears when its results are compared with what has already been ascertained. It is, to be sure, a national taking account of stock. It ought to tell us how many we number, how many are born, how many have died, and how many have come from abroad. It ought to tell us what our possessions are, what our income is and what our outgo, and in general to set forth such information as every sound business man desires to have concerning his own affairs. But this knowledge only acquires its full value when it is compared with knowledge already recorded. The census, in a word, is a term in a series. If the term is dropped out or is uncertain, the whole series is affected. It becomes impossible to derive any general principles as to rates of progress, as to directions in which changes are taking place, as to the scale upon which tendencies and movements are manifesting themselves, or even as to the existence of such tendencies and movements.

Furthermore, this is not a matter of purely national consequence. The United States constitute one of the family of great civilized States, and whatever takes place upon any large scale in our development is of interest and importance to the world. In the calculations of the statist all mankind are included—*humani nil alienum.* If the hygienist is endeavoring to establish conclusions upon which regulations affecting the health of his own community are to be framed, he desires to have as broad a basis of experience to go upon as possible. If the merchant proposes to employ his capital in the grain traffic, he desires to know what is produced not only in one country, but in all countries. The intelligent regulation of our future acts depends upon an accurate knowledge of the past, and for this knowledge upon a large scale and in social affairs in general the census reports are the only repository. If the knowledge is not to be found there, it is in many cases not to be found at all. If it is imperfectly obtained or incorrectly recorded, the mischief is irreparable. If the chance is not improved, it is lost, and no subsequent labor can in most cases repair the loss.

The mischievous consequences, therefore, of a defective census are world-wide and far-reaching. They will continue to exasperate the statistician and to perplex the statesman, not for a decade, but for half-a-century. Every investigation that is undertaken will be hampered, and it will be open to every one to question or repudiate every conclusion that is reached by the use of data which are themselves questionable. With such data the economic charlatan stands on a level with the trained economist. Every attempt at a scientific induction must involve the use of figures corrected more or less by guesswork, and hence all such inductions will be open to attack by any one who is displeased with their result upon the ground that guesswork is not science.

The responsibility, therefore, of President Harrison, when it became his duty to select a Superintendent of the Census of 1890, was grave. The place called for a man of proved scientific capacity and attainments, and such men, we are proud to say, are not lacking in our country. It would have been possible to find men of that type who were identified with the Republican party, and whose character, both personally and as investigators, was so high that the most bitter partisan would not have ventured to breathe the suspicion that motives of party expediency would be allowed to affect their official work. And this should have been no light consideration, for upon the result of the census as to population depended the apportionment of Representatives in Congress. Finally, it would have been possible to appoint a native American; and if there ever was a case where the maxim of the old Know-Nothing party, "Put none but Americans on guard," would have applied, it was in filling a post where the most prolonged and extensive familiarity with our country would have been none too great a qualification for the proper understanding of the work to be done.

Instead of being influenced by considerations of this broad kind, President Harrison seems to have made this important appointment upon party grounds alone. Doubtless his own education and habit of thought had not made him acquainted with the important part played by statistics in modern times, but he at least knew the names of men of distinction in the scientific world who could have enlightened his ignorance. Rather than take advice of this kind, however, he preferred to seek counsel from his high-tariff Pennsylvania supporters, and accepted at their suggestion a man of foreign birth, distinguished chiefly for defaming his native country, of imperfect education, known only by his inferior work on the preceding census, and by the ardent protectionism which won him a place on the Tariff Commission and caused him to be put in charge of a virulent and unscrupulous campaign newspaper. A more unfit appointment in every respect could hardly have been made.

It is believed, by persons having exceptionally good opportunities for obtaining information, that this appointment was directed by the ring of Pennsylvania protectionists for the express purpose of manufacturing evidence in favor of their monopolies. The Tariff Commission of 1883 had shown that there was no reason for maintaining the protective duties at their then high rate, and this ring determined that the next census should be taken by a man who would see to

it that no evidence supporting such unpleasant conclusions should be admitted. But it is unnecessary to rest the case against this appointment upon beliefs the truth of which is not demonstrable. We have the indisputable fact that the work of Mr. Porter upon the census of 1880, the volume upon taxation, was grossly bungled. In that volume we look in vain for any reference to poll-taxes, to license taxes, to corporation taxes. With such omissions as these no estimate of the amount of taxation is possible, and the whole report upon this subject becomes worthless for the purpose of statistical comparison.

As to the present census, the blunders committed in the bulletin of municipal expenditure are now exciting the ridicule of every unmuzzled newspaper. Other blunders have been exposed as they have occurred, but of course the fundamental and irretrievable error was made in the enumeration of the people. As was pointed out by *Nature*, even if we increase the population of 1870 to 40,000,000 to help Mr. Porter out of his difficulty, thus reducing the apparent increase between 1870 and 1880 from about 9,000,000 to about 7,500,000, we should still be confronted with the fact that, "starting from a larger population, and with a larger immigration, the excess of births over deaths in 1880-'90 would have been from 25 to 30 per cent. more than in the previous decade, or at least 9,500,000, whereas it appears to be under 7,000,000." It is this blunder which will confound all who attempt to make comparisons of the rates of growth of populations, and will make the millions of dollars spent on this census worse than wasted. It may be that Mr. Porter has done his best, but President Harrison can offer no excuse for committing the most important, and, we might almost say, the most difficult and the most delicate of all scientific experiments, into the hands of an utterly unqualified political adventurer. It is one of the greatest sins of his Administration, and one that the public should not forget.

NORWEGIAN POLITICS.

COPENHAGEN, June 30, 1891.

NORWAY has its own Ministry, responsible to the home Parliament, but the Scandinavian Foreign Office, representing the Union abroad in both diplomatic and consular affairs, is Swedish. The Minister must, according to the Swedish Constitution, be a Swedish subject, appointed by the King as King of Sweden, and responsible to the Swedish Chamber. All foreign questions are referred by this official either to the Ministerial State Council, which is purely Swedish in origin, but to which, since 1837, the Norwegian Minister of State has been admitted, or to the Combined Council, a body formed in 1814, and composed of both Norwegian and Swedish members. To the latter body are referred important foreign questions, such as treaties, conventions, extraditions, salaries, etc. The Ministerial Council has charge of all matters not contained in the duties of the other. The responsibility for the whole, however, is vested in the Swedish Minister, while the official language of the department is Swedish.

The only point in which Norway's share at all approaches that of Sweden is in the expense. It is not strange, therefore, that a vast majority of the Norwegian people, without respect to party, should be highly dissatisfied with this arrangement. From every side complaints are heard. So grave, indeed, has the question finally grown that the Conservative Ministry of Stang was forced to resign in consequence of its non-success in solving the difficult problem. What makes the situation doubly galling to the independent Norwegians is the fact that their commerce exceeds that of Sweden more than twice over. In no particular, except that of population, can Sweden claim superiority over its sister kingdom. In art, literature, manufactures, and commerce Norway is her equal if not her superior. The two kingdoms are, furthermore, commercial competitors. Each has its separate custom-house, each strives to attract trade and capital to its own advantage. It would never occur to two competing business houses to employ the same foreign agent, responsible to only one of them, yet this is just what these two competing countries are doing.

The question resolves itself into two parts, the diplomatic and the consular service, of which the latter, as being the more pressing and practical, may properly be considered first. However much the national pride would be gratified by a separate diplomatic representation abroad, there are many thoughtful men in Norway who regard this measure as both unwise in its conception and unpractical in its execution. With regard to the consular representation, on the other hand, there is a far greater approach to unanimity. The consular service is a strictly business affair, having nothing to do with a nation's foreign policy. No mention is made of a common consular service in the agreement of Union, and the majority of Norwegian authorities, as well as many Swedish ones, are of the opinion that Norway never relinquished its right to such separate representation. For four hundred years before the Union, Norway, being a province of Denmark, had no organized consular service, and during the few months of its separate existence no steps were taken in this direction. It was natural, therefore, that the Swedish service should be taken provisionally, without, however, thereby acknowledging the necessity of such an arrangement in the future. Legally, this prerogative can be exercised by the Swedish Ministry only so long as the Norwegian people permit it.

That Norway's right to attend to its own consular affairs is actually recognized by the Swedish Government, is proved by the fact that all such matters concerning Norway alone have for many years been referred to a branch of the Norwegian Department of the Interior. Were the authority now exercised by the Swedish Minister transferred, by a royal proclamation, to this department, the whole problem would be solved. The change would undoubtedly necessitate some additional expense, but this difference would be more than compensated for by the improvement in the service. The increased expense has been estimated by a Norwegian authority, Sigurd Ibsen, at 150,000 kroner (say $42,000) per annum. The great majority of Scandinavian consuls are unpaid, and, to simplify the matter still further, it has been suggested that these officials be retained, or, rather, receive a second appointment as Norwegian consuls.

It should be borne in mind, furthermore, that every just and proper claim obtained by Norway is a step towards a closer union of the two countries. One of the strongest characteristics of the Norwegian people is their jealousy of Sweden, and anything that tends to lessen this feeling must eventually prove a benefit to both countries. It is not to be expected, however, that the Swedish Chamber will consent to this change without a struggle. Temporary ill feeling will be excited by this as by every other Norwegian reform movement hitherto. But a slight passing irritation is far more desirable than the continual international friction produced by the present condition.

The problem of a separate diplomatic service, to whose solution the Liberal party is pledged, is by no means so simple as that of the consular. Even Norwegian authorities are at variance with regard to its legality, while Swedish statesmen are to a man opposed to it. By the latter, as well as by the Conservatives in Norway, it is regarded as a move towards the dissolution of the Union. As a compromise, it is suggested that the Minister of Foreign Affairs be either a Norwegian or a Swede, and be under the control of two delegations of equal numbers, formed from and by the members of the Norwegian Storthing and Swedish Rigsdag respectively; these delegations to meet annually, interchangeably in Stockholm and Christiania, each by itself, communication between the two to be conducted in writing. By this measure, Norway's share in foreign affairs would be gained without the least sacrifice of the Union.

Sigurd Ibsen, in his monograph 'Unionen,' advances in support of the Liberal plan of a separate Foreign Ministry the case of the various German kingdoms with their independent diplomatic representation. The German Empire, with its confederation of States under one head, each State having at the same time its own ruler, does not present an analogous case to the Scandinavian Union. Had Norway and Sweden each a separate monarch, with a third ruler as head of the Union, or, rather, confederation, the illustration would be a proper one. The Union Ministry, which is practically the same as that of Austria-Hungary, is objected to by Ibsen on the ground that such an arrangement is possible only when both countries stand on the same footing. But as Sweden, in his opinion, regards Norway as an inferior Power, actually, if not theoretically, under its domination, the proposition of the Conservative party would never be accepted. Objections have been raised in the past by the Swedish Chamber to Norwegian interference in foreign affairs, as being opposed to the spirit of the Swedish Constitution, but if a choice must be made between a separate and a Union Ministry, very few Swedes will hesitate to accept the latter.

We have seen that the organization of a separate consular service for Norway is desirable as serving to promote a better feeling between the two countries. The creation of a separate Foreign Ministry would, in the opinion of many, be quite as undesirable for the opposite reason. Disregarding the danger that might result to the Union, it cannot for an instant be doubted that such a change would excite in Sweden a feeling of distrust and indignation that could not but prove unfortunate for the whole peninsula. The question of the additional expense, which is estimated at 100,000 kroner (say $28,000) per annum, but which would probably be somewhat greater, is of minor importance, and concerns only the Norwegian Parliament. The complications, on the other hand, arising from the presence of two ambassadors, representing one Power, but responsible to two separate parliaments, are of moment to all foreign nations. Diplomatic negotiations have never been characterized by celerity, but even the most fanatical worshipper of red tape

must pause before the possibilities of delay presented by such an organization. Mr. Ibsen discreetly avoids this difficulty, confining himself to the advantages offered by the change. It is perfectly true, as he asserts, that the vast majority of diplomatic and consular questions do not concern both kingdoms, and that these can be disposed of by one of the ministers without reference; but what of the more important questions that concern the two countries in common? In Germany such matters are referred to the Imperial Ministry. What will be done by the double Scandinavian Ministry? Either it must be regarded as a sort of Siamese twins, having no power to act apart, or the one of its members must act as spokesman at the expense of the other. The first plan, though possibly satisfactory to the home governments, would hardly be approved by the foreign Power or Powers interested; the latter, if accepted abroad, would lead to infinite confusion and distrust at home.

The results of the fall elections will indicate the Norwegian policy for the ensuing winter. Without a two-thirds majority in the Storthing, Steen is powerless to act. Of a compromise between the two parties there is at present not the slightest probability, and of a voluntary concession on the part of Sweden there seems as little likelihood. Eventually the Norwegian people will, without doubt, declare emphatically in favor of one plan or the other.

DANIEL KILHAM DODGE.

UTRECHT IN RED, WHITE, AND BLUE.

UTRECHT, June 30, 1891.

OF the four universities of Holland, that of Utrecht is not the oldest, but in the opinion of the people of this city it is the most important. The pride they take in their "Academia" shows itself not only in the million or so of square yards of bunting which to-day garnishes all dwellings, but in solid financial support. The 500 students who form the undergraduate corps of to-day's merry-makers have been reinforced by hundreds of old alumni. These, with happy faces and plenty of beer and reminiscences, lead in the joyful celebration of the 255th anniversary of the foundation of the University, and of the 55th "lustrum," or costume-festival, which in Utrecht is as much an institution as the canals or cathedral tower.

To celebrate properly the feast, the tricolor flag—containing the same colors as those in the American national emblem and in their order—has been multiplied into millions. Not only are miles of streets hung with it in colossal size, but streamers, festoons, floral devices, the arrangements of products and fruits in the shop windows repeat it. The plumbers have been busy for weeks, and perforated gas-pipe, making figures of manifold form, awaits only the advent of darkness, at nine o'clock this evening, to blossom into fire. The principal streets have been turned into arcades of greenery, along which hang lines of glass cups the size of an ordinary tumbler. These, half filled with wax and containing a taper-wick, will furnish the major part of the illumination. The favorite devices, apart from the large special figures furnished by the popular retail stores on their fronts, are the University shield, the figures 1636-1891, the motto *Vivat Academia*, and, in a thousand varied forms, the shining sun of Utrecht. The outraying of this luminary lends itself finely to mechanical ingenuity and artistic effect. Especially prominent is the University motto, *Sol justitiae illustra nos.*

With three other fellow-Americans we visited in the morning the unpretending edifice of the University, which is connected with the Dom Kerk, or cathedral, by beautiful cloisters. These latter are now in process of restoration, and the exquisite sculptures tell in stone the story of Christianity in the Netherlands. The conquest of Frisian heathenism by the monks of Ireland and Rome is a touching one, and the sculptor has here found a congenial field for his trained powers. In the University itself, apart from the oratory or chapel, the chief interest to the tourist, especially if he be an American, lies in the Senate chamber. Like that of Leyden, the walls of this room are hung from wainscot to ceiling with portraits of illustrious men whose name and fame adorn this seat of learning. Among others that compelled our attention was one of Voetius, the great theologian, who sat to Rembrandt for his striking picture. Another, in fresher tints, was of the late Prof. Donders (whose influence in Holland rivals, if indeed it does not excel, that of Kuenen), and was painted by his wife. More than the portraits, inspiring though they are, does the event of January 29, 1579, rouse the historic memory and touch the imagination. Until 1593 Utrecht was the capital of the seven united provinces that dared the might of Spain. It was not until that year that the States-General, or national Congress, adjourned its sittings to The Hague. Here, in this room, in 1579, the delegates, under the presidency of Count John of Nassau, brother of William the Silent, signed the famous Union of Utrecht. Despite the fact that Philip II. was in it recognized as their sovereign, this document was really the written constitution of the Netherlands republic. It was only two years later that the States declared themselves a free and independent republic, to be finally recognized as such by Spain. It must have seemed like a David defying a Goliath for a little people of less than three millions of souls, with a country whose area scarcely equals half of South Carolina, thus to brave the might of the strongest nation in Europe. Yet these traders and sailors, whose home was a half-drained morass, dared the Power that had the finest infantry in Europe and the silver mines of Mexico and Peru at its back. Knowing that in union there was strength —"Concordia parvae crescunt" (By concord little things become great) was their way of putting it—they made in this room what was for two centuries referred to as the written Constitution and the supreme law of the land. Motley does, indeed, point out its defects, mainly with the idea of showing how inferior to the Constitution of the United States of America this instrument was, and rightly so. Nevertheless, this written compact of confederated States had, both as text and example, a mighty influence on all subsequent federal governments and written constitutions. Whether on the men who, after receiving a political education of nearly twelve years in the Netherlands, wrote in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, or on those whose writings before, during, and after 1787 show thorough acquaintance with Dutch political history, the example of the little patrician republic was powerful. Franklin explicitly declared that Holland was "our great example."

Other suggestions of influence upon American men and institutions were not lacking, as we stood in this historic room. One has but to compare the motto of the Utrecht University with that of Rutgers College in New Jersey to recognize this. "Sol justitiae illustra nos," and "Sol justitiae et occidentem illustra," are too much alike, with appropriate difference, not to suggest the borrowing of one from the other. The motto of the Utrecht school, adopted a generation after its founding, "Sun of justice, shine on us," is altered in America to "Sun of justice, illuminate also the West." Whence and how came the Rutgers motto? The mystery is not great to any alumnus of the American college who knows also the history of the people of the Reformed (Dutch) Church in America, who founded the College first called Queen's College at New Brunswick. The Rev. John H. Livingston, D.D., a scion of the great New York family of that illustrious name, was the peacemaker who healed the dissensions and united all parties in the Reformed Church. With Romeyn and Westerloo, he gave the Reformed Church in America its excellent written constitution, which is but slightly altered to this day, and he studied at Utrecht. When the centennial anniversary of the Theological Seminary at New Brunswick—which claims to be the oldest in America—was celebrated some years ago, Utrecht sent letters of greeting to her younger sister school in America, calling attention to the fact, and with pride, too, that Livingston had studied under predecessors of Donders and Doedes (who is still living) in Utrecht. Dr. Livingston had but to suggest a slight modification of the Utrecht motto, and Rutgers College, chartered and organized before 1770, had her appropriate motto, and her sons have yet an inspiring ancestral prayer.

The festivities of the *lustrum feesten* last a whole week, but this Tuesday, the last day in June, is the day of days. The two railways began early to pour their crowds into the city. Even the approaching visit of the German Emperor seems not to have distracted attention from Utrecht. Besides social reunions of all sorts, and musical attractions and manifold spectacles at the Tivoli gardens during the week, the costume-parade and illumination reveal the special characteristics of a Dutch celebration. The battle of St. Quentin (a town on the road from Mons to Paris) may be said to have marked the beginning of the Dutch war of independence, and in it both Spanish and French as well as Netherlanders participated. To represent the various illustrious men, as well as the costume of their time, was the ambition of the Utrecht students and the purpose of the brilliant display. From two until seven P. M., and again in the evening from eight until ten, the dazzling masquerade delighted a half-million spectators. The gorgeous colors, the shining silk, rich velvet, slashed sleeves, and jaunty plumed caps forcibly reminded one of the days when men, as well as women, wore rich and picturesque garments—in a word, when males arrayed themselves as much for effect upon the eye as females do in our generation. To behold the living effigies of William the Silent, Counts Egmont and Horn, Spanish colonels and English noblemen, riding gayly in splendid array and on superb horses, did indeed quicken the imagination. Nevertheless, the interruption of chronological order by so many eye-glasses was painful. A *pince-nez* is an anachronism, yet many of these sixteenth-century knights carried one astride the nose. Even among the men-at-arms who went afoot, these modern inventions were numerous. As in the days of old, the eyes of fair virgins rained influence, and approving dowagers wafted smiles and flowers from the upper windows of the houses. At night the city blossomed with fire. Although we were nearly crushed in the crowds, we found the natives good-natured and happy, with no disputes or quarrelling.

Despite the efforts of those who strenuously wish to consolidate the four universities of Holland into one—a purpose in which it is said the ultra-Calvinists and Roman Catholics are politically united—Utrecht may possibly celebrate another 255th anniversary. About the first of October this year the Queen will attend the laying of the corner-stone of the new University buildings. These are to be erected between the old edifice and the eastern nave, that part of the great church left after the destructive hurricane of 1674, and the lofty tower which, standing alone, is a landmark to four provinces. The money for the elegant new edifice has been raised by private subscription in Utrecht.

The recent elections, which show a pronounced Liberal victory, will compel the resignation of the Ministry, but until the visit of the German Kaiser is an event of the past, nothing will be done. For the present the political coalition of the ultra-Protestants and Roman Catholics against the Liberals is dissolved, and the usual recrimination indulged in by uncongenial allies when defeated is the order of the day. The large cities have in every case elected Liberals, the country districts supplying the anti-revolutionary and Ultramontane members. The general meaning is that Holland is entering more fully into the spirit and forms of that modern life which her heroic struggle in the eighty years' war did so much to create. W. E. G.

MARBOT IN THE PENINSULAR WAR.

PARIS, July 8, 1891.

THE publication of the Memoirs of Gen. Marbot is quite an event; the first volume has been read with avidity, and it may be said that these Memoirs will remain one of the most important documents concerning the First Empire. They have a savor, a sincerity, an originality, which is truly delightful. Who said that "the pen is mightier than the sword"? As a soldier, Marbot certainly played his part well, but his fame was cast into the shade by that of the great marshals of Napoleon whom he attended on so many battle-fields; as a writer, as an historian, he is now above par; none of the companions of the great Emperor has left us anything that can compare with his Memoirs.

The second volume, which has just appeared, is as interesting as the first. It begins with the account of Junot's expedition to Lisbon and of the intrigues of Napoleon, who profited by the division of the royal family of Spain, with a view to finally conquering the peninsula. The expedition against Portugal was a blow to England. Marbot considers that Napoleon was wrong in giving Junot the command of the army which invaded Portugal:

"The army saw in Junot a very brave soldier rather than a true captain. The first time I saw him I was struck and disquieted by the wildness of his eyes; his end justified my apprehensions. The origin of his fortune is known: a simple *fourrier* in the battalion of the Côte d'Or, he gained by a bon-mot the affection of the captain of artillery, Bonaparte, during the siege of Toulon. He followed Bonaparte to Egypt, became commander in Paris and ambassador to Lisbon. His gayety, his frankness, his reputation for courage, his prodigality, won him the friendship of the great and the sympathy of the masses. His success in Portugal, probably, determined the Emperor to choose him for the command of the army of occupation."

Junot was very imprudent. His only idea was to push his army forward, and nothing was ready to receive it. The French troops suffered much from hunger, but Napoleon's object was gained. Junot's vanguard threw Lisbon into great confusion. The regent, the Queen (who was out of her mind), the royal family, and a number of great families embarked on a fleet, and on the 28th of November, 1807, left for Brazil.

Marbot describes very well the state of Spain during these events—the insolent domination of Godoy, the Prince of Peace, the Queen's favorite; the division between King Charles IV., who thought of nothing but hunting, and his son Ferdinand, Prince of Asturias, who had conceived a very natural hatred of Godoy. The Spaniards, as a nation, sided with the son, who was persecuted by the favorite. Napoleon was concentrating a great army in order to profit by these divisions. In January, 1808, Marbot was appointed aide-de-camp to Murat and joined him at Bayonne. Murat entered Spain on March 10, 1808. The Spaniards, thinking that Napoleon wished to protect the Prince of Asturias, made no opposition. The King was preparing to fly with the Queen and Godoy; but, when the populace saw the furniture and the Treasury silver packed, a revolution broke out at Aranjuez. The Prince of Asturias was made King, after the forced abdication of Charles, and Godoy was thrown into prison. Murat entered Madrid on March 23. Hearing that Godoy was going to be brought to the capital, and fearing that he would be murdered by the mob, Murat sent Marbot on the road to Aranjuez to protect him. "I met Godoy two leagues from Madrid. Though this unfortunate man was horribly wounded and covered with blood, the body-guards who escorted him had put him in irons, and tied him in a miserable open van, where he was exposed to the burning rays of the sun and to thousands of flies drawn by the blood of his wounds, half covered only by rags. . . . This spectacle made me indignant, and I saw with pleasure that it produced the same effect on the French squadron which accompanied me." Marbot stopped the march of the little Spanish troop, and thus probably saved the life of Godoy.

Ferdinand VII. made his entry into Madrid on March 24. The people were delirious with joy. The French looked on this spectacle, but Murat did not even call upon the new King, being still ignorant what were the intentions of Napoleon—whether he would recognize Ferdinand or not. Ferdinand became uneasy, and asked the Ambassador, M. de Beauharnais, for advice. "Beauharnais, whose honesty was incapable of conceiving the thought that Napoleon could interfere with the liberty of a Prince who applied to him as an arbiter, advised him to approach the Emperor, who was expected at Bayonne. Ferdinand hesitated, but, hearing that his father and mother were going to Bayonne to plead their own cause, and receiving through Savary, who arrived suddenly at Madrid, letters from Napoleon himself, he decided to go." Napoleon, meanwhile, was advancing slowly on the road to Bayonne "in order to give time for events to prepare themselves." There is something in this last sentence which makes one think of Tacitus.

What followed is well known. Ferdinand left Bayonne, and found himself a prisoner in France. The insurrection of Madrid was the answer of the Spanish people to Napoleon. Marbot ran great danger in it; Murat quelled it with the greatest severity, but he himself felt that he could not, as he had wished, become King of Spain. "As a soldier," says Marbot, "I had fought against those who attacked the French Army; but I could not help recognizing inwardly that our cause was bad, and that the Spaniards were right in trying to expel foreigners who, having come among them as friends, now tried to dethrone their sovereign and to seize their kingdom by force. This war seemed to me impious."

Murat sent Marbot to Napoleon to announce to him the insurrection of Madrid. He accomplished his perilous mission with great celerity, and found Napoleon with the Queen and King of Spain. Napoleon put him many questions; Marbot did not hesitate to paint in the strongest colors the wrath of the Spaniards, the ferocious courage of the population, even of the women. Napoleon interrupted him: "Pooh! pooh! they will calm themselves and bless me when they see their country emerge from the opprobrium and disorder into which it has been thrown by the weakest and most corrupt administration that ever existed." The next day Ferdinand resigned his crown into the hands of his father, and his father abandoned to Napoleon all his rights to the Spanish crown in exchange for the château and forest of Compiègne and an income of seven and a half millions. Ferdinand received the château of Navarre in Normandy and an income of a million. Napoleon gave the crown of Spain to his brother Joseph. Marbot does not hesitate to condemn Napoleon severely: "The conduct of Napoleon in this scandalous affair was unworthy of a great man like him. To offer his mediation between the father and the son so as to draw them into a trap and then have them despoil each other, was an atrocity, an odious act, which history has condemned and Providence punished, as it was the Spanish war which prepared and brought about the fall of Napoleon."

The choice of Joseph was a mistake: a timid, lazy man, fond of art, a voluptuary. Murat would have done better. He had been very popular at first, but, after the bloody repression of the insurrection of Madrid, Napoleon thought him impossible, and sent him to Naples to take the place of Joseph. As Béranger said:

> "Un conquérant, dans sa fortune altière,
> Se fit un jeu des sceptres et des lois,
> Et de ses pieds l'on peut voir la poussière
> Empreinte encore sur le bandeau des rois."

Spain rose like one man against the French. After the capitulation of Baylen, where Gen. Dupont surrendered with a whole corps-d'armée, Napoleon diverted immense forces against the peninsula. Augereau asked Marshal Lannes, who was given a command in Spain, to take Marbot on his staff; before his departure Marbot was decorated with the Legion of Honor by the hand of Napoleon. "It was the 29th of October, 1808. It was one of the best days of my life, for then the Legion of Honor had not yet been bestowed with prodigality. . . . No promotion ever gave me such joy. What brought my satisfaction to its climax was the fact that Duroc sent for my cocked hat, in which a cannon ball had made a hole at the battle of Eylau. Napoleon wished to see it." (This hat is still preserved by Marbot's family.)

The Emperor himself took command, and fought the battle of Burgos on the 9th of November, 1808. Lannes gained a great victory at Tudela, and charged Marbot with the difficult mission of carrying the news to the Emperor. "The service of the aides-de-camp of the marshals was terrible in Spain. . . . I don't think I exaggerate in saying that two hundred officers of the general staff were killed or wounded during the Peninsular war, from 1808 to 1814." Marbot left Tudela on the 24th of November; he tried to cross the mountains, but he was attacked in a village, escaped miraculously, and had to fall back on Lannes s

vanguard. The account of his adventures in this expedition must be read in the book itself, as all the details are essential. It is certain that Marbot must have had a charmed life; it is hardly credible that he could have come out alive from the mountains of Soria.

The Spanish campaign of Napoleon was marked by terrible trials. Marbot saw the storming of Somosierra by the Polish cavalry ("the Poles," he says, "have but one quality, but they possess it in a supreme degree: they are very brave"); the crossing of the Guadarrama in the snow. At Benavente, a regiment of the Imperial Guard was defeated by Gen. Moore, and the Colonel, Lefèvre-Desnouettes, was made prisoner and sent to England as a trophy. Napoleon was recalled to France, and returned with his guard, leaving the army on its way to Saragossa under Lannes. The heroic defence of this town is well known. Marbot was wounded during the siege, but fortunately the surgeon was able to find and to extract an extraordinary ball, very large, hammered to the shape of a guinea, with a cross engraved on each side, and cuttings on the edge which gave it the shape of a wheel. Marbot was rapidly cured; his constitution seems to have been of iron.

Palafox has all the credit of the defence of Saragossa, but Marbot says that he contributed little to it, having been seriously ill from the first days of the siege. He was obliged to give the command to Gen. Saint-Marc, a Belgian in the service of Spain, but as Saint-Marc was a foreigner, Spanish pride invested Palafox with all the glory of the defence. Forty thousand men surrendered at Saragossa; they were taken to France as prisoners of war, but two-thirds made their escape during the march to the Pyrenees, and took arms again. Palafox received exceptional treatment in the capitulation; as he had taken the oath to King Joseph, Napoleon had him treated as a prisoner of state. Albuquerque, one of his friends, had to announce his fate to him. Palafox gave him his sword, saying: "If your ancestors, the illustrious Albuquerques, could come back to life, they would all prefer the place of the prisoner who delivers this sword, to that of the renegade who comes to take it in the name of the enemies of Spain, his country." Fine words, which have a savor of Plutarch's heroes.

Correspondence.

CREED MORALS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With your usual frankness and courtesy, you will allow space, doubtless, for a criticism of your attitude regarding the present ecclesiastical discussions. As a constant reader of the *Nation*, I may say that what I value most in it is its fearless ethical teaching. But in this instance its moral analysis seems to me defective. This defect is betrayed in the very title of its article in the issue of July 9—"A *Plain* Moral Question." The moral question cannot be called plain, except upon the basis of two assumptions—one, the fixity or definiteness of a church's creed; the other, the definiteness of the individual clergyman's belief. Both of these must be denied in the cases under discussion. They are both impossible, except as theoretical data. It is not a matter of choice whether or no a man shall believe and repeat a creed exactly in the sense of its framers. It is an impossibility that he should do so from the changed conditions of life and thought. The same variability must exist between localities, or congregations, or individuals. The total apprehension of the Church changes from generation to generation, and the individual apprehension of the man from year to year, if both church and man are alive.

This is not only desirable, but is the true intention in both church and creed. A creed (any creed) in its origin is, *as a test*, an expression of loyalty to Christ; *as a doctrinal statement*, a challenge and incentive to a true understanding of him. The creed is diverted from its intention, and becomes a dead creed, when its value as a test is held to be that it is a final expression of the truth. In this way it happens that those who dissent from this last position are not really disbelievers, but the true believers in a live creed and in a living church.

In the position taken by the *Nation*, the alternative is either to cease thinking, and accept a church's statement, or else, if thinking is continued, to found a sect, even if it be a sect of one. But the day of this alternative is passed. The liberty of conscience is established, and a man may think as he likes and found his sect if he will. The problem is rather, *not* to found it. The struggle to-day is not for the individual's, but for the church's, liberty. It is easy to give over thinking and to accede to the formula of a sect, and it is likewise easy to throw over the creed of the sect and to set up the sect of one. The problem to excite moral enthusiasm is to remain true not to the sect, but to the church within the sect, and to struggle for the realization of the church idea.

The elements neglected, then, in the *Nation's* analysis of the moral conditions under consideration are, negatively, the impossibility of an authoritative definition of creed allegiance, and, positively, the moral courage and enthusiasm awakened by the desire for the Church's enfranchisement.

John W. Suter.

Andover, Maine, July 14, 1891.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your recent editorial, "A Plain Moral Question," which concerns the indefensibility of a clergyman's persisting in membership of a sect the dogmas of which he questions, your argument would be sounder if churches would abandon the assumption which alone gives them authority over the conscience. If a church be a mere ethical or intellectual club, the bond of which is a contract to stick to a formula, then when a member is disloyal to that covenant, he has broken the bond and should "step down and out." This is the view that the secular courts, and the ecclesiastical ones too, would take; only, when the ecclesiastical court so adjudicates it stultifies itself. In canon law a condemnation for heresy does not put a man out of the Church, and theoretically it ought not. It only disciplines him, and regards him as an errant member, until it excommunicates him "with bell, book, and candle"; and excommunication is vastly more than excision from a society, for it pronounces on a man's relations to God, and theoretically consigns him to hell. Churchmen once acted consistently on this principle, and punished heretical members as its own recalcitrant children. It is folly to say that this was mediævalism, for every denomination which claims the character of a church implicitly sets up the same assumptions. Thus far, wherever any denomination had the power, it has acted upon them, and probably would again if it could enforce its jurisdiction.

I take these assumptions to be necessary to and inherent in the idea of a church. Such a body claims to be of divine origin and entitled to jurisdiction spiritually over its members. It does not appeal for adherents primarily on the ground of acceptance of a creed, but because it is the Kingdom of God, equipped with authority to administer its affairs in God's name and behalf, and it is the duty of men to join it under divine command—a duty which one neglects to the eternal peril of one's soul. Every denomination insists that it is more than an ethical association, even the custodian of grace and sacraments generally necessary to salvation. Each claims an organic succession of some kind from the days of the Apostles. If it would not accept a man who refused approval of its particular confession, much less would it receive a man who declared that he would teach that creed when he ceased to believe it, or who clouded with doubt his intellectual righteousness.

Now, what is the relation of such a body to a creed? Clearly, the body existed before the creed, and its confessions of faith are every one incidents of its growth, symbols of its development. There was a time, before each confession took shape, when the very promoters of the coming formula were disloyal to the preëxistent covenant, and were seeking to change the bond of union. There was no "dead-hand" then in control. A right to make development is involved in the doctrine held by every Christian sect that it has the power to alter its formulas. I am at a loss to see where the immorality lies in the conduct of a clergyman who exercises his prescriptive right to modify his church confessions, as every generation of conservatives and radicals have been doing for 1,800 years, and who throws upon his church the burden of trying and expelling him. That burden is but a small thing compared with the immense good that results to the Church from just such efforts to define or purify itself. Despite all their turmoil and exasperation, the benefits are permanent and great to the general body. Thus, the Presbyterian denomination is more tolerant and scholarly to-day for driving out Albert Barnes and Dr. Beman and retrieving that false step a generation later. That man always does the best service who is truest to his growing convictions, who fights for them in the associations where he formed them, and who bears manfully his defeat.

From the point of ecclesiastical pretension I conceive a member's relation to his church to be like that of a citizen to the State. Indeed, it is only of very recent years that even Protestant denominations have ceased to strive for secular jurisdiction. The Commonwealth of England was preëminently an effort to transfer State power from one sect to another. The analogy between the Church in its sphere and the State in its not only is complete, but it runs through all church polity and all legislation from the times when bishops usurped the functions of Rome's imperial magistrates. Now, who would contend that a citizen ought to emigrate from the State as soon as "he announces his contempt for the whole system" of its laws and government? He does this at his peril. Neither in a secular nor in an ecclesiastical court will his plea of mental dissonance avail, as it did not Herr Most; and in either tribunal the man whose defence is overruled must take the penalty. But his right to contend for his opinions, to work for revolution, and to put upon the State the burden of restraining him, cannot be questioned either in morals or in its beneficent results upon liberty and progress.

If this contention, which is, be it remembered, from the basis of church pretensions, cannot be maintained, does it not follow that the church idea has vanished? Then there is no divine society: denominations are only voluntary clubs. Practically this is what in the outside public judgment they are now, and the heresy-hunting epidemic tends to make them such more and more in their own estimation. I do not object to the process, but only wish, with what force is at my command, to call attention to the stultification of the church idea involved in the claim that a man ought to leave his sect when he dissents from its standards. D. O. KELLOGG.

VINELAND, N. J., July 11, 1891.

RELIGIOUS FREEDOM IN AUSTRIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Supreme Court of Austria rendered a decision yesterday of more than local interest. The question at issue was that of the right of one who had taken the vows of celibacy in the Catholic Church to marry after he had gone over to the Protestants. Not only the Supreme Court, but both the lower courts which tried the case, decided against such a right.

The main points of the case are these: In 1870 one Knaus, a priest, who had thirteen years before joined a celibate order, renounced the Catholic faith and joined the Protestant church. He gave legal notice of the fact to the officials of the State. In 1879 he married a school-teacher, with whom he lived unmolested for eleven years. Then some one brought suit for the annulling of the marriage on the ground of incapability. The marriage law not only declares a marriage void when the contracting parties fail to notify the officiating minister of any fact which would render the parties incapable of marriage, but makes the withholding of such knowledge a crime.

In annulling the marriage, the District Court said the civil law recognized the Catholic Church, with its right to make disciplinary regulations for its subjects, and that there could be no doubt that "it lay in the interest of public order and morals" to support the legal discipline of the Church; that this Church, having the right to make rules binding on those who voluntarily placed themselves under its care, did not recognize the right of arbitrarily forsaking it, or of leaving its priesthood at will, or of renouncing, at pleasure, solemn vows.

The defendant pleaded that he held back nothing at the marriage which could have influenced the officiating clergyman, because no Protestant recognized these vows as binding on one who had left the Catholic Church; that if the civil law recognized the right of the Catholic Church to make such far-reaching disciplinary rules, that law was unconstitutional, for the Constitution (Article 14) expressly says: "Full freedom of faith and conscience is guaranteed to every subject, and the enjoyment of civil and political rights is declared to be independent of religious confession." Therefore, Knaus claimed that, having legally left the Catholic Church, he had no claims on it, and, therefore, could have no duties towards it. The Supreme Court said that it could not go into questions of denominational creeds and hairsplitting, but must leave that for the Legislature; that the marriage law forbade certain classes of persons to marry, and that the defendant, by voluntarily entering one of these classes, subjected himself to all the disabilities of the members of that class. Furthermore, the statutes of these orders being recognized as lawful, the defendant could sever his connection with the order only in accordance with the statutes of the order itself. Therefore, the constitutional argument was declared invalid.

Such is the interpretation the highest court gives to the meaning of freedom of faith and worship in Austria. Many similar suits are expected on the strength of this decision. The Catholic Church has thus been given a power that its most ardent disciple could scarcely have hoped for. Now the Church that holds the ignorant by threats of eternal punishment may hope to control its educated priesthood by the power of the civil courts.

JOHN H. GRAY.

VIENNA, July 3, 1891.

MATERIAL PROSPERITY IN IRELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the lively concern most of us in this country have in Ireland, it may be of interest to your readers to know that Dr. Grimshaw, Registrar-General for Ireland, three weeks ago read a paper on "Irish Progress" at a meeting of the Statistical and Social Inquiry of Ireland, in which he stated that emigration was gradually decreasing, from 109,000 in 1883 to 61,000 in 1890. He pointed out that the ratable valuation of the country has been increased by the growth of towns of over 10,000 inhabitants. The great feature in Irish agriculture, Dr. Grimshaw remarked, is the steady progress in the conversion of tillage farming into stock farming, while there has been a corresponding increase of agricultural wealth. Horses have increased by 37,000, and sheep by 1,067,000, or 32 8 per cent. In respect to manufactures, power-looms for linen manufacture have increased by 22.1 per cent., while the railway receipts show an increase of 17.7 per cent. With regard to bank deposits, during the first five years of the decade the annual average of joint-stock bank deposits and cash balances was £30,849,000, and during the last five years £31,443,000.

Considering the agrarian agitation and political situation of the last few years, Dr. Grimshaw is of the opinion that Ireland has progressed favorably in material prosperity during the past decade. C. A. S.

NEWPORT, R. I.

PROFESSOR HARRINGTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial in the *Nation* of July 9, apropos of Professor Nipher, might be construed as a reflection, unintentional of course, upon the appointee, Mark W. Harrington, Professor of Astronomy in the University of Michigan, who is referred to simply as "Mr." I had the privilege of Professor Harrington's instruction at the University nearly twenty years ago. At that time he was already a devotee of science, and had done important services for the Government in that capacity. Whatever Professor Nipher's qualifications or separation from politics, I am sure Professor Harrington can suffer nothing personally by comparison.—Very truly yours,

CHARLES E. LOWREY.

BOULDER, COL., July 13, 1891.

[We did not intend any such reflection, having had the literary collaboration of Professor Harrington in times past—a fact which we presume we can state without injuring his standing with the present Administration.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE 'American Catalogue' for 1884-'90 is now complete so far as the author-and-title alphabet is concerned, having been issued in two parts from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*. The work gives evidence of the steady increase of the output of books. The nearly 600 pages now available for reference will be supplemented in the fall by a subject alphabet for which 400 pages will be required. There are also to be several appendices, and, in fact, one—a list of United States Government publications for the above-named period—is already off the press. It has been compiled by Mr. J. H. Hickcox, under the editorial direction of Mr. R. R. Bowker, who vouches for it as being "absolutely complete and correct, as far as [in]fallibility is possible in this fallible world," thanks to the coöperation of Government officers in the several departments, with one narrow-minded exception. Other appendices promised are State Publications, "a new and important feature"; Publications of Literary and Scientific Societies; and Books Published in Series. Thus this invaluable record is made still more a work to be proud of.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready several works of fiction—'Dally,' by Maria Louise Pool; 'The Uncle of an Angel, and Other Stories,' by Thomas A. Janvier; 'A Man's Conscience,' by Avery Macalpine; and 'Tales of Two Countries,' from the Swedish of Alexander Kielland, by William Archer.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'Maid Marian, and Other Stories,' by Miss Molly Elliot Seawell, and 'Adopting an Abandoned Farm,' by Miss Kate Sanborn.

Bacon's 'Advancement of Learning,' edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston, as is also 'Duty: A Book for Schools,' by Prof. Julius H. Seelye.

John W. Lovell Co. will shortly issue the first volume of a complete translation of Heine's works from the pen of Charles G. Leland; and 'The Little Manx Nation,' an historical and sociological account of the Isle of Man, by Mr. Hall Caine.

We are requested to state that Mr. James R. Gilmore ("Edmund Kirke") has withdrawn from the editorial management of the 'National Encyclopædia of American Biography' now in preparation by James T. White & Co.

The 'Cyclopædia of the Manufactures and Products of the United States' (New York: The Seeger & Guernsey Company) is about to be issued in a new and enlarged form. The work has undergone thorough revision, and, though classified, will have a general index, covering nearly 50,000 articles.

Mrs. Caroline E. Upham has condensed into a little volume, called 'Salem Witchcraft in Outline' (Salem Press and Publishing Co.), the story which has been told at length by her late father in-law in his standard volumes. Without marked qualifications for this task, she has nevertheless made a narrative that will impress the reader who comes to it ignorant of the subject. Views and autographic facsimiles have been borrowed from the larger work.

Not long since, Pastor Ziegler of Liegnitz in Silesia published a work entitled 'The Historic Christ.' The volume contains no new investigations, but simply gives a clear and consecu-

tive statement of the results at which scholarly research and sober criticism have arrived on this subject, and endeavors to turn them into the channel of religious instruction. The conscientious clergyman was of the opinion that the expounder of divine truth should keep his mind open to the light and never lose the courage of his convictions; and that the people whom he was appointed to instruct in religious things ought to have the benefit of any increase of knowledge which he might have acquired. These views, however, were not shared by many of his brethren, who instigated the provincial consistory to proceed against him for heresy with the intention of depriving him of his office. Fortunately, the Oberkirchenrath, or supreme ecclesiastical council, of Prussia interposed and ordered the proceedings to be stopped, and thus saved one of the most active, honest, and intelligent of Prussian pastors from infinite annoyance, if not from actual suspension from his benefice.

'Richard Wagner,' by Dr. Franz Muncker, Professor of Literature in the University of Munich, is the latest addition to the "Bayerische Bibliothek" (Bamberg: Buchner), and forms the twenty-sixth volume of this series of biographies of Bavarian worthies. Prof. Muncker is the son of the burgomaster of Bayreuth and an enthusiastic Wagnerite. To an historical sketch and careful critical analysis of Wagner's works he adds an interesting account of the origin and development and artistic purpose of the Bayreuth "Bühnenfestspiele," with a plan of the theatre and the stage arrangements, and colored illustrations of the decorations used in representations of the "Nibelungenring" and "Parsifal." There are also several portraits of the composer, taken at different periods of his life, and giving a sort of chronological survey of his facial and physical transformations, together with views of the various houses in which he dwelt. Pilgrims to the Mecca of Wagnerism during the present summer will find this book an inspiring guide and valuable aid to their devotions, and the very moderate price (one mark and sixty pfennigs, or forty cents) puts it within the reach of every one, and ought to insure it a large sale. The volume has no index and not even a table of contents.

Travellers in Egypt will find 'Sketches from a Nile Steamer,' by H. M. and N. Tirard (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.), a valuable handbook. The principal points of interest as far south as Abu-Simbel are described simply but intelligently, and with not too much enthusiasm. The temples and tombs, and the best methods of seeing them, of course take up the most of the book, but there are not wanting charming pictures of the daily life of the modern Egyptian, which cannot fail to interest the general reader. The closing chapter is upon Cairo, in which there is an unusually good, though brief, account of the scholars at the great mosque El-Azhar. There is an excellent index and several plans and illustrations from original drawings.

'The Arab and African,' by S. Tristram Pruen (London: Seeley & Co.), is an admirable sketch of Eastern Equatorial Africa and its inhabitants. A general description of the country is followed by a graphic picture of the daily life and employments of the negro, and a most interesting account of the incidents which accompany the day's march of a caravan. The author, who writes from an experience of three years' work among them as a medical missionary, gives an unusually favorable character to both African and Arab. The former is frequently very industrious, and can, if taken young, be trained to habits of industry, and is "quite decent in his outward behavior." The traveller, he says, will "never see an improper gesture, if careful of propriety himself." The Arab he commends for his honesty, courtesy, and sincerity in matters relating to his faith, while he defends him from some of the charges made ignorantly against him. The extent of the slave trade, of which he writes very soberly and suggestively, is indicated by the fact that during a twelvemonth which he spent at Mpwapwa, a place where many trade routes come together, 200 caravans passed through, numbering some 30,000 souls. There are many valuable hints as to the diet and manner of living for the preservation of the health, and an exhaustive list of the stores essential for a year's sojourn in the interior.

There is a certain degree of freshness about 'Alone through Syria,' by Ellen E. Miller (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.), which makes it for the most part very agreeable reading. The book is noteworthy, also, as showing that a lady can travel through Palestine, west of the Jordan, safely and comfortably, unaccompanied save by a dragoman. Miss Miller was not only more independent in her movements, but she saw far more of the life of the people than if she had been one of a large party. This, as well as the various little unusual incidents of her day's journey, she pictures with considerable ability, and wisely avoids detailed descriptions of well-known scenes and places. At the Church of the Holy Sepulchre she was witness to one of the amenities which distinguish the intercourse between the Greek and Latin Christians in Jerusalem. During a procession of the Franciscans, a Greek priest threw an inkhorn at the head of the Superior, but fortunately missed him. Especially interesting is the account of the home of a married Maronite (Catholic) priest in a little northern Syrian village where Miss Miller passed a night. In Syria she did not leave the beaten track of the tourists, but before entering the country she passed some time in Egypt, and devotes several entertaining chapters to sketches of Cairo, Luxor, and the region about Suez. The illustrations, from photographs, are well chosen and good.

'The Birds of Manitoba,' by Ernest E. Thompson, from the Proceedings of the United States National Museum, vol. xiii, pp. 457–643, is a paper of considerable importance to ornithologists. The list includes the names of 266 species, each accompanied by more or less numerous citations of localities and authorities. A large number of accurate and well-written notes on habits, captures, etc., gives the work an exceptional value and interest.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for May is wholly occupied with Mr. Israel C. Russell's narrative of an expedition to Mount St. Elias, Alaska, last year. It is preceded by a summary of previous explorations of this attractive mountain mass, and is accompanied by a large number of maps and photographic views. The author's style is spirited and popular and his account deeply interesting. It is to be hoped that he will have the good fortune to succeed in reaching the summit in some future expedition.

The Sargasso Sea is the subject of a paper contributed to *Petermann's Mitteilungen* by Prof. O. Krümmel. In it he discusses, with especial reference to Otto Kuntze's botanical theories, the two questions as to the existence of the sea in a fixed and definite position, and the origin of the plants which form its distinguishing characteristic. Though he does not deny the possibility of these plants fructifying in the open sea, he holds that this is very rarely the case, and that the greater part are torn from the neighboring coasts. Dr. Kurt Hassert attempts to define the northern limit of the habited and habitable earth and to show the causes for its changes in historic times. The accompanying map makes very evident the great contrast in this respect between the arctic regions of the Old and the New World. In the former, only two small strips of Siberia and a part of the New Siberian Islands are represented as deserted, while in the latter a large part of the Greenland coast and all the islands and mainland of America between latitudes 75° and 70° were once, but are not now, inhabited. An examination of the results of the last Greek census, taken in 1889, shows that the increase, 11.4 per cent., is chiefly in Attica and the cultivated land about Corinth. The Greeks show the same tendency as the other more civilized peoples to leave the country for the towns, the places containing over 5,000 inhabitants having gained 39 per cent., those under 5,000 only 5 per cent. Athens itself increased 69 per cent., being closely followed by its port with 59 per cent. gain. The great proportion of the people, however, 78 per cent., are still dwellers in the country. The Ionian Islands, with the exception of Corcyra, show a slight decrease.

Benj. R. Tucker, Boston, will publish next Saturday the first number of a new *Weekly Bulletin of Newspaper and Periodical Literature*, being in the main a classified catalogue of important articles in the press of the United States and the British Provinces. Title and author (when known) will be given, and "the number of words in the article." The novelty of this scheme consists in embracing the daily and weekly press.

Howard Lockwood & Co. send us Part 2 of their 'American Dictionary of Printing and Bookmaking.' It extends from Blatt to Chinese Printing, and is, like its predecessor, freely illustrated with technical cuts and with portraits. Bookbinding is one of the longest articles; Capitalizing is also fully treated, with a slant at our friends the librarians, who have a rule against excessive capitalizing. The Campbell press, the Burr type-setting machine, the Bruce founts, figure among our American inventions in these lines; and printers more or less American are commemorated in Samuel Bowles, William Bradford, Simon Cameron, and Mathew Carey, along with Caxton. Boston, Cambridge, and Charleston are examples of towns viewed typographically. Even Thomas Bowdler is regarded as within the scope of this dictionary.

A noteworthy agreement has been reached between the four leading libraries of Salem, Mass., to observe individual lines of purchase with a view to preventing unnecessary duplication of books. Moreover, the librarian of the Public Library is authorized to issue a card, addressed to any of his brother librarians, entitling the bearer to consult any work of reference in the latter's keeping.

Mayence is making extensive preparations to celebrate the centenary of the nativity of Franz Bopp, who was born in that city on September 14, 1791. All the German universities will be represented, and delegations are expected from the principal universities of other countries to do honor to one of the most scholarly pioneers in the province of comparative philology.

Wilhelm Weber, Professor of Physics in the University of Göttingen, died on June 24, in the eighty-seventh year of his age. In 1833 he ran a wire nearly nine thousand feet in length over the houses of Göttingen, and connected his laboratory with the astronomical observatory, of which Gauss was then director. By this means the two scientists were enabled to carry on

easy and rapid communications with each other, and greatly facilitate the study of magnetic forces and phenomena in which they were engaged. In a letter to the astronomer Olbers, Gauss writes: "I am convinced that by the use of sufficiently strong wires it would be possible to telegraph at one stroke from Göttingen to Hanover and from Hanover to Bremen." But neither of these eminent men ever made any attempt to extend and improve the means of telegraphic communication which they had discovered. Indeed, there is no evidence that they even thought of connecting by telegraph the numerous observatories which, at Humboldt's suggestion, had formed a "magnetic union" for the purpose of pursuing in common the investigations of terrestrial magnetism subsequently published in six volumes under the title 'Resultate aus den Beobachtungen des Magnetischen Vereins' (Göttingen, 1837–1843).

—The deterioration in the character of our legislatures and their legislation in recent years has led to various expedients of a reformatory or palliative nature. In some cases the field exempted from legislative interference by the Constitution has been enlarged; in others, the frequency of legislative sessions has been diminished. Both of these expedients have aroused hostility and received severe criticism, and the case against them has been summed up anew in a paper read by Mr. F. P. Prichard of the Philadelphia bar before the Law Association of that city. The remedy favored by him is the appointment of competent officers charged with the duty of revising and correcting the bills offered in the legislatures before those bodies are allowed to discuss them. That legislation would be improved by the operation of such a commission admits of no doubt, but the physical obstacles are very great, to say nothing of the task of persuading the legislatures to relinquish any of the control they now exercise over their acts. A body of legislative censors once existed in the State of Vermont, but it has passed away, and it is evident that there is some reason why a feature common in the artificial constitutions of philosophers does not appear in the constitutions developed by experience.

—Historical students cannot but welcome the 'Guide to the Principal Classes of Documents Preserved in the Public Record Office' which has just been issued by the British Government. This key to the greatest treasure-house of history is the result of some years of work on the part of Mr. S. R. Scargill-Bird, F.S.A., one of the staff of the Public Record Office, London. The work is prefaced with an Introduction which exhibits the knowledge of a specialist. Then follow the subjects upon which the various documents are likely to be consulted. Being arranged alphabetically, they resolve themselves into an index of contents, beginning with Accounts, Acknowledgments of Deeds, and Agarde's Indexes, and ending with Wards and Minors, Wills (Royal and Private), and Works and Buildings. Under some of the headings will be found valuable notes. Those on this side of the Atlantic who would seek for documents of more personal and direct concern to Americans will find these not only among the vast mass of papers, too barely noted under the head of Colonial Office, on page 87, but under various heads. Thus, under the head of Aliens, are two volumes containing the 'Names of Persons Naturalized in His Majesty's Plantations in America, 1740 to 1761.' Mr. Scargill-Bird says these contain "the names, etc., of those who availed themselves of Act 13, George II., for naturalizing such foreign Protestants and others as are settled or shall settle in any of His Majesty's colonies in America." Under Army, Navy, and Ordnance, are to be found establishment-books of Guards, Garrisons, and Land Forces in Great Britain and the Plantations, from 1741. Under Grants of Land are noted Carolina, 1674 to 1765; New York, 1665 to 1765; To Discoverers in America, from Henry VII.; North Carolina, 1725 to 1760; Georgia, 1760 to 1768; Jamaica, 1754; "List of Landholders; Plantations General," 1752 to 1771. Under the head of the Audit Office, we find Account of the Comptroller-General in Barbados and the Leeward Islands, 1684–1685; and a sub-heading for Accounts of Governors, Agents, etc., includes Cape Breton, from 1746; Carolina, 1776–1779; Florida, East, 1772–1786; Florida, West, 1764–1781; Georgia, 1752–1783; Jamaica, 1660–1675; Nova Scotia, from 1752; Virginia, 1754–1757; West Indies, from 1760. Also, under the head Audit Office, are found Agents' Accounts for purchasing presents, etc., for the Indians in the neighborhood of his Majesty's Colonies in North America, 1755 to 1785; Account of the contractor for victualling the settlers in Nova Scotia, 1740–1751; and Expenses for transporting foreign Protestants from Holland to Nova Scotia, 1751–1753. Under Emigrants is noted a list of emigrants to Nova Scotia, 1748–1749. As the publications by the British Government are made without any view to pecuniary profit, the Handbook is issued at the reasonable price of seven shillings, but a limited number having been printed. No historical society in the United States should be without it.

—The American Jewish Publication Society, which has just issued its third work, the first volume of the new English translation of Graetz's 'History of the Jews,' was organized in Philadelphia in June, 1888, with a view to publishing books on the religion, literature, and history of the Jews, and of fostering original work by American scholars in those subjects. It has branches in a number of the larger cities, with about 3,000 members, and is managed by an executive committee and a publication board. Its previous issues have been Mrs. Magnus's 'Post-Biblical History' and 'Think and Thank,' a story for the young. A special series of brochures has been begun, the first being devoted to a reprint of a pamphlet on the Russian question, to be followed by original and selected papers in Jewish literature and research, akin somewhat in style to *Chambers's Miscellany*. This is not the first attempt to organize a Jewish publication society. One was founded in New York not quite two decades ago, but died after publishing two minor works and the fourth volume of Graetz's History. The present outlook is certainly more auspicious. The Jewish community is larger, there is a better-equipped body of scholars and translators, and the public in general is more interested in Jewish literature, if presented in an appetizing form. Proverbial ill-fortune has invariably overtaken Jewish publication societies in England and Germany, possibly because they have been made to appeal to the learned few rather than the people, and especially to the young. The Philadelphia Publication Committee is in active correspondence with writers abroad and at home for fresh material, and its forthcoming works are likely to prove attractive. Financially the Society is in good condition, and it pays its writers handsomely. It is not at all impossible that should its career continue successful, it may publish a monthly magazine or quarterly upon a solid basis. In reference to the first volume of Graetz, just issued in English, it may be of interest to learn that the editor and chief translator was Miss Lowy of London, daughter of the Rev. A. Lowy, the Oriental scholar who doubted the genuineness of the Moabite Stone.

—Señora Bazán has her say, in her June *Teatro Crítico*, upon the "Roman Romanesque Moderne" of M. Prévost, about which so much has lately been said and written in Paris. She thinks that his wonderful idea that the coming novel is to relapse from the reigning realism into romanticism is "an aged idea which yet lends itself with feminine coquetry to the wearing of the red and white paint and false curls" put on by M. Prévost. "Sometimes commonplaces are strokes of genius," and she believes the young writer has aptly expressed the growing sense of revolt at the pessimism and cruelty, as Ohnet calls it, of the prevalent French school.

"Still, schools are a fact, and to deny their existence, or to boast of absolute independence, seems to me the same as to deny the external conditions imposed upon our natures. Nevertheless, in addition to the fact of a general tendency to which we all submit, there is the sacred right of artistic liberty. If anybody knows how to write good romantic novels, let him step at once into the arena, for we have the palms all ready for him. Now is the very time to ask

'Qui de nous, qui de nous va devenir un Dieu?'

For the rest, this new avatar of French literature was foreseen. To return to morality, to mysticism, to the méringues of psychology and the creams of feeling, was but natural after so much pepper, and mustard, and sauce piquante. But I am rather sceptical about it. These repentings and asceticisms of the *fin du siècle* are simply the well-known phenomenon of debauch—the nausea the day after. Let a few days pass, and at the first clash of the glasses, at the first gleam from certain eyes, away go the good resolutions. So if anybody wants really to be edified, he had better not wait for the coming idealist novels, but apply himself to the *Imitation*."

BREWER'S HISTORICAL NOTE-BOOK.

The Historical Note-Book. With an Appendix of Battles. By the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer, LL.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1891.

THIS handsomely printed volume of nearly one thousand pages is in the main a condensed cyclopædia of universal history, minus the epitomized histories of states and reigns, as well as most of the biographical information belonging to a reference-book of this kind, but with the addition of numerous features not strictly pertaining to such a cyclopædia. It is designed to be a storehouse of information wherein the reader of history and general literature shall find a ready explanation whenever, in the course of his reading, anything of an historical nature presents itself about which he may need to be enlightened. Says the preface:

"Probably no one could turn over a couple of pages of this book and not find some item which he would be at a loss to explain or to find in any book near at hand. It may be hidden in some corner of history, some modern or ancient encyclopædia, some law dictionary, periodical, or book of antiquities; but, being neither tabulated nor inserted in the index, would be as hard to light upon as the traditional grain of wheat in a bushel of chaff."

The following miscellaneous list of subjects will suggest the range of the 'Historical Note-Book,' which contains more than 10,000 distinct entries: Armada, Battle of the Spurs, Chiltern Hundreds, Column of July, Dodo,

Dublin Castle, Eutycheans, Fable of Jenkins's Ear, Falk Laws, Free Trade, Gallia, Geneva Convention, Gonfalons, Gongorism, High Steward, Ludgate, Luther of England, Millenarians, Oak Boys, Peace of Nicias, Plon-Plon, Pocket Borough, Posse Comitatus, Postage Stamp, Puseyism, Raphael of Cats, Romance of the Rose, Sodor and Man, Sorbonne, Steelyard, Talmud, Thermidor, Three W's, Will's Coffee-House. There are twenty-nine separate entries introduced by the word "Liturgy," forty-nine by "Council" or "Councils," twenty-two by "League," fourteen by "Law" or "Laws," one hundred and eighteen by "Order," sixteen by "Rule," and fifty-seven by "Massacre," while there are no fewer than eight different "Scourges."

A very prominent and indeed the most characteristic feature of the volume is the extraordinary mass of entries under captions representing cognomens, sobriquets, epithets, nicknames, pseudonyms, and appellations of every kind. Thus we find "Demosthenes of France" (Mirabeau), "Demosthenes of America" (Webster), "Demosthenes of the Pulpit" (Dr. Thomas Rennell); "Cicero of the British Senate" (Canning), and six other Ciceros; the "Lion of Janina" (Ali Pasha), and a host of other "Lions," including the "Lion of Lucerne"; "Homer of Ferrara" (Ariosto), "Homer of Khorasan" (Firdusi), "Homer of Modern Days" (Scott), and nearly a dozen more of Homers; seven Michael Angelos, six Livys, four Sapphos; "Shakespeare of Harmony" (Richard Wagner, a "very exaggerated comparison"), "Shakespeare of Painting" (Salvator Rosa, "so called by Garrick"), and half-a-dozen more Shaksperes; eleven "Bards," etc. There is a "Russian Byron" (Pushkin), a "Russian Messalina" (Catharine II.), a "Mongolian Bonaparte" (Tamerlane), a "Danish Butler" (Holberg), a "French Roscius" (Talma), and an "American Cato" (Samuel Adams). Andrew Jackson figures in a triple guise at least, as "Old Hickory," as the "Sharp Knife," and as the "Pointed Arrow," and American democracy receives a tribute in such titles as "Rail Splitter" and the "Mill Boy of the Slashes" (Henry Clay). To give a better idea of this feature of the work, we must mention a few miscellaneous appellations not biographical: "Ireland of Austria" (Hungary), "Melancholy Magyars," "Garden of England," "Gate of Tears," "Gate of France," "Monarchy of the Barricades," "Four Burghs," "Foul Raid," "Quarrel of Friars," "Queen Bess's Day," "Rowdy Parliament," "Parnassus of Japan," "Maiden Violin."

Dr. Brewer appears to entertain an exaggerated notion of the importance of information of this class, and he has introduced a host of such explanatory items to which the general reader could not possibly have any occasion to refer, as he would come across the appellations in question only in situations where an explanation is unnecessary. Writers are not in the habit, for example, of speaking of the "Star of the North" (Gustavus Adolphus), leaving it to the reader to identify the character, or of the "Father of Statics" (Archimedes), or of the "Jewish Socrates" (Moses Mendelssohn), or of the "Portuguese Horace" (Antonio Ferreira), or of the "Flemish Raphael" (Frans Floris), or of the "Sicilian Ox" (Thomas Aquinas, "called *ox* from his great size"), or of the "Spoilt Child of Fortune" (Masséna). The fact is, that in collecting the material for this work, the author does not appear to have been even in the slightest degree influenced by the consideration as to what likelihood there was that the particular item would be sought in its columns. The volume has, therefore, a two-fold character: it is a reference cyclopædia, and a treasury of interesting items to be read as the eye happens to light upon them.

In spite of the statement in the preface that "Inventions and discoveries, the great staple of a book of dates, find no place here," we have, in turning the pages, come across "Boyle's Law," "Watches," "Vernier" (accompanied by one out of a dozen or so of illustrations which appear in the volume), "Electric Telegraph," "Pasteurienne (*sic*) Inoculation," "Pasteurise," "Listerise," "Gunter's Chain," "Mercator's Projection," etc., although the telephone, phonograph, sewing-machine, and most similar topics are excluded. With regard to biographical information (mostly of the briefest kind), the author's plan has been to deal mainly with personages who have received some appellation descriptive of character or talents, or who have figured under some pseudonym. Outside of this category he has found room in his museum for quite a number of rulers and other worthies. His selection, however, is curiously arbitrary, so that one might almost imagine that admission had been dictated by lot. Thus we find all the Georges, and Henrys, and Charleses of England, and the Heinrichs, Karls, Ottos, and Friedrichs of the Holy Roman Empire, but search in vain for Frederick the Great, or the Alexanders of Russia, or Czar Nicholas, and no Philips, ancient or modern, are to be discovered. Ferdinand the Catholic is ignored, notwithstanding his surname, and his consort, Isabella, shares his fate.

It is more unfortunate than surprising that the sixty years of reading with "a slip of paper and a pencil" at his side should have made our author so little of a scholar as these pages show him to be, in some departments at least. The work teems with blunders, inaccuracies, and shortcomings of every description. We shall point out a few for the sake of illustration. Under "Gonzaga" it is stated that the dukes of this house ruled in Mantua until 1665, "when the territory was taken possession of by the kaiser-king Joseph I." This kaiser-king did not ascend the throne until 1705, and the duchy became a possession of Austria in 1708. Under "Knights Hospitallers" we are informed that when the knights were "expelled from Judæa [*sic*], they were allowed by Karl V. (1530) to settle in Malta." On the following page, under "Knights of Rhodes," the author himself tells us that some centuries intervened between the events in question. "Sarmatia" is despatched in the following laconic words: "Russia in Europe. Russia in Asia was called Scythia." In the otherwise very lame account of the Peace of Westphalia we are told that "Lusatia and Alsace were taken from Austria, and Austria received instead Transylvania and Croatia." We wonder where Dr. Brewer got this information. Transylvania came out victorious from the Thirty Years' War, and it was not until nearly half a century after its close that Austria laid hands upon her. As for Croatia, the only Power that disputed her possession with the House of Austria was Turkey. Dr. Brewer has no space to speak of Attila's invasion under "Huns," the few words of history not extending beyond A. D. 375, but he makes up for thus abridging their career by speaking of the Hungarians as Huns under the head of "Golden Bull." In another part of this same article "Golden Bull," we read: "Since 1440 the electorate [in the German Empire] has been merely nominal, as the House of Rudolph has been permanently established." This item appears to have been "jotted down" while the author was reading with a "slip of paper and a pencil" at his side some old book published in the last century, for the last of the descendants of Rudolph who wore the imperial crown of Germany laid it down in 1806. We are told, it is true, in the notice of the House of Habsburg (*s. v.* "Habsburg") that the dynasty still continues to rule "in that part of Germany called Austria and Hungary." What German patriot ever dreamed of such a "Vaterland"? The Farnese family is described as a "princely Italian family" without the slightest indication being given of the time at which it flourished, and without any mention of the fact that it was long the ruling dynasty in Parma.

Coming to America, we learn that the "Minute Men" were the "militia of 12,000 men enrolled by the American Congress adjourned from Concord to Cambridge." The chronological data concerning our country cannot be said to be very reliable, but the compositor may be responsible for some of the errors. In the voluminous dictionary of battles which constitutes an appendix to the work, we find February 6 as the date of the battle of Shiloh (April 6, 7), October 11 (instead of October 7) for the battle of Saratoga, July 16 (instead of August 16) for the battle of Bennington, January 2 (instead of January 3) for the battle of Princeton. In this dictionary of battles we fail to discover Wilderness, Hampton Roads, or Chattanooga.

This cyclopædia is preëminently a cyclopædia of facts, but the author's personality crops out here and there in telling characterization, usually appended in fine type. Thus, "Milan Decree" winds up with, "Most certainly Napoleon was no politician." Under "*Times*' Memorial" he says: "The attempt to expose the Irish Land League was equally noble, but miscarried through the villany of one Pigott." Under "Plug-drawers' we read: "The Luddite orators, 1811, the Chartist orators, 1848, etc., and the Home Rule orators, 1890, etc., are your plug-drawers who waste their sympathy in 'one weak, washy, everlasting flood.'" In the two pages of fine print devoted to "Macrobiots," the author presents us with a list of about a hundred persons in modern times whose life is reputed to have exceeded 120 years. The list winds up with Thomas Carn, who appears to have died in 1588 at the age of 207, "according to the parish register of St. Leonard's, Shoreditch." Dr. Brewer adds this commentary: "Some of the names are not worthy of credit, such as Rowin, whose wife was 164; Surrington, whose son was 103; Keit, whose youngest daughter was 109. However, the list is a long one, and it is well to have it handy." He has learned that three successive German emperors, Albert II., Frederick III., and Maximilian I., paid with their lives for their fondness for melons; and this fact (not gathered from Coxe's 'History of the House of Austria') has so impressed him that he not only takes pains to mention it in the biographical notices of the sovereigns, and under the head of "Eating Fruit (*Death from*)," but goes so far as to insert a distinct title, "Melon Colic," under which this wonderful incident is recorded. Nor has he forgotten the fatal grape-stone which deprived the world of Anacreon, and the Caliph Yezid II. of his favorite concubine, while "La Belle Gabrielle" is stated (*s. v.* "Eating Fruit") to have died from "eating an orange" and Gen. Knox from "eating raisins."

RECENT NOVELS.

A Group of Noble Dames. By Thomas Hardy. Harper & Brothers.

What's Bred in the Bone. By Grant Allen. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.

On Newfound River. By Thomas Nelson Page. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mea Culpa: A Woman's Last Word. By Henry Harland. John W. Lovell Co.

Tourmalin's Time Cheques. By F. Anstey. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.

THESE tales of "dear dead women" of the last century, to which Mr. Hardy has given a slight seeming thread of connection by putting them into the mouths of different members of "one of the Wessex Field and Antiquarian clubs," have much the same sort of fascination that one feels in reading the tales of the Arabian Nights. They are told with an inborn gift for story-telling which seems to cost the teller neither study nor effort, and which never wearies the hearer in listening. Unlike others which have a more dramatic interest, stories of this kind may be laid down at almost any point without uncomfortable sensations of suspense, and may be taken up again at any time without a flagging of interest. If they seldom touch the deeper springs of sympathy or emotion, they appeal to a practical experience of human nature in a great many different phases. Mr. Hardy's ten noble dames (with very varying degrees of noble instinct) move in a background of delightful rural scenery and stately domestic architecture of court, and hall, and manor house. One is not admitted too closely to their intimacy by means of frequent or minute analysis of character. A decorous reserve, like that approved in the manners of the times of which he writes, restrains the author's pen. When, however, he does describe, it is with clearness and decision: "Her virtues lay in no resistant force of character, but in a natural inappetency for evil things, which to her were as unmeaning as joints of flesh to a herbivorous creature."

As is inevitable in a collection of stories of very unequal length and finish, some of these heroines are brought more clearly face to face with the reader than others. Betty, first Countess of Wessex, will live longer in the memory than any of the other titled ladies whose histories follow hers. There is a mixture of pathos and humor in the means the eighteen-year-old heiress devises for escaping from the strange husband to whom; by a custom of Eastern barbarity, she has been married at twelve; and the far-sighted bravado by which the philosophic courtier seeks to make an impression on his obdurate young wife is most ingeniously conceived. The neatly pointed sarcasm of which the writer shows such complete mastery lends a zest to the whole group of stories. For the rest, the designer has done his work well in the pretty and original cover of the volume, and the few illustrations are pleasing and suggestive.

"But then, queer things are the way in Africa." So writes Mr. Grant Allen, after an inextricable jumble of circumstances has brought Granville Kelmscott and his (disowned) half brother, Guy Waring, to the diamond fields of the Dark Continent. It would seem, in the light of the events described in the story before us, that queer things are "the way" in England also, particularly in ancient and highly respectable county families and among their descendants. A secret marriage, an illegal one, and a murder are some of the skeletons in the closets of a couple of fine old seats in Surrey. A forgery, and the likeness of Cyril Waring to his absent twin-brother Guy, add to the general embroilment. Prominent in the plot is a charming young creature with a beautiful face and an inherited tendency to break out into the "Naga" dance whenever she sees a member of the serpent tribe or hears the appropriate music. She is gifted, moreover, also hereditarily, with an alarming power of knowing by intuition what is passing in the breasts of her acquaintances. We quite agree with Mr. Grant Allen in thinking that for young ladies thus intuitively endowed a course of study at Girton might be superfluous. We hope, however, that no young lady will ever be tempted, in default of an acquaintance with classical models, to form her style on that of 'What's Bred in the Bone.'

Mr. Page takes his readers into the pleasant scenery of a Virginia plantation. But, before the story closes, the quiet of the woods, the old mill-pond, and the river bottoms is broken by some very exciting events. The plot turns upon the indomitable, hereditary will of the Landons, in whom race qualities show a remarkable persistence. "Tall, straight, keen-eyed, aquiline they grew, father and son, for generation after generation, as distinct from their plain neighbors on Newfound as a Lombardy poplar is from the common pine." The family temper, which has already cost a master to the 500 negroes and the acres an heir, threatens to bring about a tragedy between "the Major" and his only son, Bruce. But the story is, in the end, one of averted consequences and unexpected restoration. The Major and the Perdita-like heroine, happy among her old books, her hollyhocks and sweet-peas, and cheering her aged grandfather with feminine wiles, fall into rather hackneyed theatrical attitudes on their first meeting in the thicket. The characters, in fact, which are found to be always true to the life, are those of the "plain neighbors on Newfound." The incorrigible negro, Dick Runaway, who keeps his eye on the would-be murderer because "he got meanness in him," and who is the means of bringing him to his doom (though not the intended lynching), is well drawn. The scene where Squire Johnson "opens cote" at Jones's Cross-roads is described with much humor. Other such pictures as this make amends for the over-elaboration of construction. Mr. Page would undoubtedly have produced a more artistic story if he had used more freely the novelist's privilege of selection, rejecting some episodes altogether, and dwelling with more detail on those chosen. But the characters of the Landon family show unmistakable signs of having been studied from life, and this alone goes far towards making their history readable.

'Mea Culpa' is, as the name implies, autobiographical in form. Notwithstanding the seeming repudiation of sensationalism in the beginning, it is in the end extremely sensational. The characters are few in number—only a selfish and egotistical father, his daughter, a husband who adds brutality to his egoism and tyranny, a friendly musical composer, who helps along the action whenever such help is needed, and the lover. The lover is an American by birth and an artist by profession. The others, with the exception of the musical composer, are Russians, and are old acquaintances of the novel-reader. As the consciences of Russian Serene Highnesses are supposed, when they are made to figure in highly colored romances, to be impervious to remorse, it is left for the American lover to declare that "the way of the transgressor is hard," although the manner in which he avoids treading in it is not the one approved by moralists. A certain amount of knowledge of the world must go to the composition of a novel of this kind, but it is not knowledge of a wholesome or penetrating sort.

From the fact of the navigator's gaining time in sailing with the sun around the globe, and the aphorism "Time is money," the author of 'Vice Versa' evolves an Anglo-Australian Joint Stock Time Bank, Limited, for the deposit of one's spare time at compound interest, drawable in sums not smaller than fifteen minutes, and cashed on presentation by any clock in motion. He applies this conceit to Peter Tourmalin on the voyage in the *Boomerang* from Sydney to Plymouth, England, with results as ludicrous as they are incalculable, and with a verisimilitude which Mr. Frank Stockton might envy. Mr. Anstey's ingenuity is equal to every demand of his absurd hypothesis, and is tested to the utmost by his contriving that the cashing of the minimum checks by which Peter is transported from London at will back to the deck of the *Boomerang*, shall be arbitrary on the part of the Bank so far as relates to the order of time. Hence Peter's successive experiences are not consecutive, the sequel often precedes the antecedent, and a series of fascinating complexities and misunderstandings and false situations arises, ending in a truly terrible climax. Mr. Anstey has done nothing more original or fantastic with more success, and it is to be said that the reader, however tempted to hurry on to the dénouement, can also without loss draw his chapters, as Peter did his cheques, with a decent interval. The American edition of this story shows, by its mean and slovenly typography, that it was the hurried last of the piracies in which we have heretofore indulged ourselves. We congratulate the author that his admirable and individual humor will hereafter have a right to be paid for by Americans who enjoy it—and may their name be legion.

FISKE'S AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

The American Revolution. By John Fiske. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THIS succinct account of the American Revolution is designed by its author to form part of a projected history of the United States, which, when finished, "shall comprise the whole story from 1492 to (say) 1865" within a compass "neither too long to be manageable nor too brief to be interesting." 'The Beginnings of New England' and the 'Critical Period of American History,' already reviewed in these columns, are also to form component parts of the completed work. The narrative in the 'Critical Period' takes up the story at the point where it ends in the last of the two volumes now before us.

Portions of these volumes have been already published as historical essays, or they have been used as the basis of popular lectures in cities "from Maine to Oregon." In view of the popularity which has waited on these lecture courses, Mr. Fiske expresses a modest surprise at the interest shown in "a plain narrative of events already well known." Though he says that he has "never to this day understood the secret of it," the secret will be pretty clear to the average reader. The narrative here given is written with an undisguised warmth of sympathy for the principles and the heroes of the American Revolution. The character-sketches, though drawn with a free hand, are very vivid in their outlines, and have a physiognomy which is pleasing to the popular sense, because they symbolize with patriotic ideals and give literary form to popular preconceptions. The smooth and limpid flow of the

writer's narrative style carries the reader along without much effort on his own part. The story seems to tell itself, so skilfully has the writer selected his threads and so well does he hold them in hand for the purpose he has in view. Avowedly shaping his narrative in such a way "as to emphasize relations of cause and effect that are often buried in the mass of details," he does not often pause to indulge in negative criticism, or in what he calls "circumstantial description"—though the minute detail with which the Duponceau kissing story is told (vol. ii., pp. 51, 52)—recounting how "the gay young Frenchman" contrived to kiss the first Yankee girl whom he met on landing at Portsmouth in New Hampshire—was perhaps hardly necessary to explain the nexus of events in the American Revolution.

As the plan of the book contemplates nothing more than a "general history" of the Revolutionary War, the author premises that he has not even undertaken to mention all the events of that period, but only those which are of prime significance. The reader, therefore, must not turn to these volumes in hope of finding "new facts"—Mr. Fiske puts us on our guard against such a presumption; but he may turn to them with full assurance of faith for a fresh rehearsal of the old facts, which no time can stale, and for new views of those old facts, according to the larger framework of ideas in which they can now be set by the master of a captivating style and an expert in historical philosophy.

It will be seen at once that the limited plan of the work, and the success with which the writer has performed his task, conspire to leave but little room for criticism. Slight mistakes and small inaccuracies there will be, of course, in any free handling of facts so multitudinous as those assorted and condensed in this historical compend. Mr. Fiske knows very well, though his text contains no intimation of the fact, that the extract which he purports to quote from the speech of John Dickinson against the Declaration of Independence is not taken from any such speech as reported at the time, but is culled from a so-called "vindication" written by Dickinson six years afterwards. Reference is twice made to the alleged fact that Gen. Charles Lee, "dying in a mean public-house in Philadelphia," expressed as his last wish "that he might not be buried in consecrated ground, or within a mile of any church or meeting-house, because he had kept so much bad company in this world that he did not choose to continue it in the next." This modified version of the military cynic's "last wish" completely misses the real point of his theological irony, and blunts the sharp sting of his anti-American antipathy. What the rollicking old deist really wrote in his last will and testament was this: "I desire most earnestly that I may not be buried in any church or churchyard, *or within a mile of any Presbyterian or Anabaptist meeting-house*, for *since I have resided in this country* I have kept so much bad company when living that I do not choose to continue it when dead." The italicised clauses point the gist of this post-obit jocosity. Such measured contempt for America and such exact graduation of theological bad odors (differing, it would seem, by a mile in point of their comparative pungency and penetrative power), should not have been marred in the quoting. Lee was always picturesque in the devil-may-care *insouciance* of his speech and conduct, but he was never more genuine or true to himself than in the extravagancy and crazy ribaldry of this "last wish."

We think it is something like a hasty generalization to say that "the four cardinal events" in the history of our Western frontier during the Revolution are these: "(1) The defeat of the Shawnees and their allies at Point Pleasant in 1774; (2) the defeat of the Cherokees on the Watauga in 1776; (3) Clark's conquest of the Illinois country in 1778–'79; (4) the detection and thwarting of the French diplomacy in 1782 by Jay." This enumeration leaves out of account the successful contention made by the "landless States" against the "landed States" for the Federal possession and control of the unoccupied Western territory. More of American history has hinged on this cardinal event than on almost any other in our annals—as witness the long delay in the ratification of the Articles of Confederation (to which Mr. Fiske adverts without explaining the reason for it), the passage of the Ordinance of 1787, the government of the Territories under the Constitution, the Missouri Compromise, the Kansas and Nebraska agitation, the civil war. Indeed, an American Senator, who is also a close student of American history, has ventured the remark that, without the national territory bequeathed by the constitutional law of the Revolution as a bone of contention in our Federal politics, it is difficult to see what the history of the United States would have been. The name of Gen. Cadwalader, correctly spelled in the first of these volumes, is misspelled in the second and in the index. The [*sic*] of surprise placed after Gen. Burgoyne's use of the phrase "is broke" seems hardly necessary. The locution was very common in prose and speech at the close of the last century, as Dr. Murray records in his great dictionary. Less can be said in defence of Gen. William Howe's use of "is drove," but then Gen. Charles Lee, who knew him well, admonishes us that Howe was "very illiterate." The statement made in the second volume (p. 26) that the Articles of Confederation "were ready by the summer of 1778" for submission to the States, rather obscures the fact that they were made ready for such submission on the 17th of November, 1777.

Criticism and Fiction. By W. D. Howells. Harpers. 1891.

Mr. Howells has for some years been making himself heard monthly as a critic of books in general, with a persistency discouraging to those who would gladly close their ears and retain completely their literary regard for him; and now he has made assurance doubly sure by gathering up a handful of these criticisms and making a book of them. It is a hazardous thing to collect journalistic work which naturally deserves only a momentary life; and when it is snip-snap in character—a word on this, a word on that, a compliment to a friend, a fling at a classic, a tirade at a whole class—the experiment will hardly escape one great risk. Mr. Howells has ventured it and not gone scathless. The fatal thing about this little volume is that it is dull. The excitement, such as it was, of seeing an author of position jeering at his predecessors, pitying Scott, depreciating Thackeray, pointing the finger at Goethe's crudities, and in general working himself up into a state of mind whenever the poor "classics," on their comfortable upper shelves, came into his thoughts, was amusing for a while; but now it is an old story. Writing of this sort, too, necessarily requires expletives, and expletives are, for literary purposes, few; it does not permit of much variety of mood, nor does it abound in thought; and the result is a monotony of style and matter that the most amiable cleverness in the use of slang, and the finest of contempt for "those poor islanders," cannot save.

There are two leading ideas or notions in the bundle of paragraphs that try hard to look like chapters. One is that critics are sorry fellows; the other is, that the art of fiction as now practised is finer than it ever was before—that is, provided it is practised in Mr. Howells's way. With the best of dispositions to discover more than these oft-repeated opinions, we cannot find more; the rest is, in fact, illustrative and expansive of these two propositions. The first, as to critics, may be disregarded; it is not new, nor is it of the least consequence when uttered by one critic about his fellows; it only means that he is intolerant. The second proposition is, however, original with its propounder; and, without discussing the truth of it, we shall notice only how it is supported by its author. When men put forth such a judgment of Scott as he has now made his own, they are regarded as persons who do not much trouble themselves with thinking, but consult only their dislikes, and we in turn do not trouble ourselves about their opinion; but Mr. Howells exhibits a remarkable faculty for supporting his views by quotations from some of the classics, Burke or Emerson, or by the character of Gen. Grant, or the contemporary opinion of Canon Farrar, and seems contriving to give the impression that these various persons agree with him fundamentally. This may easily mislead the reader, and its influence is increased by the frequency with which Mr. Howells reminds us that Spain or Italy or the Russias also agree with him; and so he establishes a prima-facie case. In other words, for we must be brief, he is an honest partisan who believes that all things work together to prove he is right. He is an advocate, and he makes no concessions, and never intimates any doubt of his argument. He uses his literary material as it is natural for an advocate to do. A few early startling statements attracted great attention, and since then he has been the critical sensationalist of the time. His little volume is the record of all this; but it has no value except as an example of eccentricity.

Cornwallis. By W. S. Seton Karr. [Rulers of India Series.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

The name of Cornwallis recalls some of the most striking vicissitudes of English history; it is connected with the fortunes of England in two hemispheres, with the setting of her star in the West and its almost simultaneous rise in the East. He commanded the army that surrendered to Lafayette at Yorktown; he was a great administrator in India; he was Viceroy of Ireland during the rebellion of 1798; he concluded the Union with England; and he negotiated the only treaty ever made by England with Napoleon Bonaparte, viz., the Peace of Amiens. As Mr. Seton Karr's book deals chiefly with the "Ruler of India," he is obliged to pass lightly over the very important parts played by Cornwallis in America and Europe; although even in such widely distant spheres of action and politics as India and North America, the events and their consequences are not wholly unconnected. It was the financial embarrassment of the East India Company that induced the English Government to allow direct exportation by the Company to the colonies of the tea that was thrown into Boston harbor in 1773; and undoubtedly it was the loss of her colonies that stimulated

and strengthened England in turning all her energies upon the preservation and extension of her Indian dominions.

Cornwallis held a much stronger position as Governor-General than any of his predecessors in office. He was the friend of the leading English Ministers, and he was backed by the powerful and triumphant Cabinet of William Pitt. His Indian Governor-Generalship represents to the student of Indian history a remarkable period, which Mr. Seton Karr's book does not sketch in sufficiently clear outline. It was during the interval of calm between two great storms, between the end of the American war and the beginning of the desperate contest with revolutionary France, that Cornwallis went to India, in 1786. This quiet time gave him leisure to disable Tippu of Mysore, the only formidable rival to the English in South India, to establish peaceful relations with other native States, and to carry through some very important internal reforms. Of foreign affairs Mr. Seton Karr tells us little, and of the internal reforms he tells us too much; he enters largely upon details concerning land tenures and the assessment of land revenue in Bengal, uses too many outlandish phrases, and describes the legislation whereby the land tax, which before had been variable, was by Cornwallis fixed and made permanent. The measure was undoubtedly successful in contenting the landlords, but unluckily it left the tenants exposed to virtually unlimited rack-renting, and has thus been the source of much subsequent trouble and litigation. There is also a chapter on Sale Laws and Resumptions which we cannot conscientiously recommend to the ordinary reader, seeing that even among experts these questions have in the course of a century become somewhat musty.

Cornwallis left India in 1793, just as the war with France broke out again in Europe. He was succeeded by Lord Mornington, afterwards Marquis Wellesley, who arrived in India imbued with the proud and warlike spirit which then ruled the policy of the English nation. Wellesley's Governor-Generalship was one long period of wars and annexations, insomuch that the English Government, alarmed at so much glory, prevailed upon Cornwallis to go out again, in 1805, with the object of pouring some water into the fiery wine of Lord Wellesley, who had returned home. He found, as Mr. Seton Karr observes, the whole scene transformed, the English dominion immensely expanded, and triumphant armies in the field. He did his best to rein in his ardent generals, and to conciliate the native princes with whom they were fighting, but he was in weak health and advanced in years; the exertion and the climate overpowered him in a few months, and he died at an Indian station in 1806. Mr. Seton Karr says rightly that his life was one of uninterrupted devotion to duty and work; he was a high-minded statesman, who did his country good service, and whose name deserves to be honorably remembered in America as well as in India and in England.

Landscape Gardening. By Samuel Parsons, jr., Superintendent of Parks, New York City. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

In spite of rich binding, handsome printing, and numerous pictures, this is a disappointing book. The broad title, 'Landscape Gardening,' and the author's distinguished position in command of the parks of New York city, naturally warranted the expectation that America was at last to be provided with an adequate exposition of the principles and practice of a misunderstood art. The fitting of land and landscape to human use and enjoyment in such manner as may be most appropriate and most beautiful in any given spot or region, is certainly artists' work. The professor of this art must be a broad man. He must be as responsive to the intricate loveliness of the wild woods as to the open beauty of the fields. He must be a lover of every type of natural beauty. He must also feel the pathos and the charm which unpretending human life adds to scenery. He must be capable of grasping the fundamental characteristics of every spot and scene, and in working upon landscape he must always be guided by his reverence for the spirit of the place.

If the author of the book before us is such a man, his book does not do him justice. He once refers to the charming simplicity of the Irving place at Sunnyside, where, from the happy union of water, grass, common trees, and a plain house, is evolved a memorable scene; but most of his volume is devoted to glowing descriptions of trees, shrubs, and herbs, and we are told more than once that "every well-planted lawn must have" this or that tree or shrub. The book really treats of little except "lawn-planting," and this subject (which should have given the title to the book) is mistakenly defined as "a simple, harmonious arrangement for the exhibition of individual plants." This is the doctrine which has been preached in the nursery catalogues until the ledges of Bar Harbor and the smooth lawns of Newport display collections of the same conspicuous specimens.

The descriptions of plants, though brief, are generally excellent. The accompanying two hundred pictures are of three kinds: good process prints from negatives, cuts from good and bad ink sketches, and small plant portraits taken from familiar but unacknowledged sources. Following the chapters on plants are a few stray hints on "Small Places," "City Parks," "Churchyards," and "Rookeries." The book is not the well-rounded work of a master in one of the fine arts, but it is full of good sense in ordinary matters, and it will undoubtedly educate the large public which will buy it for its exceedingly handsome appearance.

The New York State Reformatory in Elmira. By Alexander Winter. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1891.

This book, which appeared simultaneously in England and Germany, is a flattering tribute to the abilities of Mr. Brockway, the Superintendent of the institution which is described. The "benevolent despotism" concerning which Aristotle expressed himself so favorably, seems really to be established at Elmira, and to justify the expectations of the ancient philosopher. Indeed, as we read this account of the system of education pursued and the results attained, it is impossible to suppress a regret that criminals alone are permitted to share in such advantages. But there is an unfortunate antinomy between discipline and liberty, and the scale of rewards and punishments is far more extensive within prison walls than it is without.

The system that has operated with such distinguished success at Elmira is thoroughly scientific. The controlling principle is the incessant presentation of motives to virtuous endeavor. The ultimate motive is, of course, freedom—the release from duress. The subordinate motives are the desires for physical comfort, for knowledge, for improvement in capacity, and for reputation. Every act is so regulated as to suggest these motives. With the temptation to idleness, insubordination, or mischief, there is carefully associated the idea of loss of everything that is desirable. With the ambition to do well is associated the thought of the pleasant results of well-doing. Upon his entrance, the prisoner is placed in the second grade, from which he may rise to the first or fall into the third. A minute system of marking records advance or regression. If the prisoner chooses to exert himself, he receives more palatable food, greater liberty, and more conveniences in his cell, larger privileges in his work and in his recreation, and withal the assurance that he is moving towards freedom. If he refuses to exert himself, a thousand things remind him unpleasantly that he is making his condition worse.

Under these influences, about 35 per cent. of the prisoners begin to improve at once, and proceed without relapse, getting their release on parole within fifteen months. About the same proportion are guilty of occasional backsliding, and do not obtain their liberation so soon by several months, but still within two years. Nineteen per cent. are perverse, and require a year longer—unless they are released by the operation of the law which limits their detention to the maximum period prescribed for their offence. The remainder are the black sheep, who are bad beyond hope of reformation. The average duration of imprisonment is now about twenty-one months.

Apart from this system of general laws, a special study is made by the Superintendent of every prisoner. His whole past history is investigated, and the treatment which is most applicable to his case is determined upon. At any time he may have a personal conversation with the Superintendent, the number applying for such audience being from forty to fifty a day. Many of the prisoners, it is scarcely necessary to say, have never enjoyed the opportunity of consulting a wise and sympathetic adviser, and many affecting instances of their appreciation of this privilege are recorded. It cannot be doubted that numerous cases of spiritual regeneration occur under such influences, and it has been positively ascertained that nearly 80 per cent. of those discharged are reformed, at least to the extent of becoming law-abiding citizens. It is probable that the percentage is as high as 90, but it is impossible, for various reasons, to follow the careers of all the graduates of this institution of learning.

The accounts of the subjects taught and the methods of teaching, of the library and the newspaper, of the technical training, of the physical culture, of the military discipline, and especially of the "Practical Ethics" class, are full and satisfactory. They are extremely interesting, and we should be glad to review them at some length. But as the book is inexpensive, and is really a manual of the scientific treatment of young offenders, we shall discharge our duty to our readers by calling their attention to this opportunity of informing themselves concerning the gratifying progress which has been made in a difficult department of social reform.

The Other Side of the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition. By H. R. Fox Bourne. London: Chatto & Windus. 1891. Pp. x, 202, 8vo.

The motive of this book, as stated in the preface, is excellent and well-timed. Public sentiment needs to be aroused to a recognition of the rights of the African, and to the demand that his life and property shall not wantonly be taken from him in the interests

of science or of political or personal ambition. But instead of carrying out this admirable design, Mr. Fox Bourne has simply made a bitter personal attack upon Mr. Stanley, in which there is evident only an anxiety to make him appear to be an "unscrupulous and vainglorious filibuster," who "preferred quarrelling and stealing" to more honest methods of dealing with the natives. This eagerness, joined possibly with ignorance, has led him to absurd lengths, Mr. Stanley's whole course being assumed to have been a succession of blunders and crimes. He studiously belittles the undoubted philanthropic intent of the expedition, which he terms "an ill-managed slave-gang," in order to give prominence to the statement that it was mainly designed to carry out certain ambitious projects of King Leopold and the British East African Company. He asserts that, before Stanley Pool was reached, the leader "had deservedly lost all the respect of his white colleagues, and had forced them to treat with systematic cruelty the black men under them." Mr. Stanley is apparently blamed for having taken one hundred and sixty-five days to cross the frightful forest instead of fifty, as he had expected. His fear lest he should be too late to rescue Emin, which was the sufficient cause for his forcing his way instead of delaying to negotiate with the hostile natives, is ignored, and he is charged with "morally indefensible" conduct, as well as with "foolish and dishonest waste" of ammunition. He also "contributed" notably to the ruin of the Equatorial Province, whose Governor he "led as a captive from the Albert Nyanza to Bagamoyo."

It is of course impossible for us to show in detail how weak is the basis of truth upon which these confident assertions rest, and an examination of his closing statement must suffice to demonstrate the thoroughly partisan character of Mr. Fox Bourne's attempt to give the "other side." "We are not told," he says, "and evidently Mr. Stanley himself neither knows nor cares, how many thousands of slaughtered natives should be added to the 311 dead Zanzibaris, Sudanese, and Somalis, to make up the huge total of mortality incident to the methods and the exploits of the Emin Relief Expedition." The impression is given here that the mortality was phenomenally great. The "thousands of slaughtered natives" may be set aside as the wildest exaggeration, as far from the truth as the gratuitous assumption that Mr. Stanley was indifferent to their fate. Every one familiar with the history of African expeditions knows that a loss of 311 (nearly half of whom, it should be remembered, rotted to death at Yambuya) out of 693 ignorant and childlike Africans, considering the length of time, almost three years, of the expedition, the immense distances traversed, through regions devastated by slave-hunters, and peopled by men mad with fear at the sight of strangers, was, in fact, relatively very small. We do not hesitate to say that Gen. Gordon, whom Mr. Fox Bourne will not accuse of indifference to the negro, for a purely scientific purpose, probably sacrificed in a single year more men than Mr. Stanley lost in three years, including all natives slain, in his attempt to aid Emin Pasha. The occasion was the transport of a steamer a distance of 100 miles about the cataracts of the upper Nile simply for the exploration of the Albert Nyanza. It was a very difficult task, but Gordon's sole comment in his Diary on its completion was, "It has really been a terrible year." Dr. Junker, however, who was then in the country whence the most of the carriers were taken, says that 500 of these unfortunate creatures "were reported to have succumbed to the tremendous efforts they had been called upon to make. The very air was said to have been tainted by the dead bodies left lying along the route, which Maj. Prout had consequently to avoid when coming down from Magungo." Mr. Fox Bourne makes a sneering reference to Mr. Stanley's thankfulness at having meat from a cow taken in one of their combats, the first which he had tasted for eleven months. But Gen. Gordon began his transport operations by sending out an expedition against the hostile natives which brought in 2,000 cows, occasioning an incalculable amount of misery to an innocent people, whose only crime was that they preferred independence to the Egyptian yoke. The truth is, that one of Mr. Stanley's greatest merits, shown upon this expedition as well as throughout his career as an explorer, is his scrupulous care for his men. His indignation at the sufferings which the rear column experienced—needlessly, in his opinion—was in fact the main cause of his, in some respects, hasty and ungenerous attacks upon its unfortunate officers.

The account of Emin Pasha and his work in the Equatorial Province is as much too favorable as the judgment of Mr. Stanley is too harsh. It is difficult to believe that the author has read any other than the highly colored statements which first aroused the enthusiasm of Europe for his rescue. There can be little doubt, however, from Jephson's testimony, confirmed, as it is, in every important particular by Casati, that the boasted civilization introduced by Emin was a mere veneer confined to a few stations on the river. The rule of the Turks, as the Egyptians are called, was rightfully detested by the wretched natives whom they misgoverned, and who very likely welcomed the "oppression of Mahdist fanatics" to which Mr. Fox Bourne says the Relief Expedition consigned them. We have had occasion more than once to condemn Mr. Stanley for what has seemed to us his injustice to some of his companions, but we have neither sympathy for nor patience with such wholesale and reckless condemnation as is contained in this ill-advised and ill-tempered book.

Forty Years in a Moorland Parish. By the Rev. J. C. Atkinson, D C.L. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xi., 457.

THE author of this singularly interesting book has been for nearly forty-five years incumbent of the parish of Danby in Cleveland (Yorkshire, England), and in the preface says that he must have walked more than 70,000 miles in the prosecution of his clerical work only, and much more than as many again for exercise, relaxation, or recreation. What a profound knowledge of his parish and parishioners this long residence and constant locomotion gave him can be easily seen from the pages of his work, which is nothing less than an almost exhaustive monograph upon a typical English parish. Nearly every feature of its life and inanimate nature is described with the sure and interesting touch of a trained and loving observer. The superstitions, manners, and customs of the people, the antiquities and history, both natural and political, of the parish are treated in a series of desultory but delightful papers, illustrated with excellent maps and a few cuts.

As may be inferred fron the above rough statement of the contents, the book is of peculiar value to the student of folk-lore and of English history (especially of the earlier period); while the philologist will find here and there many quaint phrases to be added to the author's well-known 'Glossary of the Cleveland Dialect.' Most interesting survivals of beliefs in fairies and witches are noted in these pages, and the wedding customs still retain some traces of the primitive bridal by capture. Many curious harvest customs are still in vogue, and assume a new interest when read in connection with such a work as Fraser's 'Golden Bough.' Mr. Atkinson has left no side of his parish uninvestigated, and gives interesting accounts of his barrow-digging and its results, while incidentally demolishing the theory of the British villages so called, which seem to be, after all, only old mining pits. We cannot do more than refer to the valuable light that the author throws upon the questions of village communities and division of land, and to say in conclusion that the general reader will find much that is attractive in the introductory general description of the parish and its aspects in winter, with blizzards not inferior in terror to those of our own Northwest.

The Colors of Animals: Their Meaning and Use, especially considered in the case of Insects. By Edward Bagnall Poulton. D. Appleton & Co. 1890. Ill. 8vo, pp. xiii, 360.

"IN view of this public mention of my name, I may perhaps be excused for making the personal statement that any scientific work I have had the opportunity of doing has been inspired by one firm purpose—the desire to support, in however small a degree, and to illustrate by new examples, those great principles which we owe to the life and writings of Charles Darwin, and especially the preëminent principle of Natural Selection." This is our author's protest against being called "an industrious young observer who is accumulating facts telling with more or less force against pure Darwinism." It prepares one for a personal equation not to be ignored in estimating his work. He is one of a group of eminent English scientists who advocate natural selection as "the one solid foundation on which evolution rests." From their point of view the book is a very good presentation of the special evidence to which it is limited. The field is thoroughly canvassed, everything that might be used in support of the position has been culled, and the author has added much from his own observation and discussion. That evidence selected on account of its bearings and carefully explained should be heartily welcomed by an opponent, is something not wholly agreeable to a partisan. It is easy to see whence Mr. Poulton's critics derive aid and comfort. His views are so extreme that their demands for support are too great, and an ever patent desire to see things favorable to his belief does not enhance the value of the observations. Consequently, the claims are not always well supported, and much of the evidence brought forward is quite as serviceable in the hands of opponents.

In the whole, so many of the so-called facts are taken at second hand, unverified, and full of prejudice, that the work would have been greatly strengthened by cutting down one-half. There is little force in paragraphs like the following: "Mr. A. C. Billups of Niagara, Ontario, tells me that during an exceptionally mild winter, about seven or eight years ago, neither the 'snow bird' nor the American Hare acquired the winter dress. Hence the power of Variable Resemblance appears to be possessed by certain birds." An explanation of selective action in which a number of slow-running dogs and not very swift hares are

placed on an island where there is food for hares but none for dogs, becomes ridiculous when practically considered: the slower dogs are to starve, the swifter ones to catch the slower hares, thus selecting the swifter of both dogs and hares. In practice the slow dog would catch the quarry tired out by the swift one, and each would do what he might to exterminate the hares by catching the young and the gravid females. Mimicry, protective and aggressive, is illustrated by certain British caterpillars, with large eye-like spots, said to mimic a cobra-like serpent which "inspires alarm by the large eye-like 'spectacles' upon the dilated hood, and thus offers an appropriate model for the swollen anterior end of the caterpillar with its terrifying markings. It is extremely interesting that the caterpillar should thus mimic a feature which is only deceptive in the snake itself." How much better this would be if it were proved that the marks on the cobra were really terrifying, and not beneficial by exciting curiosity in the prey; if British animals were shown to be familiar with the danger lurking in this snake of Southern Asia; and if the marks were only in front of the cobra when it assumes its terrifying attitude instead of behind it.

These are small matters, certainly, but they are samples of many illustrations and much reasoning, no doubt carefully selected. While the book, as compared with others of similar bias in theory, is really a very good one, we can hardly believe the author would not himself be surprised at the number of times he uses "probable," "probably," etc.; at the amount of dependence on positive guesswork. "All animal colors must have been originally non-significant, for although selective agencies have found manifold uses for color, this fact can never have accounted for its first appearance." This must mean non-significant so far as proof of selection is concerned, for there is no proof that color was not from its inception of value to the organism. The statement itself is a confession of weakness concerning causes. If our author had gone a little further and stated that, after first appearance and establishment, selection might or might not have asserted itself, as circumstances were favorable or otherwise, there would be less question of the solidity of the foundation. As regards origin, his is the fortuitous theory of Darwin; to which is opposed that which recognizes the agency of stress of circumstances (climate, food, habits, or whatever) through action and reaction, or through effort, conscious or unconscious, in inducing hereditary tendencies of variation, affecting numbers or all of the individuals of a group, and establishing changes for present adaptation regardless of ultimate fate.

The classification submits for approval a number of new names that may be frequently met with in future Darwinian literature. There are great possibilities of research and of discussion in determining whether a color is cryptic, procryptic, anticryptic, or allocryptic, Apatetic, Epigamic, or Sematic; or, with greater nicety, whether it is aposematic, pseudaposematic, episematic, pseudepisematic, or only allosematic, or pseudallosematic. Applying the prefixes apo, pseudo, epi, allo, pro, and anti to each of the terms completes a range of expression that leaves no reason for lack of exactitude, unless it should be in the color itself. The scheme is based on selected examples, in which the distinctions are more or less apparent. The terminology is especially convenient for the adaptation seeker, and may in common use be made to cover a great deal of what is not known.

The Tertiary Insects of North America. By Samuel H. Scudder. Vol. XIII of the U. S. Geological Survey. Washington.

THIS is a solid quarto of 734 pages and 28 plates. An idea of its extent may be obtained from the fact that it contains descriptions of 612 species of fossil insects, viz.: 23 Hymenoptera, 1 Lepidopteron, 79 Diptera, 112 Coleoptera, 266 Hemiptera, 30 Orthoptera, 66 Neuroptera, 34 Arachnida, and 1 Myriapod. The volume is invaluable as a basis for future determinations and comparisons. The author found his field rich beyond what was deemed possible, yet indicating that we are only on the threshold of our possible knowledge. The greater part of his material was drawn from the Florissant beds of Colorado, just east of South Park, from a horizon situate in or near the Oligocene, in shales that had been deposited in shallow lakes of fresh water when the climate of the region was similar to that now affecting the middle belt of the Southern States. The recent affinities of the insects, however, pointed towards Central America. The specimens were secured from shales containing multitudes of fishes, leaves, twigs, fruits, and other remains. Our author rightfully concludes that the idea of Prof. Lesquereux, of an annual drying up of the lake at the time of deposition, is not tenable. Mr. Scudder says:

"The thickness of the paper shales upon which most of the fossil remains are found, and which are composed of uniform layers of triturated flakes of volcanic products, being necessarily the result of long-continued action of water, excludes the idea. The structure of the rocks rather indicates a quiet deposition of the materials in an unruffled lake through long periods, interrupted at intervals by the influx of new lava-flows or the burying of the bottom sediments beneath heavy showers of volcanic ashes."

In this we do not think the author ascribes enough to the agency of the winds. Our own conclusions in regard to the mode of origin of similar shales have been to the effect that a heavy wind had carried the insects, twigs, leaves, etc., out upon the lake, and at the same time filled the water with dust to settle and form a layer of the shale. The heavier matter, descending first, thus rested on the lighter of a preceding storm, and the differences in the material separated the lamina, the varying thicknesses of which were possibly determined by the violence and duration of the winds.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold-Foster, H. O. In a Conning-Tower. Cassell & Co.
Bancroft, H. H. Literary Industries. Harper & Bros.
Baldwin, Prof. J. Harper's School Speaker. Third Book: Miscellaneous Selections. Harper & Bros.
Beach, C. F., Jr. The Law of Private Corporations. 2 vols. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. $12.00.
Besant, Walter. St. Katherine's by the Tower. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Blackie, Prof. J. S. Greek Primer. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Boardman, Rev. G. D. The Problem of Jesus. Philadelphia: John Y. Huber Co.
Buchanan, R. The Coming Terror, and Other Essays and Lectures. United States Book Co.
Caird, Mona. A Romance of the Moors. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Chambers's Encyclopædia. New ed. Vol. VII. Maltebrun to Pearson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Cobb, Sylvanus, Jr. The Fortunes of Conrad. Robert Bonner's Sons. 25 cents.
Corneille, Pierre. Polyeucte. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Drummond, Prof. H. What Is a Christian? and A Talk on Books. John Knox & Co. 35 cents.
Duchochois, P. C. Photographic Reproduction Processes. New York: The Scovill & Adams Co. $1.
Dyer, Prof. L. Studies of the Gods in Greece at Certain Sanctuaries Recently Excavated. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Fasnacht, G. Eugène. French Readings for Children. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Guyau, J. M. Education and Heredity. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Heinzen, K. The Rights of Women and the Sexual Relations. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.
Hibbard, George A. Iduna, and Other Stories. Harper & Bros.
Hitchcock, Frederick H. The Handbook of Amherst, Mass. Amherst: The Author. $1.10.
Holmes, Mrs. Mary J. Marguerite. G. W. Dillingham. $1.50.
Holyoake, G. J. The Coöperative Movement of To-Day. London: Methuen & Co.
Hoxie, W. P. From Within. Philadelphia: George H. Buchanan & Co.
Kunhardt, C. P. Small Yachts: Their Design and Construction. New ed. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $10.
La Brète, Jean de. The Story of Reine. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXVII. Hindmarsh—Hovenden. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Leclerc, M. Choses d'Amérique: Les Crises économique et religieuse aux Etats-Unis. Paris: Plon.
Letters of Marie Bashkirtseff. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Lewis, L. The Diamond-Seeker of Brazil. Robert Bonner's Sons. 25 cents.
Littell's Living Age. April—June, 1891. Boston: Littell & Co.
Macdougall, Rev. J. Waifs and Strays of Celtic Tradition. Argyllshire Series, No. III. London: David Nutt.
Maartens, M. An Old Maid's Love. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Mairet, Mme. J. An Artist. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Maynard, Charles J. A Manual of North American Butterflies. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
McClelland, M. G. A Nameless Novel. New York: S. H. Moore & Co. 25 cents.
Munkittrick, R. K. Farming. Harper & Bros.
Musick, J. R. Columbia: A Story of the Discovery of America. Worthington Co.
Newton, Rev. R. Heber. Church and Creed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Payn, J. Sunny Stories and Some Shady Ones. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Penniman, J. H. A Graded List of Words Difficult to Spell. Philadelphia: Sherman & Co. 20 cents.
Phillips, Wendell. Speeches, Lectures and Letters. 2d series. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.50.
Pierce, G. W. The Life-Romance of an Algebraist. Boston: J. G. Cupples.
Pierson, Rev. Arthur T. Stumbling Stones Removed from the Word of God. Baker & Taylor Co. 50 cents.
Prichard, A. O. Aristotle on the Art of Poetry: A Lecture. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. I, Part 2. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Richebourg, E. Old Raciot's Million. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Riddles of the Sphinx. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. My First Love and My Last Love. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Roberts, Prof. C. G. D. The Canadian Guide-Book. D. Appleton & Co.
Robbins, Rev. H. E. The Harmony of Ethics with Theology. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 50 cents.
Rolfe, W. J. Tales from Scottish History in Prose and Verse. Harper & Bros.
Roosevelt, B. Elizabeth of Roumania: A Study. London: Chapman & Hall.
Ross, C. The Adventures of Three Worthies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Russell, Henrietta. Yawning. United States Book Co.
Russell, W. C. My Danish Sweetheart. Harper & Bros. 60 cents.
Sales, Pierre. The Price of a Coronet. Cassell & Co.
Salmon, D. Longman's School Grammar. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Salt Lake Fruit. M. W. Jones.
Sargant, E. B., and Whishaw, B. A Guide-book to Books. London: Henry Frowde.
Sargent, Prof. C. S. The Silva of North America. Vol. II. Cyrillaceæ—Sapindaceæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Scidmore, E. R. Jinrikisha Days in Japan. Harper & Bros.
Shattuck, G. C. Memorials of St. Paul's School. D. Appleton & Co.
Shoemaker, J. V. Heredity, Health and Personal Beauty. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis. $3.50.
Sidney, M. Rob: A Story for Boys. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Smith, G. The Battle of Seven Pines. C. G. Crawford.
Smith, Goldwin. A Trip to England. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. The Greatest Fight in the World. Funk & Wagnalls. 35 cents.
Stanley, Rev. G. About an Old New England Church. Sharon, Conn.: W. W. Knight & Co. 50 cents.
Stebbins, G. B. Upward Steps of Seventy Years. United States Book Co.
Stephens, H. M. Portugal. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Stevens, O. C. An Idyl of the Sun, and Other Poems. Holyoke, Mass.: Griffith, Axtell & Cady.
Stifter, Adalbert. Das Haidedorf. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 20 cents.
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Strong, Rev. J. Our Country. 140th thousand. Baker & Taylor Co. 60 cents.
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Thompson, H. M. The Purse and the Conscience. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Thompson, M. At Love's Extremes. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Thompson, Sir Henry. Food and Feeding. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Thomson, Sir W. Popular Lectures and Addresses. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Uffelmann, J. Manual of the Domestic Hygiene of the Child. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Upham, Caroline E. Salem Witchcraft in Outline. Salem (Mass.) Press Publishing and Printing Co.
Venable, W. H. Beginnings of Literary Culture in the Ohio Valley. Robt. Clarke & Co.
Vincent, J. M. State and Federal Government in Switzerland. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.
Walworth, M. T. Delaplaine. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Weeks, S. B. The Press of North Carolina in the 18th Century. Brooklyn: Historical Printing Club. $2.50.
Wentworth, G. A. A Higher Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co.
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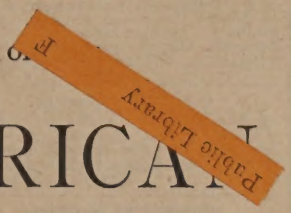

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[Continued on Page VII.]

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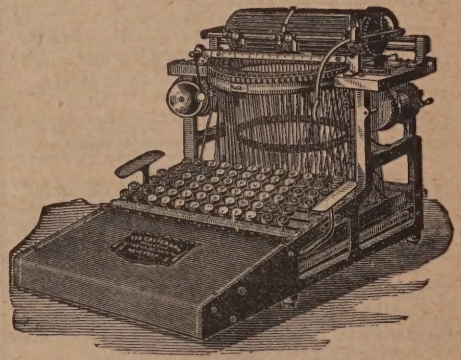

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 30, 1891.

The Week.

THE reluctance of French manufacturers to take part in the World's Fair at Chicago, of which we have abundant evidence in the reports of the Chambers of Commerce, is due to the bad feeling created by the McKinley Bill, and to the belief entertained that any expense incurred in exhibiting goods would be lost by reason of the commercial restrictions which that measure was intended to create and has created. Nobody cares to spend his money for mere purposes of show. Unless trade follows as a consequence of the exhibition, the money will be sunk. It is very easy to say to France, "You're another," and to point to the prohibition of American pork and to the high protective duties that France maintains against us and against other countries. It does not advance matters, or help on the Fair, to show that both countries are wedded to a false system. It should serve, however, to open the eyes of people on both sides to the absurdity of inviting each other to show their goods and then creating barriers to prevent each other from buying and selling. Imagine an American McKinleyite meeting his French brother at a World's Fair in Paris or in Chicago, and exhibiting to the latter a choice lot of provisions put up in Mr. Armour's most approved style, while the latter exhibits a fine assortment of woollens, silks, gloves, etc. If they could look in each other's faces without laughing, they must have a gravity exceeding that of two Roman augurs. Ordinary self-respect ought to teach the commercial classes of both countries to keep away from World's Fairs until they learn the A B C's of trade.

The Canadian newspaper *Hardware*, published at Toronto, has an editorial article, under date of July 18, discussing the reasons why American pig lead is sold in Montreal at $3.60 to $3.75 per cwt., while the price of the same article in New York is $4.40 to $4.45. It relates the experience of a Canadian buyer in New York, who asked the price of pig lead of a firm of metal-dealers, and received the answer, $4.40. The Montrealer replied, "I will sell you American lead in Montreal at $3.75 as an outside figure"; and he added, "You could have knocked them down with a feather." The reason why American lead is sold to foreigners cheaper than to Americans is that we have a precious tariff for the protection of home industry which puts a duty of two cents per pound on pig lead. This enables the producers to charge the American consumer more for it than they could otherwise get; so of course they can afford to sell to Canadians for less. It is all very simple. The same thing is done with hundreds of other articles.

The London *Economist* is of the opinion that no large part of the gold exported from the United States to Europe this year will be returned this fall, even though the balance of trade may seem to require it. The reason why it holds this opinion is that it is not needed here. The circulation is filling up with silver certificates at the rate of 4½ millions per month. These will go a great way to relieve the autumnal pressure for money to move the crops, which pressure, although felt first in New York, would otherwise fall upon London and Paris. The apprehension felt here that, under the operation of the 4½-million law, we are drifting to a silver basis, the *Economist* thinks not altogether groundless. Its discussion of our financial situation, while marked with its customary intelligence and discrimination, leaves something to be desired. If Europe takes an unusual quantity of our breadstuffs this fall, and at higher prices than usual, how will she pay for it? It may be said that she will pay in the things that America particularly wants, and that America does not particularly want gold, since she allows silver to take the place of it in her domestic economy. That would be a fair answer, yet the *Economist* refrains from pursuing the subject to a conclusion, and says instead that "it is impossible to say in advance exactly what course affairs may take." It is, indeed, hazardous to make a prediction, yet all the signs point to the working of Gresham's law, that when two kinds of money are in use on equal terms, the poorer will drive the better out of circulation. Gold and silver are not on exactly equal terms as yet, but the 4½-million law, and the crusade of the free-coinage party together, have produced a situation uncomfortably near that which permits the operation of that law.

The employment of convicts under contract with private persons is upon many accounts objectionable, although many of the objections most commonly urged against it are of a kind that imply that convicts ought not to work at all. So far as the nature of the employment is concerned, it is difficult to understand why any free laborer should desire to prevent convicts from doing all the mining that there is to be done; but the employment of convicts and free laborers together is a practice that is entirely indefensible upon any ground whatever, and the furnishing of convict laborers to contractors, to be used by them in the place of striking miners, is, to say the least, injudicious. As we understand the matter, both these mistakes have been committed in Tennessee, and the outbreak at Briceville seems to be directly due to them. Still, it will do no harm to remember that within ten years, no farther away than the neighboring city of Brooklyn, contractors were employing male convicts and female free laborers in the same shops and on the same benches.

The peaceful ending of the trouble between the Tennessee miners and the State Government is upon the whole creditable to both parties. The Government will enforce the objectionable law, but it is understood that an extra session of the Legislature is to be called at which the repeal of the law will take place, the miners thus obtaining eventually all that they have claimed. It is impossible not to regret that so large a body of citizens should feel it incumbent upon themselves to unite in nullifying the action of the constituted authorities, but it must be admitted that they have behaved with the greatest sobriety and self-restraint, and they belong to a class that has always been in the habit of taking the law into its own hands. Even if they have practically won the victory, they have done so by an apparent surrender to the Government, so that it cannot be said that the majesty of the law has been altogether contemned. At all events, if we compare the events that have just taken place in East Tennessee with those that occurred at Pittsburgh in 1877, the contrast is a decidedly agreeable one. There is every indication that episodes of this description are to be more frequent in the future than they have been in the past. Whether there is more disposition to violate law than formerly perhaps cannot be told, but there is certainly far more sympathy extended to law-breakers when they profess to represent an oppressed class, and there is a timidity on the part of governments that is almost a new phenomenon in history.

A statement was made on Friday before the Philadelphia Councils' Committee by R. J. Cook, business manager of the Philadelphia *Press*, in regard to the 40 per cent. rebate paid by the *Press* to Bardsley's agent for city advertising. The statement is an extraordinary one. The manager of the *Press* solicited this advertising from the Auditor-General. There was an indefinite reply. A man soon after called at the *Press* office with an offer to give the paper the advertising if it would make a rebate of 40 per cent. This the paper did, and it did it in this way: The *Press* made out a bill for the whole amount against the city, which Bardsley receipted for. Then it paid back the 40 per cent. to the "striker," leaving the impression from the city's voucher that the *Press* had received the whole amount. Pressed for the name of this "striker," Cook at first refused to give it, and then named an employee of the Auditor-General's office now dead. He declared that he did not know that this man was an office-holder, although it was brought out that he had served a long time.

The *Press* paid rebates to this office-holder's successor, but Cook absolutely refused to give this man's name to the Committee, on the ground that "it might do harm to the living." Finally, when asked if he thought the publication of this particular advertisement (which the *Press* had asked for) did any public good, Cook replied: "I think it has been a fraud from the beginning." The *Press* is one of the papers that find most to admire in Wanamaker.

There seems to be a growth of public sentiment against prohibition in Maine. Certainly there is a more pronounced and sincere tone in the protests against the policy uttered by men of character and standing now than ever before. Especially notable is a deliverance on the subject from the Maine Pharmaceutical Society at its annual meeting in Portland last week, through the address of Mr. C. K. Partridge, its President. He began by pointing out that, under the prohibitory law, if the apothecary fills the prescription of a physician for alcoholic stimulants, "his legal place of residence is the county jail, and, in addition thereto, his pocketbook should be legally mulcted in a handsome sum." As to the general policy of prohibition and its effects, Mr. Partridge said:

"Such prohibition, after nearly half a century's trial in Maine, has proved a moral, political, demi-religious fraud. Originally enacted from the best of motives, as a 'sovereign remedy' for intemperance, its empiricism has been fully demonstrated. It has grown, like a fungus, on the body politic, stimulated by a combination of dark-lantern societies with demagogy, fanaticism, political intimidation, and intolerance of individual rights. It has shown total inadequacy for its avowed purpose of promoting real temperance and good morals. It is at the root of many evils—in its train are hypocrisy, perjury, fanaticism, growing disrespect for all laws, secret dram-drinking, and a host of minor ills. It is a miscarried effort to 'legislate the Kingdom of God into the heart of man by indirection,' inasmuch as it places an act not a crime of itself in the same category with the worst crimes."

Among other things Mr. Partridge said: "A literal and impartial enforcement of the present statutes of prohibition, could such be made throughout the State, would demonstrate the internal weakness of these laws, and result in purging the prohibitory amendment from the Constitution; but such a course has hitherto been impracticable, for officers appointed to enforce the lower law of prohibition have generally been found to have some regard for the higher law of humanity." By a curious coincidence, Gov. Burleigh sent a communication to the Sheriff of Aroostook County, on the same day that this address was delivered in Portland, which fully sustains the position here taken. The Governor calls the Sheriff's attention to complaints that have been made that the prohibitory laws are not being properly enforced, says that it is the plain and imperative duty of every officer charged with the enforcement of these laws to see that they are administered according to their spirit and intent, and intimates that, if more efficiency is not shown, special constables will be appointed. This is precisely the experience through which Massachusetts went before it abolished prohibition. As the local sentiment of the various counties would not sustain the law, an attempt was made to enforce it through a State constabulary, but this proved even a worse failure than the other, and it was finally concluded that there was no use in trying by any device to maintain a law which the people did not sustain. Mr. Partridge evidently believes that this will be the result in Maine.

The announcement is made that the inhabitants of Kansas City are about to be supplied with cool air in summer and warm air in winter through a system of pipes laid in the streets. At the same time we are informed that the people of Framingham, Mass., are to be furnished with gas for heating purposes at the price of 50 cents a thousand feet. Thus the ends of the land are advancing in the art of living while the metropolis remains stationary and is kept from falling behind only by incessant grumbling. And yet the possibilities of comfort, of health, and even of cheapness revealed in these schemes are wonderfully alluring, and their realization would be prevented by no physical obstacles. If we consider that wonderful work of human hands, the kitchen range, under the management of the regular cook, who knows how to put on all the draught at once and keep it on, what a devourer of fuel it is! We need a cup of tea or a chop in summer, and a fire is kindled that would generate steam enough to drive an ocean racer a mile upon her course, the kitchen is turned into a Tophet, the miserable servants swelter in the apartments which their own stupidity and that of mankind have rendered uninhabitable, and their employers are rendered uncomfortable above. The extravagance of the Chinese, who, as related by Charles Lamb, at first thought it necessary to burn down a house whenever they wanted to roast a pig, is nothing to ours. In place of all these trials, heating gas is now supplied to those who have the wit to use it and the enterprise to supply themselves with gas ranges, which can be lighted and extinguished in a moment.

The late Hannibal Hamlin used often to comment upon the change which he had witnessed in the popular estimation of old age. When he was young, he said, it was the custom to regard a man as old and ready for retirement when he had passed fifty, whereas he lived to see the time when nobody was surprised at a man's keeping hard at work after reaching seventy. An illustration of this fact has just been furnished in Chicago. In 1870, Mr. Henry W. Blodgett was appointed Judge of the United States District Court for the Northern District of Illinois. Last week he reached the age of seventy. The law provides that a Federal judge who reaches that age after having served ten years on the bench may retire upon a pension equal to his salary, and Mr. Blodgett has been asked whether he intended to avail himself of the privilege. He replies that he does not; his health is good, he feels perfectly competent to keep at work, and he has grown so used to work that he should not know how to get along without it. Judge Blodgett is by no means singular in this preference. Two of the nine judges of the United States Supreme Court (Bradley and Field) are far past seventy, and might have retired on pensions long ago; Judge Miller was well advanced in his seventy-fifth year at his death; and Judge Blatchford was seventy last year.

There was an exciting and characteristic scene in the French Chamber when the duty on cotton yarn was voted. It was very much like some scenes in our own Congress when tariff men have a misunderstanding in public about the division of the spoils. The French cotton-spinners wanted a heavy duty on yarn, and their representatives declared roundly that if it was not granted, they would kick the whole bill to perdition. The weavers protested against the duty, saying that they could hardly keep their heads above water now, and that if they had to pay a higher price for yarn, they should be ruined. There was no McKinley present to tell them that the proposed duty on yarn would make the price lower. M. Méline, the champion of the bill, reproached the weavers for opposing the duty on yarn after they had secured duties on cloth which were really higher than there was any need of! The Chamber voted for the increased duty by 277 to 242, and immediately afterwards, by way of compromise, voted to admit yarns free when used in the manufacture of goods for export. Then M. Méline indignantly moved that the entire article relating to cotton yarns be rejected, and this motion was carried by 358 to 151. Then M. Delafosse, the representative of the cotton-spinners, declared that he would vote against every other section of the bill that carried an increase of duty and would vote against the whole bill on its final passage. The scene was happily contrived to illustrate the system which Bastiat called "progress by robbery." It is a pity that somebody had not risen and read that particular chapter of the French economist which shows how a certain people appointed a committee to assign sections of road to particular persons and classes, giving them the exclusive right to take purses on their own divisions, subject to the risk of being themselves robbed whenever they travelled beyond their proper precincts.

The fear expressed by French writers and artists, in their remonstrance against the policy of commercial isolation upon which their country is entering, that retaliatory legislation might take the form of withdrawing the guarantees of literary and artistic property now accorded them in other lands, appears at first sight to be justified by

the announcement that both Belgium and Switzerland have given notice of their desire to terminate their treaties with France covering the rights of authors and artists. But this step is far from being conclusive, even in the case of those two countries. Each of them has a domestic law practically assuring foreign writers the same rights as native, and this legislation would have to be repealed in order to make the termination of the treaties really effective. Even in that case, there would still remain the Berne Convention, to which Belgium and Switzerland adhere, and which gives the citizen of any signatory Power the same rights in any other as those of its own subjects. This international agreement would also have to be thrown over, therefore, and it is altogether unlikely that either Belgium or Switzerland would think of doing it and joining the ranks of the barbarians again. Thus it would seem that, whatever forms of reprisal French protective legislation may provoke, the property rights of the literary and artistic producers of France are to remain well secured abroad. In fact, they are all the while being extended. The recent Franco-Brazilian treaty is a highly important one for French interests, and is to be followed by others with Spanish-American republics; there are already treaties with Bolivia, Ecuador, and Mexico. Then, too, France has just entered into the benefits of our own new law, such as they are, and is on the point, so it is reported, of concluding a treaty for the protection of literary property with Russia.

The Portuguese Minister of Finance hopes to find a way out of the severe difficulties that confront him by negotiating reciprocity treaties with South American countries, and so making Lisbon a depot of distribution for Europe. This is the latest attempt to conduct international trade on the basis of sentiment rather than profit. Both Spain and Portugal are unable to get it into their heads that their ancient connection with South America does not give them a vast advantage in their efforts to secure a greater share in South American commerce. A great association for the promotion of better trade relations between Spain and her ancient dependencies has recently been formed in the commercial cities of the Peninsula, and there have been banquets, and fervent messages to "our sisters in the New World," and a general sentimental overflow. The Spanish newspapers predict important results from the movement, and draw affecting pictures of the South American exporters turning their backs on alien German and English traders, and falling upon the necks of the shipmasters of Barcelona and Cadiz. The funniest part of it is, that the South Americans warmly reciprocate these advances, as far as talk goes, though they keep on buying and selling as before. When all is said, however, we ourselves have been as ridiculous as any of them in much of the talk that has been current among our public men. It has been set down as an axiom that trade has a sentimental desire to "follow the flag," and that if we can only make the South Americans think we are jolly good fellows, they will buy our goods without being too particular as to price. The Spanish and Portuguese contention that trade will follow common language and inheritance is just as strong on *a-priori* grounds, and also just as badly supported by facts.

The newly elected Brazilian Congress began its sessions on June 15, and is giving the believers in the inevitable congestion and inefficiency of representative assemblies plenty of comfort. At least, the first ten days were marked by an overwhelming flood of private bills and, in the Senate particularly, by a breaking up into fiercely personal and factional cliques. All this, it should be remembered, is in the face, and to the neglect, so far, of the vast amount of the most urgent public business demanding the attention of the Congress. The new Constitution remains practically suspended in the air, for lack of the proper laws putting it in force in its various spheres. The municipal government of Rio Janeiro is actually devoid of legal existence and is clamoring for recognition and reorganization. The criminal law is in pressing need of codification. In short, there is an abundance of subjects of the gravest public concern which ought to receive immediate consideration, and it is certainly discouraging to note the way they are made to defer to private interests.

A kindred weakness of parliamentary government was conspicuously displayed by the Spanish Cortes during the last few weeks prior to adjournment. In that case an irresistible outbreak of oratory brought the public business to an absolute standstill, and left the Administration with its most important bills completely stranded. First came a full week of orations about a crime over which Madrid was agog, but with which the Cortes had not a thing to do directly. Then came up the Cuban budget, and for ten days the declamation beat upon the "blue benches." The Government begged for a respite, offering night sessions for the relief of the bursting orators, but all would not do; the tireless Cubans talked the session to death, and the new fiscal year came in with the budget, both for Spain and the colonies, not voted. The only tangible thing in the whole debate was the declaration of the Premier that Spain would spend her last cent and send her last fighting man to death before giving up Cuba, while, at the same time, he made the significant admission that the treaty with the United States could be secured only by some sacrifice on the part of Spanish interests.

President Pellegrini of the Argentine Republic writes a very long and diffuse letter in reply to a communication received by him from the Chamber of Commerce. He declares that the expenses of the Government have been greatly lessened in numerous ways. The interest on the public debt is no longer paid, except that upon one loan which was secured upon the customs receipts; the construction of new railways has been stopped; nothing is being done toward the completion of the public works, with the exception of some expenditures necessary to preserve them from destruction, and 1,500 public officers have been discharged within the last few months. He refuses to concede any reduction of import duties or of railway tariffs, and suggests the formation of a new bank "with fresh capital to regulate the circulation, to reëstablish credit, and to put in motion commerce and industry." But, he observes, capital is not forthcoming for this enterprise. It is not reassuring to have the President suggest more banks as a means of relief from the trouble. But if it be true that as against importations of $55,000,000 there will be exports amounting to $130,000,000 or $140,000,000 during the current year, the situation is certainly hopeful. We fear, however, that this view is too sanguine.

The accounts from China of the riots now prevailing in the Empire seem to reflect the ignorance and uncertainty in which even the best-informed foreign residents are left. A correspondent writes us, under date of June 25, that it is precisely "the old China hand" who is most hesitant in advancing a theory as to the cause of the disturbances. As far as obtaining information from native sources is concerned, the difficulty is to break through the mask of official falsehood and to discriminate between ignorant or obsequious and intelligent and honest informants. The various hypothetical explanations of the riots are given as follows by our correspondent: "Hatred of foreigners in general; hatred of missionaries; hatred of the Peking Government; hatred of the Viceroy of Nanking; the machinations of the *Kolao Hin*, a secret society originally a military benevolent organization, but now political and revolutionary." He adds: "It is probable that all the foregoing causes have been operative, but it is the belief of the best informed that the immediate cause of the riots is to be found in hostility to the new Viceroy of Nanking, on account of his retrenchments in the matter of pensions to the soldiers of the imperial forces disbanded at the close of the Taiping rebellion; that these disaffected soldiers are for the most part members of the *Kolao Hin*, and that their leaders have taken advantage of the popular hatred of missionaries, and, to a much less extent, of foreigners in general, to provoke riots with the ultimate purpose of embarrassing the Viceroy, and possibly embroiling the Chinese Government with other nations. At all events, the Viceroy proceeded on the hypothesis that the *Kolao Hin* was the moving cause of the riots, and issued a strong proclamation against it."

FORAKER AS A TYPE.

The most noteworthy feature of the Ohio canvass is the reappearance of Foraker as the chief man in the Republican party. When he was beaten for reëlection to the Governorship two years ago by more than 10,000 votes, on the same day that all his associate candidates on the Republican ticket were successful by pluralities running up as high as 4,400 votes, it was taken for granted that his political career was over. During the campaign which culminated in this defeat, he had brought out what proved to be a forged paper purporting to be a contract by which Mr. James E. Campbell, a member of Congress and the Democratic candidate for the Governorship, Senator Sherman and Congressmen McKinley and Butterworth had agreed to use their influence to secure the adoption by Congress of a patent ballot-box, in return for which they were to receive a share of the expected profits. In other words, the Republican Senator from Ohio and the two most prominent Republican Representatives were represented as conspiring with a Democratic Representative to push through a shameless job for pay, and Foraker made the charge public without having asked any one of his three party associates whether there might not be some mistake about it. The document was proved to be a forgery as soon as it was made public, and the indignation at Foraker's conduct in the affair was so widespread that he alone of all the Republican candidates on the State ticket was defeated, and, it was generally supposed, politically buried.

Within two years, however, he is back again, virtually in control of the party organization. At the Republican State Convention he was the hero of the day; he refused to allow Sherman either the chairmanship of the body or the compliment of a personal endorsement in the platform; he has since required McKinley to put Foraker men in charge of the gubernatorial canvass; and he has now practically announced that he means to take the Senatorship if he can get it. What is more important, he evidentdently controls the Machine so completely that he seems likely to succeed in his purpose if the Republicans carry the Legislature and so have a Senatorship to dispose of.

The reappearance of Foraker as the Republican leader in Ohio is, at first thought, calculated to surprise the observer. One is inclined to wonder what there is in the political atmosphere of Ohio which revives such a man after he had seemed to be dead. It appears natural to suppose that there must be some peculiarity of environment to account for so extraordinary a phenomenon. The outsider finds himself speculating as to what local influences may be at work in the commonwealth to breed such politicians. But the truth is, that all such speculation is aside from the mark. Foraker is again a Republican leader, not because he chances to live in Ohio, but because he is the sort of man the Republican party of the nation now honors everywhere. A skilful political manager, he understands how to "run the machine," and is popular with the "hustlers" who attend to the caucuses and see that the conventions are made up of the right sort of men. He is a master of that clap-trap oratory of the stump which exhausts itself in abuse of the "rebels" and condemnation of "free trade" as a Confederate notion. He is "down on" the Mugwumps, and despises civil-service reform as a fad of the "doctrinaires." In short, he is the sort of leader whom the "boys" know that they can depend upon to look out for them, and the party workers are therefore enthusiastic for him.

The leader of the Republican party of Ohio in its early history was Salmon P. Chase. It is not necessary to trace in detail the contrast between Chase as he was in his best days and Foraker. There were men of the Foraker sort at that time, as there have always been, but they were not prominent in the Republican organization. There were two reasons for this. In the first place, the party represented great principles then, and great principles develop great men—such men as Chase in Ohio, Seward in New York, and Lincoln in Illinois. In the second place, the earnest men who were most influential in the organization were always strong enough to keep under foot the self-seekers who were "in politics for what they could make out of it." A clever stump-speaker and wire-puller could not in those days thrust to one side the men who had proved their readiness to sacrifice their own prospects by taking a stand for what they believed to be the right.

All this is now changed. The Republican party no longer stands for great principles. Its great leaders are nearly all gone, and John Sherman, the sole survivor in active life, seems like the veteran who lags superfluous on the stage. A new class of men has come to the front in their stead—men like Thomas C. Platt in New York, Matthew S. Quay in Pennsylvania, Joseph B. Foraker in Ohio, and J. S. Clarkson in Iowa. They would smile at men like Seward and Chase and Lincoln, who were ready to champion a cause which might be beaten at the next election, or like Grimes, who would not hesitate himself to vote against his party, as in the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, if he thought it was trying to do a wrong. At the same time the class of men who would have restrained the Platts and Quays and Forakers and Clarksons a quarter of a century ago no longer have any influence with the Republican party, having been driven either into active opposition or at least into an independent attitude by the long and unquestioned dominance of these leaders.

It is, therefore, as a type that Foraker is to-day most impressive. It is not because he chances to live in Ohio that he is the most popular leader of the Republican party in his State. There is no reason why he should not be just as influential if he had grown up in the State of John A. Andrew, for he is the sort of man whom the Republican party of to-day everywhere most honors.

COMMISSIONER RAUM ON PENSIONS AND PATRIOTISM.

It is now thirty years since the outbreak of the great civil war, and no one who remembers those early days has ever doubted the genuineness of the patriotism that then blazed forth throughout the length and breadth of the land. It was confined to no class. It was felt in the college and on the farm, in the counting-house and in the workshop, in the luxurious homes of the rich and in the cottages of the poor. It was no mere wild outburst of wrath and hatred, although that element was not absent from it, but a strong, clear flame of love to country, of devotion to the Union that had been bought at so heavy a price by our forefathers and that had brought so many blessings to their posterity, and of determination that that Union should not be recklessly and ruthlessly destroyed. Of all the countless wars in which our race has been engaged, there have not been many in which the proportion of men who sprang to arms because they felt it to be the call of duty has been larger, in which the proportion of men who enlisted from baser motives was at first smaller.

It was not in human nature that this elevation of sentiment should be enduring. Among some of our soldiers we know that it did endure through four years of trial and disappointment, of hopes deferred and of sufferings both their own and of those who were dear to them. But we know also that there came a time when volunteers came forward only in response to special pecuniary inducement, when volunteering itself ceased and the draft became necessary, and that at last there came the evil days of substitutes and enormous bounties and bounty-jumpers and desertions and reënlistments. In those days the flame of patriotism burnt lower than at first. The core of the army was true, but it was flecked and scarred with corruption. There were many men in it who had acquired military discipline and who had at the same time learned to love military license. There were many who were brave—and physical courage is the cheapest and commonest of all the virtues—but who cared little what cause they fought for. There were many who were cowards—we would not put the number so high as Gen. Sheridan put it, but there were many who cared only for their bounties and their pay and their rations, who skulked on the battle-field, and deserted when they thought they could do so without detection. In short, our army, like other great armies, was made up of all sorts and conditions of men. There were many patriots of the purest type, and there were many of the vilest scoundrels that the substitute brokers could scrape out of the lowest slums of our great cities.

According to the definition of patriotism now announced by Commissioner Raum in the current number of the *North American Review*, and apparently acquiesced in by a large majority of the Grand Army of the Republic, there is no distinction between these classes. In their view, to be a soldier was to be a patriot. The uniform of itself imparted virtue, and whoever shouldered a musket, though he did it intending to shoot

his own officers and desert at the first opportunity, earned the eternal gratitude of the people of this country and became entitled to have this gratitude expressed in a pecuniary form. "The paltry dollars which a soldier receives as monthly pay for his military service in time of war cannot be considered a suitable equivalent for his patriotic services." That equivalent is only to be found in additional, many additional, dollars. The prospect of these additional dollars is necessary in order "to stimulate the spirit of patriotism in the people." To the patriot of the future all the brave talk about repelling the invader and preserving the Union, of defending home and liberty, will be meaningless. To all this he will reply: That is all very fine, but how much money is there in it for me? And if a satisfactory "equivalent" is not offered him, we suppose that patriotism is not to be expected to appear. And this "pig-philosophy" is presented to the people of this country as an explanation of the patriotic uprising that we have described above. Commissioner Raum is of the opinion that hereafter the descendants of those who served in the civil war "will venerate their ancestors' names all the more because they were pensioned for their honorable services." It is not probable that he is capable of rising to any higher appreciation of the causes that arouse the emotion of veneration, but it is safe to say that that emotion has never yet been known to be aroused by such causes as he suggests, nor will it be while human nature remains the same.

It is hardly necessary to say that the arguments with which Commissioner Raum supports his case do not deserve serious consideration, but some of them are so suggestive that we shall restate them with some of his facts. The hardships undergone by our soldiers between twenty-six and thirty years ago were sustained under the influence of a patriotic elation that in many cases prevented immediately injurious results, but a reaction has now come, and "with it that multitude of incurable ailments which have baffled the skill of the most learned physicians in the land." Probably 600,000 of the survivors of the war "were so impaired in health that they have lost at least twelve years of the usual expectation of life." They have lost the ability to support themselves by their labor, and it is the duty of the country which owes its existence to their services, to pay them from $6 to $12 a month as long as they live. All widows of deceased soldiers, whether able to support themselves or not, unless they have an independent income, are to receive $8 a month, and all soldiers' children under sixteen years of age are to receive $2 a month. There are now living some 1,208,000 soldiers of the Union. Of these, 478,000 are now on the pension rolls, as well as 120,000 widows and other dependents. There are now pending claims to the number of 1,095,099.

In this immediate connection it is instructive to be told that "the men who fought to save the Union were not mercenaries." "They do not propose by any action on their part to withdraw from the sympathetic touch" of their fellow-citizens—which we interpret to mean that their receptive capacity is not limited to what they get in the shape of pensions. "They know that their services during the war merited the respect of their fellow-citizens, and by no act of theirs will they forfeit that respect while life lasts." The tainted official who utters these words is little qualified to speak of what merits respect, well as he may understand how it is forfeited. Had he said that those whose sentiments he expresses would by no act of theirs forfeit the pecuniary "equivalent" which they had secured for their services from their fellow-citizens, no one would have questioned his statements.

GOVERNMENT INSURANCE IN FRANCE.

THE scheme of State insurance just brought forward by the French Government is thoroughly exposed by M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu in the columns of *L'Économiste Français*. That journal, he observes, has for the last eight or ten years denounced the Panama Canal enterprise as the most *charlatanesque* affair of this century. The Government insurance project, however, surpasses that of the Panama Canal in charlatanry, and has not been equalled since the days of Law. The plan contemplates the payment by the Government of a pension of from 300 to 600 francs to every workman, employee, *métayer*, and domestic of either sex who shall, from the age of twenty-five years to that of fifty-five, pay a premium of from five to ten centimes for every working-day; the employer being obliged to add to this an equal contribution, and the sum to be further increased by a contribution on the part of the Government of two-thirds of the amount. No one, however, is to receive this pension who cannot swear that he is not in receipt of an income of more than 600 francs, and no one is admitted to the privileges of the scheme at all unless his income is less than 3,000 francs. Every person employing a foreigner must pay into this fund ten centimes a day, although foreigners are excluded from its benefits. In order to start the enterprise, persons from twenty-five to forty years of age are permitted to come in. The Government also guarantees to members of the same classes, in consideration of a slight supplementary premium, the payment of a gross sum of 500 to 1,000 francs at death, provided death does not occur for two years from the time of beginning payments. The cost to the Government of this system, when in full operation, would not be more than 100,000,000 francs per annum—according to the estimate of the Government; but according to M. Leroy-Beaulieu, it would be nearer a milliard.

These payments are not, strictly speaking, obligatory upon the classes to be benefited, but the law presumes that all members of these classes will accept it. Unless the workman or servant makes a declaration before the *maire* of his commune that he declines the insurance, it becomes obligatory upon the person employing him to carry out this scheme by keeping back from his wages the sum of five centimes, or ten if the workman prefers, for every working day, to add the same amount from his own pocket, and to pay over the sum to the *caisse nationale des Retraites ouvrières*. It does not seem easy to apply the scheme to *métayers*, who do not receive wages, but it would be far more difficult to make it work in the case of workmen who move about from one town to another, or even change their employers. The increase in the cares of housekeeping, if this system were to be enforced in the case of servants, would be something formidable.

As M. Leroy-Beaulieu points out, the scheme proceeds upon the common assumption that the employer is rich; that he is always able to pay more wages than he does. But in a country like France, a country of small proprietors and of industry and commerce upon a small scale, this assumption is peculiarly ill founded. It is not uncommon to hear it said in some parts of the United States that the farmer is worse off than his hired man. The hired man gets his living and his wages too, but the farmer works just as hard and only gets his living. But in France this situation is the rule rather than the exception. The small proprietor cannot afford to hire help for many days in the year; and to be obliged to pay a fine of ten or twenty centimes whenever he did so would be extremely oppressive. Even more than this is true of the great majority of employers of domestic servants. It is impossible to believe that this application of direct taxation to the household of every small proprietor in France will not arouse a general revolt against the Government.

Of course if the employer cannot afford to pay this charge, which brings no advantage to him, he must reduce the wages of his servant, and the expense to the Government of the whole enterprise must be made up by taxation. Thus the unfortunate workman or servant would suffer a direct reduction of his wages in his own contribution, a second reduction in the contribution which his master would be obliged to transfer to his shoulders, and a third reduction in the increased taxes which the enormous expense of operating such a system would entail upon the country. At first, of course, the Government would receive much greater sums than it paid out. After a time, however, the death-claims would rapidly increase, and after thirty years the pension charge would begin. To meet these increased expenses the Government should have accumulated a large reserve; but it is not safe to trust any Government with the custody of large reserves, and it is peculiarly unsafe to trust the French Government, in view of its customary annual deficits, with the custody of such a reserve as this. When it was wanted, it would be found not to exist, and its loss would have to be made up, if at all, by increased taxation. It should amount to 12 milliards of francs, a sum which M. Leroy-Beaulieu declares it would be impossible to invest safely.

In order to sustain its statement that the expense of the system would not exceed 100,000,000 francs a year, the Government assumes that the premiums could be capitalized at 4 per cent. There is no basis for this assumption, a rate of 3 per cent. or even less being all that the current rates

upon Government debts would justify. This miscalculation would add 100,000,000 or 150,000,000 francs to the deficit. Again, it is assumed that the workman's yearly total of working days is 290, but this number is too great if we allow for sickness, military service, hindrances from weather, from loss of place, etc.; and the deficit would be largely increased in this way. No allowance is made for the expense of operating a business necessarily complicated in the extreme, and here again many millions of francs would be absorbed. It would be impossible for the Government to carry out the plan of confiscating lapsed premiums. To force insurance upon the poor, and then, if they fail through any accident to keep up their payments, to deprive them of all that they have paid unless they make up the deficiency, would be intolerable. Voluntary insurance associations have had to modify rules of this character, and the Government would find their enforcement too odious. Another cause of deficit is found by M. Leroy-Beaulieu in the assumption by the Government that, of 5,760,000 workmen beginning payments at the age of twenty-five years, there will be only 3,000,000 entitled to pensions at the end of thirty years.

When we consider the universal disgust and exasperation over the operation of the new insurance law in Germany, it seems extraordinary that the French Government should have brought forward such a proposal as this. It is safe to say that it will be rejected by the people if they ever have a chance to express their opinion of it.

THE JEWS AND ITALY.

ITALY, July 15, 1891.

WITH the publication of the two volumes of philosophy, the series of Carlo Cattaneo's Literary, Economical, and Philosophical Works will be completed within the year, and there is at last a fair prospect that the publication of his political writings and of his wonderful letters may commence next February, on the twenty-second anniversary of his death. Every year that passes proves the wisdom of the Lombard seer when he warned the Italians that their violent, sudden, disorderly centralization would lead them to the loss of all that each separate province had inherited from the past and preclude their local progress in the future. Looking over his manuscripts to-day for the selection of those best suited for the first political volume, and making the inventory of the contents of those already published, I chanced upon the remarkable series of articles written when he was thirty-five years of age concerning the "interdictions imposed by civil legislation on the Israelites," every word of which fits like a glove the terrible situation in which they find themselves in "Holy Russia" at the present moment. Curiously enough, these articles were suggested to the student of all the aspects of social life by two circumstances, one of which to-day reads like a fable.

In 1835, the year before the "Ricerche economiche sulle interdizioni imposte dalla legge civile agli Israeliti" were published in the *Annali di Giurisprudenza*, edited by Zini in Lombardy, a ukase provided that, in the various provinces of Russia, with a few exceptions, all Jews who chose to devote themselves to agricultural pursuits should be exempted from taxation for twenty-five years; if they formed colonies, for fifty. They were to be exempted from the poll-tax, from any tax on land, and also from military service. The other circumstance which called Cattaneo's attention to the position of the Jews in Europe resembles the one which to-day arises in the case of Jews who are British subjects and who find themselves in Russia. Last July, a notice which appeared in the London *Gazette* relative to the rights of British subjects travelling in Russia, attracted the attention of the Anglo-Jewish Association. As it was apprehended that a difference would be made between Christian and Jewish subjects of Great Britain to the detriment of the latter, a memorial was sent to Lord Salisbury claiming for British Jews visiting Russia full and unrestricted rights under the treaty of navigation and commerce of 1859, in the same manner as can be enjoyed by Christian British subjects. The result of this memorial, and of subsequent communications with the Foreign Office, was that Lord Salisbury consulted the law officers of the Crown, who advised that as long as the disabilities to which British and Russian Jews are subjected are substantially the same, the Russian Government having maintained that foreign Jews in Russia could not claim rights withheld from native Jews, it was not open to her Majesty's Government to depart from the interpretation of existing treaties laid down by Lord Granville in a despatch of December 28, 1881.

In 1836 a case in point of the rights of French subjects, Jews or Catholics, in Switzerland attracted the attention of Cattaneo to the question. Until 1791, the disabilities of Jews in France were iniquitous. A Jew might not inhabit a house where there was a single Christian occupant, or trade in any place except where he had his fixed domicile—in Paris he was forbidden to trade at all. He had to pay toll like beasts of burden, and, even when converted to Christianity, the feudal lord could sequestrate his belongings. In 1791 all these iniquitous laws were abolished: Jews could purchase and possess, could trade and live, where they pleased. The institution of civil marriage opened out to them the possibility of forming family ties with their fellow-subjects, and the same liberties were enjoyed by them in Italy wherever the Giuseppino code prevailed. In 1807, at the great *sinedro* convoked by all the synagogues of Europe in Paris, which was, after the dispersion of the Jews, the first solemn act celebrated in the name of the whole Jewish nation, it was enjoined on all the Jews in Italy and in France "to purchase landed property, and thus to attach themselves to the country of their birth or residence; to renounce those practices which had rendered them odious in the eyes of their fellow-countrymen, and to do all in their power to captivate esteem and benevolence." And as if to compensate them for past injuries, they were admitted to military service, and in those days of military madness this was esteemed an honor. They were forbidden to pay for substitutes. Thus all the Jews of Italy and France who were neither blind nor halt nor deformed, were suddenly educated to the use of arms.

In 1825–6 two treaties had been concluded between France and Switzerland by which reciprocity of treatment was conceded for the Swiss in France and for the French in Switzerland. In the latter country, the Jews were under disabilities; in the former these had been removed. The brothers Wahl, Jews of Mulhouse, once a free city allied to Switzerland, at that time united to France, had purchased an estate in Baselland, where the municipal statutes excluded Jews from holding landed property; but they purchased as French subjects, not as Jews: "Frenchmen in France, Frenchmen in Switzerland." The Swiss authorities declared it absurd that foreign Jews should have rights denied to native Jews. "That," says Cattaneo, "should have been decided when the treaties were made. France demands equality in Switzerland for all her citizens; she makes no distinction between Jews and Christians. The treaty with France is posterior to the statute of the municipality." He then enters into the practical issues of the question. An Israelite brings capital into Basle in order to fertilize the lands of the commune. Why refuse this?

"Has the money brought by the Jews a bad odor? A vine planted by a Jew—brings it forth bitter or poisonous grapes? The inhabitants of Basle do not prevent Israelites from making money in their commune to enrich themselves by commerce with themselves, yet they seek to hinder them from consecrating their savings in works useful to the community. Thus they would force them to make money in Basle and go out of the commune to spend it in foreign countries. They allow them to arrive poor and to depart when they have become rich. It is to the interest of the inhabitants to allow the Israelites who, by their industry, have amassed millions, to spend them in fertilizing and enriching their soil. They allow Jews to lay out money on mortgages, and refuse them leave to spend it in purchase; this is to their own hurt. We abstain from all appeal to tolerance or to humanity. The brothers Wahl are capitalists who seek a country in which to invest their money. All France, England, Spain, Lombardy, and other States are open to them; they select Basle, and the peasant population of that *campagna* are so ignorant of the elementary laws of wise economy that they diminish the competitors for their lands, thus diminishing the price of them; they repel foreign capital, thus raising the rate of interest."

Cattaneo next, passing from the special case in point to the general question, traces the cruel legislation to its origin; shows how it forced the Jews to hide their wealth and lend only at a high interest, often under promise of secrecy, and how, excluded from the possession of land, after which they always hankered, they invested their money in the most portable, the least visible, shapes—in gems and other objects easily hidden—and, when these were wrested from them, gave themselves up to the most sordid and nauseous commerce, collected rags and refuse, the offal of the streets and plague houses, thus avoiding taxation also. The Israelites in late centuries paid an annual tax for the right of protection from sovereigns, for the right of residence in certain localities. This tax amounted to little more than $10 or $12 per family, but as the individuals were not counted and only a limited number of families were allowed in a certain district, the families united, the children all remained under one roof, never lighting "two fires," so that in time each family became an entire tribe. Excluded from all chance of education in Catholic countries, from the study of natural science and of mathematics, in the Mohammedan schools of Spain alone they could acquire some knowledge. The study of medicine was forbidden to them. Even their dress was prescribed: they were ordered to "perform their religious ceremonies in the most modest and unostentatious manner." Yet every restriction of their liberty and of their civil rights conduced to the enormous increase of their riches and to their parsimony; and, meanwhile, their numbers doubled in a short space of time, despite their frequent expulsions and the extinction of vast numbers from hunger,

suffering, and disease. The vices and degradation of the Jews are to be attributed to all these causes, which the wise legislator must remove, since "he who tolerates the cause approves the effects." Give them, says Cattaneo, their rights and their liberties; educate them; associate them with every hope and joy of national life; thus will they bear the burdens of their country without murmuring, and contribute their share joyfully to its prosperity. The mere fact of living in the same country is not community of life: slaves and serfs are on the same footing as beasts of burden. A proscribed sect is an enemy encamped in the bosom of the nation, and, in the secrecy of its private transactions, renders evil for evil, with interest and compound interest.

The result of the application of these maxims is as evident in Italy as in England. Between a Catholic and a Jew in Italy there is no distinction. Jews are as patriotic as Christians; they fill every office of the State, are ministers of the crown, prefects, mayors, generals in the army, conscripts with the colors. And we may add that in the revolutionary battles for the unity and independence of Italy, Israelites were among Garibaldi's volunteers on the battlefield and in the hospitals, even as Jews of Lombardy and of Mantua shared the plots and expeditions of the Young Italy pioneers. This cannot be said for the Catholics, who, while never raising a hand or wielding a sword for the Pope, either in 1849 or in 1870, abstained from fighting at all, on the pretence of not choosing to commit sacrilege. All attempts to convert the Jews to Catholicism in Italy fail utterly. Intermarriages between Jews and Christians are not infrequent, now that civil marriage is obligatory and the religious ceremony optional and of no legal effect. In short, there is no distinction of any sort visible in the country.

The present Minister of the Treasury is a Jew, and to him we owe what are styled the Popular Cooperative Banks. The title is delusive, as in very rare cases do the "people" succeed in obtaining loans except by giving such security as would enable them to obtain them from any ordinary banks. But what is to the purpose is, that all these banks succeed and have held their own throughout the tremendous commercial crisis which Italy has gone through during these late years. Should Signor Luzzatti succeed in introducing economies into the various departments of the Government without endangering the defences of the country, and without stopping public works which are absolutely necessary for the sanitary and industrial progress of the populations, he will take a place among the benefactors of Italy. At any rate, his being a Jew is no impediment—rather, one chance more in favor of his success.

Naturally, the persecution of the Jews in Russia has excited the indignation of their co-religionists in Italy. Nor is it confined to these. All are horrified at the insane barbarity of the Czar of all the Russias, and regard the expulsion of 3,000,000 Jews as a proof of dementia. The other day, 400 Jews landed at Brindisi in the most miserable plight imaginable. The inhabitants welcomed them, ministered to their immediate wants, housed, fed, and clothed them. Then one of the prominent citizens proposed that the municipal council should be convoked at once, and that an appropriation of land be made on which the exiles could build houses and live and enjoy the rights of citizens. The municipal councillors agreed to meet, and we have no doubt that the generous initiative will be followed by other cities. Though no idea of interest or remuneration entered into this proposal, worthy of a civilized nation, one cannot but wish that the wealthy Jews expelled from Russia with such instantaneous and unheard-of cruelty would settle a colony of their poor fellow-sufferers in some of the fertile, uncultivated territories of the peninsula and the islands. They would at once benefit the country of their adoption and themselves. It will be plausibly objected that while Italian immigration is so enormously on the increase, such a proposition sounds absurd; and, in fact, all that Italy could do would be to give grants of land to be redeemed—the capital must come from the organizers of colonization. J. W. M.

DEMOCRATIC ASSUMPTIONS.—V.

CONCLUSION.

LONDON, July 7, 1891.

LET me summarize the results of the train of thought which is indicated rather than followed out in these letters:

(1.) Every institution, and certainly every form of government, which has existed among mankind has been based upon certain beliefs or convictions which, because they were at one time, rightly or wrongly, assumed to be true, we may call assumptions. Neither a hierarchy, nor an aristocracy, nor a monarchy, nor a democracy, can flourish except among a people who cherish the beliefs appropriate to the particular kind of polity.

(2.) From the moment that the sentiments which support a constitution are modified or cease to exist, the constitution itself changes, not perhaps its name or form, but its essence and nature; and if the convictions by which it was maintained cease to be entertained, the constitution itself, be it a despotism or a commonwealth, perishes.

(3.) The beliefs or assumptions which lie at the basis of different forms of government will be always found to contain an element, sometimes a very large element, of real or of apparent truth. The feelings which make men like or tolerate any particular method of administration (which, it may be observed, are a very different thing from the apologies invented for a given method of administering public affairs) are for the most part suggested by large, obvious, patent facts. To some men it may seem astonishing that "the enormous faith of many made for one" should ever have prevailed among rational beings. To another, reverence for a priesthood or for an hereditary nobility may seem nothing better than a proof of the folly or the servility of human nature. But a philosophic thinker will have no difficulty in persuading himself that the belief in the divine right of kings, or trust in the hereditary virtues of certain families or races, had originally its root in ideas which, if not wholly true, were suggested by and in harmony with important facts.

(4.) The assumptions or dogmas of politics, which in more respects than one bear a strange resemblance to the dogmas of theology or of metaphysics, exhibit, when carefully investigated, a peculiarity which has hardly received sufficient attention. When first they obtain acceptance, they seem to the generation by whom they are adopted to be absolute, indisputable truths. They are believed, so to speak, without qualification. As long, further, as an opinion is supposed to be absolutely true, it inspires faith and enthusiasm. A time comes, however, when the dogma, say of the divine right of kings, ceases to be looked upon as more than what may be called a relative truth. It ceases to be the object of faith, it becomes the subject of apology. No sterner Tory lived in his day than Dr. Johnson; but if you were to compare the conscious Toryism of Johnson with the unconscious loyalty of the Englishmen who adored Elizabeth, you would easily discover that between the time of the Tudors and the age of the Hanoverians belief in kingship had undergone a curious decline and transformation.

Let it be noted, further, that the process by which beliefs are changed is not for the most part the force of reasoning. Argument is in politics as in religion rather the excuse than the ground for conversion. It is not the subtlety of logic, but the undiscerned influence of obvious facts, which in the long run influences the opinions and the conduct of mankind. Belief in the divine right of kings perished under the Stuarts, not because the prerogative lacked ardent and acute defenders, but because Charles and his sons had nothing in them to impress their subjects with a sense of royal wisdom and justice, and still more because the safety and the unity of the nation were no longer bound up with loyalty to the crown.

(5.) Democracy, or popular government, is subject to the same laws as other politics. The rule of the people as it now exists, or soon will exist, if not in every civilized State, yet assuredly in every State where the English tongue is spoken, rests upon definite beliefs. There is a democratic creed, just as there was at one time a monarchical creed or an aristocratic creed. The articles of this faith have, it is true, not been very definitely formulated, yet it were not difficult to express them in a distinct series of propositions. Part, however, of their influence consists in their being vague and undefined. Human nature sighs for what is infinite, and the indefinite has a superficial likeness to infinity. The assumptions of democracy contain, moreover, an immense amount of valuable truth. At certain times, and among a given people and under particular circumstances, they may for practical purposes be accepted as axioms. No one, therefore, ought to feel the least surprise at the influence which the democratic creed has exerted and exerts. The most dubious, from a merely argumentative point of view, of all its articles—the dogma of human equality—contains, as I have been at great pains to point out, a large element of important, even, let me say, of vital truth. The time, moreover, has been when the fundamentals of democratic belief were accepted not only by large masses of men, but by thinkers of great power, as absolute truths. A century ago democracy inspired a kind of enthusiasm which to the most ardent among modern Republicans is all but incredible.

> "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
> And to be young was very Heaven."

Who is there, however strong his belief in the sovereignty of the people, who feels it bliss to be alive when he can witness the dull respectability of the French republic under the guidance of President Carnot?

A poet, it may perhaps be said, exaggerated the sentiments of his time. If we wish to measure the depth of the almost unconscious faith in democracy which swayed the world towards the end of the eighteenth century, let us note the ideas entertained by one of the most respectable of English statesmen. Burke's Duke of Richmond, a Whig of the Whigs, "has voluntarily proposed," writes Burke, "to open the elections of England to all those, without exception, who have the qualification of being eighteen years old, and has swept away at one stroke all the privi-

leges of freeholders, cities, and boroughs throughout the kingdom, and sends every member of Parliament every year to the judgment and discretion of such electors." In other words, an English Whig and a Duke was, nine years before the meeting of the States-General, prepared to advocate a constitution which, from one point of view, would have been more democratic than the Jacobin Constitution of 1795. No doubt his Lordship had not the least idea of the real effect of his proposed reform; but the simplicity with which he adopts democratic conceptions proves better than anything the strength of the democratic faith in the days of its youth. A change has come over the spirit of the world. My object in writing these letters has been to show what this change is.

It may be described very simply. The course of events is gradually forcing on mankind the conviction that the intellectual assumptions on which democracy depends are only relative truths. They may be practically true for Frenchmen, for Englishmen, or for Americans; they are not absolutely true for the whole world. They are not axioms; they are rough and serviceable generalizations. From this condition of things two results, the one speculative, the other practical, may be seen to follow. As a matter of speculation it is probable, if not certain, that popular government will, in more than one respect, within the next fifty or the next hundred years, considerably change its character. Whether it was or was not an act of political wisdom to give votes to the negroes of the Southern States I have no means of judging. Personally, I should easily believe that where every course was open to objection, the statesmen who insisted that the negro should have the full rights of citizens adopted the least dangerous as it was the most generous of policies. But I can well conceive that even now American democrats (I do not use the word in a party sense) feel no great enthusiasm for a step fully in accordance with the ordinarily received doctrines of democracy. It is, at any rate, a plausible conjecture that American citizens will, in the course of the next generation or two, be less eager than were their fathers to welcome the influx of foreign emigrants. These things are matters of conjecture. The practical result of an analysis of democratic assumptions is, that they cannot be treated as axioms from which you can conclusively argue either in favor of or against certain courses of action. Once let it be granted, for example, as it must in fairness be conceded, that the progress of democracy does not always favor the freedom of individuals, and it becomes impossible to argue that a change is good simply because it is democratic, for it is quite possible that changes which in one sense favor popular power are inexpedient because they are hostile to liberty, or, what is pretty nearly the same thing, to justice. To make the judiciary elective, for example, is certainly in one sense to increase the authority of the people; but few are the sensible men who will now accept an arrangement which may be fatal to the character and influence of the bench, simply because an elective judiciary may be termed, and with truth, a democratic institution.

Any reader, if such there be, who has studied my letters with attention, will hardly fail to follow my line of thought. My only fear is lest he should attribute to me a desire to attack popular government. Whoever should do so will misconceive the object with which I have written. Criticism is not censure; it is one thing to judge and quite another to condemn. To say that the assumptions on which popular government rests are, in common with the assumptions which support every polity, relatively and not absolutely true, is a very different thing from showing, or attempting to show, that in modern days democracy is not, for nations who have reached a certain stage of development, the best form of government. The men who, even in the single State of New York, know that democratic government has some inherent, and many more accidental, defects, must be numbered by thousands. The sane men who, throughout the whole United States, hold it possible or desirable that the Union should be governed on other than democratic principles, can hardly, I should suppose, amount even to hundreds. It is, indeed, the delusion, alike of revolutionists and reactionists, to suppose that every critic of democracy is its foe. The delusion rests at bottom on the common error that whoever shows that popular government has its faults, advocates the foundation or restoration of anti-democratic institutions. A keen perception, however, of the truth which these letters are meant to illustrate, that constitutions depend for their life upon conditions of belief and opinion, is absolutely fatal to all schemes of revolution or reaction. Where democratic convictions exist, popular government is secure, and to shake the belief in democracy would, whatever its effect, never restore obsolete forms of government which have perished with the faiths that gave them life.

AN OBSERVER.

Notes.

T. WHITTAKER & Co. will publish directly Canon Cheyne's Bampton Lectures for 1889, on the 'Historical Origin and Religious Ideas of the Psalter.'

D. Appleton & Co. have in press 'Justice,' being Part II. of Herbert Spencer's "Principles of Morality," begun some years ago with 'The Data of Ethics.' They also announce a new edition of Mr. Spencer's 'Essays—Scientific, Political and Speculative,' in three volumes.

So much of the economic controversy of the day involves an acquaintance with Ricardo's work that a new edition of his 'Principles of Political Economy and Taxation,' forming part of "Bohn's Economic Library" (Scribners), is very welcome, especially when, as in the volume before us, an introductory essay is furnished and notes and appendices are added. This matter is supplied by Mr. E. C. K. Gonner, lecturer at University College, Liverpool.

The 'Cyclopædia of Temperance and Prohibition' (Funk & Wagnalls) is a more useful book of reference than one would have expected in view of its unconcealed subordination to the Prohibition propaganda. Much of it consists of records of legislation, ecclesiastical and political deliverances, temperance organizations and movements, and of biographical and historical sketches, in all which the main facts are beyond the warping power of bias. Moreover, in the more speculative portions a good measure of frankness is shown in giving both sides a hearing: thus, the late Dr. Crosby is sandwiched in between two advocates of the "two-wine" theory, and allowed to demolish them both. We should have looked for a fuller statement of the attitude of the various churches. It would seem, also, that the *National Philanthropist*, the first temperance newspaper published in this country, should have had a paragraph to itself, and a place in the index, instead of merely casual mention in two or three biographical articles.

We have already paid our respects to the first four volumes of the handsome new edition of the works of the late Sir William Stirling-Maxwell (London: John C. Nimmo), and now have to record the completion of the enterprise with the appearance of the two concluding volumes. Volume v. is a reprint of the author's standard 'Cloister Life of the Emperor Charles V.' It contains all the matter given in the foregoing three editions, together with notes prepared by Sir William himself for a new edition, and some judicious additions made by his present editor, mostly in the shape of citations from recent publications on the subject. In addition to its typographical attractiveness, the book has the further external charm of some excellent mezzotint engravings of the leading notabilities referred to, and several prints of arms and insignia. The final volume is made up of 'Miscellaneous Essays and Addresses.' Here we find considerable historical and antiquarian matter, mostly relating to Scotland and Spain, Sir William's Rectorial Address at Edinburgh and his Chancellor's Address at Glasgow, and biographical essays on Prescott, Richard Ford, Sir Robert Strange, and the Dukes of Urbino. The author's sympathies naturally go out to Prescott, a worker in his own field. A touch of present-day interest is given in his story of Prescott's failure to obtain copyright in England for his 'Philip II.,' for which Bentley stood ready to pay him $30,000. At that date copyright could be had only by an author acquiring a domicile in England, but this Prescott would take no steps to secure, preferring "to present to the world one signal example more of the great hardship and injustice to which both English and American authors are exposed for want of a reasonable system of international copyright."

Among the Socialist publications which issue so freely from the London house of Swan Sonnenschein & Co., an American interest should be awakened by the volume called 'The English Republic.' This is a compilation, with an appearance of homogeneity, of essays from the periodical bearing the same name, edited by Mr. W. J. Linton in the early fifties. No bibliographical indications serve to reveal the piecing which has been done by Mr. Kineton Parkes to produce this connected body of doctrine; but that is of little consequence. Continuity was not the note of Mr. Linton's writing any more than of his contemporaneous fellow-republicans on the Continent. The paragraph tended to consist of a single sentence, as if the thought would be lost if not isolated. Instructive as is the comparison between the ideals of the Revolutionary period and of the present day, more curious is the human study which Mr. Parkes affords of the restless, fervid, generous career of the venerable radical, poet, and engraver, who has published so much, and who surely was the first man to give artistic style to the printed media of revolution. We well remember the simple elegance of the *English Republic*. His earlier *Cause of the People*, Mr. Parkes says, "was a well-printed quarto on fine thick paper, which bore the impress of taste." Nowhere else than in Mr. Parkes's Introduction can be found so many particulars of Mr. Linton's life.

Students will be glad to have their attention called to a new work, 'Di alcuni commenti della Divina Commedia composti nei primi vent'anni dopo la morte di Dante' (Florence: G. C. Sansoni). The author, Dr. Luigi Rocca, is a young man, but gives evidence of capacity for such scholarly labor.

The 'Allgemeine Naturkunde,' which has been a long time in course of publication, nears its end, 129 of the 132 parts having now appeared (Westermann & Co.). The section on plant life is the last to be finished. The illustrations in black and white and in color are, as usual, numerous and effective.

The current number of Longmans' *New Review* contains an article on celestial photography by that eminent but rather flighty Frenchman, M. Camille Flammarion. The portion of the paper which confines itself to facts is moderate enough; but physicists and astronomers who are familiar with the names of Fizeau, Foucault, Faye, Janssen, Mouchez, and Schoenfeld will alone be able to recognize them in such mutilations as Skaenfeld, Mague, Yanssen, Flaye, Flaucault, and Sizeau. In his concluding paragraph, "Astronomy plunges us into the insoluble mystery of the Infinite and of Eternity, and therein lies its grandeur," we recognize M. Flammarion surely enough; but not a few astronomers find its grandeur in something else.

Nos. 647-650 of *L'Art* (Macmillan) arrive at the Salon of the Champs-Élysées, in which one good effect of the schism is remarked, viz., the better hanging of the fewer pictures, so that they have "a little air" about them, and are measurably relieved of the killing contrasts which all great art galleries perpetrate. Among the miscellaneous papers there is a brief account, by M. Adolphe Jullien, of an old hôtel in the Marais (rue du Puits), his birthplace, inherited from his father. In tracing its successive owners for nearly three centuries, M. Jullien is much pleased to have encountered a member of the musical family of Hotteterre, contemporaries and associates of Molière. M. Jullien, by the way, had lately been to Rouen to hear a performance of "Lohengrin," one of twenty-six with gross receipts of 80,000 francs.

In the June and July *Portfolio* (Macmillan), Mr. Hamerton's series of chapters on the present state of the fine arts in France continue to furnish the most valuable reading. His topics are respectively "Historical Genre," a seemingly paradoxical expression which he defends, meaning by it a kind of revival of past times in which historical incident is subordinate to the realism of the presentation; and "The Rustic School." He passes briefly in review the artists who illustrate both these themes, and provides pictorial memoranda of their work where he can. Mr. F. G. Stephens has a notable paper on "Thomas Rowlandson, the Humorist," in distinction from Mr. Grego's biographic title, 'Rowlandson, the Caricaturist.'

One article in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for July is pretty certain to be scanned by every reader. It is headed "Positive Pedigrees and Authorized Arms," and is "an attempt at a list of settlers named in Savage's Genealogical Dictionary of New England whose ancestors are recorded in the heraldic visitations of England, and whose descendants are probably living in the United States." The list is short, and must therefore be disappointing to all but a few. Mr. Wm. S. Appleton's name as compiler is a guarantee of its authority. The same number contains Dr. Joseph M. Toner's scrupulous transcripts of the wills of the American ancestors of Washington, some of which have appeared less accurately in these columns. A facsimile of John Washington's signature to his will accompanies the transcript. There is an appendix of interesting Washingtoniana to Mr. H. F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," which offer abstracts of wills bearing on American Russells, Mays, Randolphs, Bennetts, Spencers, Samses, Osgoods, Benskins, Allens, Wings, Bachilers, etc. In the will of John Kyle of Stepney, Middlesex, figures his "nephew George Burrough [Burroughs] of New England, clerk," as residuary legatee, the well-known victim of the witchcraft delusion, executed in Salem on August 19, 1692.

We commend to the serious-minded Number 2 of the *Pedagogical Seminary* (Worcester, Mass.: J. H. Orpha). The editor, Dr. G. Stanley Hall, and Prof. Wm. H. Burnham have the laboring oars, and no reflecting parent or teacher can read without profit their "Notes on the Study of Infants," "Contents of Children's Minds on Entering School," "The Study of Adolescence," "The Moral and Religious Training of Children and Adolescents," and "Children's Lies." There is much else besides in this number which deserves attention, but we have not space to particularize.

Faithful and winning portraits of Mr. and Mrs. Henry M. Stanley accompany the *Photographic Times* for July.

"O. S." writes to us from Heidelberg: "*Esprit d'escalier* and *nom de plume* have been discussed in the *Nation* (Vol. 52, p. 343 and p. 362, and lately in Vol. 53, p. 12) as pseudo French and unknown in French literature. I came across a third phrase of the same category, the well-known *toujours perdrix*. It occurs in Anthony Trollope's 'The Last Chronicle of Barset'; but Mr. E. Forgues, in his paraphrase of this novel ('Fleurettes et Réalités,' *Revue des Deux Mondes*, Oct., 1868, p. 671) observes in a footnote, 'C'est l'équivalent de notre *pâté d'anguille*,' as if to show that the phrase is not used in French."

The section of Economic Science and Statistics of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will meet in Washington from August 18 to August 25. Information regarding reduced rates by rail and at hotels, etc., may be had by addressing the Secretary, Mr. B. E. Fernow, Department of Agriculture.

Our notice last week of Mr. Anstey's extravaganza, 'Tourmalin's Time Cheques,' was written from a Chicago edition whose pirated quality we animadverted upon. We had overlooked the very pretty authorized edition published by the Messrs Appleton, which all lovers of honesty and of good taste in typography will, of course, buy by preference.

—Russian Nihilists receive much attention in the August *Harper*, what with Mr. Curtis's endorsement of the famous Phi Beta Kappa oration of Wendell Phillips, and J. H. Rosny's account of Nihilists in Paris. The latter article gives an altogether human presentation of the Russian refugees—abstracted dreamers, some of them, living by preference in the quieter and more country-like parts of the city; others, absorbed students, or men of naturally eager and chafing spirits deadened now by years of vain struggle to a gentle, almost stoical resignation. The prolonged torture of their lives is well brought out, too, in the accounts of haunting spies, given great leeway by the present infatuation of the French authorities with the idea of a Russian alliance, and the constant surveillance and interference and thwarting to which all their actions and plans for securing a livelihood are subjected. We are assured that any organization for revolutionary effort among them is a pure invention of their paid persecutors. An excellent example of what a popular presentation of an abstruse scientific question should be is given in Dr. Andrew Wilson's paper, "What is Inheritance?" It is, of course, the biological *how* of inheritance that he discusses, and he leads the way down to his own theory by a clear and sympathetic statement of Darwin's speculation on pangenesis, and of its modifications by Galton and Weismann. Briefly, Dr. Wilson accepts the latter's division of the propagating germ into "body-cells" and "germ-cells," but objects to regarding the two sets as absolutely independent of each other, holding that the "germ-cells," though exclusively the vehicle of inheritance, yet are themselves "altered and transformed to a greater or less degree by the body-cells." Prof. Grant's article on New Zealand is agreeable reading, though not in very close touch with the most significant facts. His article, with Mr. Besant's on Plantagenet London, Col. Dodge's fourth paper on "American Riders," Du Maurier's serial, and Montgomery Schuyler's "Glimpses of Western Architecture," as caught in Chicago, give occasion for the principal illustrations of the number.

—Fiction is allowed full swing in the August *Century*, filling almost exactly one-half its pages. A double frontispiece gives portraits of Emperor William and his consort, with which goes Mr. Poultney Bigelow's article on the first three years of the former's reign. This is laudatory beyond warrant of any facts presented in it. Mr. Bigelow thinks it sufficient to say of his imperial hero that he is honest and courageous; many will be left with their question whether, in addition, the Emperor has a quality at least as necessary in a ruler who takes Europe for his football—namely, wisdom. The manager of the Associated Press writes discursively of the "Press as a News-Gatherer." He dwells more upon the material expansion and improvement of the newspaper than upon its gain or falling-off, as the case may be, in intellectual and moral weight. In fact, he frankly declines to discuss the latter point. Edward Hungerford's "Our Summer Migration: A Social Study" suggests a fruitful theme which has not received the detailed and continuous attention merited by a social phenomenon now taking on such vast dimensions and attended by such noteworthy changes. Many of these results are dwelt upon by Mr. Hungerford with intelligence, though one misses a close grasp of the actual facts, and feels a certain vagueness as of the work of an essayist rather than an investigator. Mr. Pennell's illustrated article on Provence; "Life on the South Shoal Lightship," by Gustav Kobbé; and the instalment in the California series, are chief among the remaining features of a number evidently gauged in the main to the taste of hammock readers.

—*Scribner's* unconditionally surrenders to August and vacation-time, laying almost no other burden upon its readers than that of choice among all the stories. The beginning of the new serial by R. L. Stevenson, in collaboration with Lloyd Osbourne, will be an event of interest to many. The first chapters scarcely come up to the dire suggestions of the title, "The Wrecker," but the blood will no doubt curdle all in good time. Andrew Lang has an article on Piccadilly, in the series on the Great Streets of the world. He manifests little enthusiasm for his subject—"This essay is not precisely a Praise of Piccadilly," he says, qualifying the Street as "cheerful and satisfactory" rather than beautiful or imposing. As might have been expected, he is stronger on the side of antiquarian reminiscence and literary suggestion than in the matter of actual characterization. Mr. Wigmore's concluding article on "Parliamentary Days in

Japan" briefly portrays some of the leaders in either house, and aptly comments on methods of parliamentary procedure as modified by Oriental temper and traditions.

—The paper on Gen. Sherman by J. C. Ropes in the *Atlantic* for August would have won early attention from the reader even without the nudge given him on the magazine's cover. It certainly deserves the meed of courage, coming, as it does, when Sherman's canonizing is all but complete. Not that Mr. Ropes plays the part of an *advocatus diaboli:* his criticism is addressed solely to the General's military capacity, and leaves that, even after all deductions are made, on a very high plane. What he undertakes to show is, that the campaign of 1864, up to the time of the march to the sea, was a failure as far as its real object was concerned—that is, the destruction of the opposing army—and that the wisdom of leaving Thomas alone to do what the combined forces had thus far not been able to accomplish, appears rather in the fortunate event than in a fair estimate of the probabilities beforehand. At the same time, he gives Sherman full credit for having clearly perceived in advance the immense moral advantage to be gained by his audacious exploit, and, of course, for the consummate skill with which it was performed. Yet he pauses to observe that the General's announced purpose to destroy the property of non-combatants—as to the fact of such destruction he does not pronounce—was in violation of the recognized laws of war. The spurious correspondence between Seneca and St. Paul affords Harriet W. Preston and Louise Dodge another opportunity for a vivid rendering of a bit of ancient life. To their instances of the stubborn clinging of Catholic and Spanish opinion to the belief in the genuineness of the letters, might have been added mention of an historical painting, recently put on exhibition in Spain, in which the old tradition was given fresh recognition. The season lends timeliness to Olive Thorne Miller's article on bird-lore, and to Miss Thomas's "Notes from the Wild Garden"—a series of poems with a running commentary in prose—which will be sure to delight all lovers of the humble flowers of the field and wayside. We may further specify "The Queen's Closet Opened," a book of combined household medicine and cookery, dating from 1656, out of which fearful and wonderful prescriptions and recipes are drawn; and a paper on "The Reform of the Senate," which finds the root of much of our political evil in the election of Senators by the State Legislatures, and proposes to render this election uncontrollable by the Machine, partly by popular nomination and partly by the double employment of the Australian ballot. The writer is aware of the Constitutional objection which may be made to his scheme.

—The period in our Revolutionary struggle when, as Franklin said, the British were "unable to carry on the war, and too proud to make peace," is covered by the tenth volume of Washington's Writings edited by Worthington C. Ford (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The Confederation was equally perplexed, and the army felt the weight of its neglect. "Private interest," Washington complained, deterred the Southern States from assenting to Col. John Laurens's proposal to levy a black regiment in South Carolina and in Georgia before either Charleston or Savannah had been evacuated by the enemy. When cessation of hostilities was actually proclaimed and exchange of prisoners begun, Washington protested to Gen. Carleton against the shipping off with the Tory emigrants a number of ex-slaves, and begged him "to prevent the future carrying away of any negroes or other property of the American inhabitants." The evacuation of New York gives us in this volume the commander's farewell orders to the American armies and resignation of his commission, and we see him retired to his estate and bargaining for the hire (or "purchase," as it was styled) of newly arrived Palatines, or of any efficient housejoiner or bricklayer; "if they are good workmen, they may be from Asia, Africa or Europe; they may be Mahometans, Jews, or Christians of any sect, or they may be Atheists." To Benjamin Harrison and to Hamilton he expresses himself earnestly concerning the defects of the existing Constitution and the need of a better cemented Federal Government. There is a noticeable appeal to the Virginia Assembly, through Madison, on behalf of "poor Paine." Washington certifies, Sept. 7, 1784, to having examined James Rumsey's model of a steamboat, and seen it tried "in running water of some rapidity," and expresses his belief in the vast importance of the discovery. In the last letter but one in the present volume he relates his acquaintance with David Bushnell, the inventor, whose fleet-destroying torpedo never justified the hopes formed in regard to it. Washington, though distrusting this "effort of genius," gave money towards it, but Bushnell "never did succeed. One accident or another always intervened."

—It would appear that Washington's aversion to slavery grew with his years until the time came for the emancipation of his own chattels by his will. The *Athenæum* of July 11 prints, for the first time, as it asserts, a letter from the ex-President written four months before his death, and dated Mount Vernon, August 17, 1797. In it he says to his correspondent, Mr. Robert Lewis:

"It is demonstratively clear that on this Estate (Mount Vernon) I have more working Negroes by a full moiety, than can be employed to any advantage in the farming system, and I shall never turn Planter thereon. To sell the overplus I cannot, because I am principled against this kind of traffic in the human species. To hire them out, is almost as bad, because they could not be disposed of in families to any advantage, and to disperse the families I have an aversion. What, then, is to be done? Something must, or I shall be ruined," etc.

—Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney has recently given to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts all the duplicates and nearly all the trial-proofs of the engraved work of her husband, the late Seth Wells Cheney, and his brother John. These two remarkable New England artists have given rise to at least eight collections, of which three are in Philadelphia, and the Boston Museum's is now the largest and, after Mrs. Cheney's, the most complete. Mr. S. R. Koehler rates John Cheney as an engraver above the late A. B. Durand, and complains of the neglect shown him by the dictionaries of biography, the latest (Appletons') offending both by meagreness and by total inaccuracy. He has accordingly prepared with great labor a 'Catalogue of the Engraved and Lithographed Work of John Cheney and Seth Wells Cheney' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), which he offers as a not exhaustive essay. Prefixed to it is a very pleasing portrait of John Cheney, whose engraving was much more extensive than that of Seth, famous rather for his crayon portraits. The description of plates is most minute, and these are followed carefully through their changes of issue in the score of "annuals" fashionable in their day, and changes of title when reprinted as fancy pieces. Indexes show what a large number of artists, English and American, were thus copied on steel or on stone, and what an array of portraits of eminent Americans was produced by John. Martha Washington, Mrs. Sigourney, Fanny Kemble, Channing, Allston, Longfellow, Bryant, Halleck, Willis, Webster, Everett, Story, are a portion. Many ladies of good family, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia beauties, figured as ideal subjects in the *Token*, the *Literary Souvenir*, the *Ladies' Cabinet Album*, the *Youth's Keepsake*, *Friendship's Offering*, and the rest. The most interesting particular is related in connection with the joint reproduction, by the brothers, of Allston's posthumous 'Outlines and Sketches.' In the introduction to the folio volume thus made up, the engravers speak of the reduction in scale they were sometimes obliged to make, and say that when this was necessary "the daguerreotype was used, by which the image was conveyed to the engraver's plates prepared for that purpose, and there fixed by tracing the line through the silver." This bears date Boston, January 1, 1850. Twenty years elapsed before this principle was employed in photographing on the block, thus revolutionizing the art of wood-cutting by exchanging line for tone, and developing an American school which now leads the world. Mr. Koehler deserves hearty thanks for his labor of love.

—A striking figure is lost to Spanish literature in the death on July 20 of Pedro Antonio de Alarcón. Though not an old man, his literary activity began at so early an age that it covers almost two generations, the fantastic tales of his youth having delighted the fathers of those who were eagerly reading his powerful novels twenty-five years afterwards. Born at Guadix, Granada, March 10, 1833, he took the impress of his birthplace in a certain Oriental flavor that always marked him—his lofty bearing, warm and somewhat unregulated imagination, and fascinating gifts as a story-teller. Thrown into the whirl and struggle of life in Madrid at the age of twenty, he wrought fiercely as poet, critic, journalist, and politician, gaining many enemies, a few friends, and less money. A successful drama, "El Hijo Pródigo," came from his pen in 1857, but was so bitterly criticised by his political and literary antagonists that, in a rage, he withdrew it from the theatre where the public was flocking, and never allowed it to be played again as long as he lived, nor would he ever write for the stage again. Apparently renouncing letters, he rushed off as a volunteer in O'Donnell's expedition to Morocco, but his letters describing the military operations were so vivid in themselves, and so fell in with the nation's unaccustomed taste of glory, that they gave him an immense fame, and he solemnly declares that before leaving camp he had received more than 20,000 congratulatory letters from all parts of Spain. Travel and political life kept his pen comparatively idle for several years, but in 1875 he reopened his literary career with a novel, 'El Escándalo,' which created a greater sensation than any book published in Spain in the century. For this, and for his inimitable short story, 'El Sombrero de Tres Picos,' he will be principally remembered. His collected works fill eighteen volumes. Since 1884 he had lived in retirement, driven to it partly by the exaggerated sensitiveness which threw him into a fury at hostile criticism, and partly by failing health.

—As the planet Saturn approaches that point in its orbit where two months hence the ring system will disappear, a multitude of watchers will be turning all sorts of telescopes upon it, both large and small. Prof. Trouvelot of Paris has already printed an elaborate paper to direct attention to the special features connected with the "disappearance," which will repay the technical observer. Meanwhile, Mr. Stanley Williams of Burgess Hill, Sussex, notifies the discovery of three delicate but distinct markings in the equatorial region of the ball of Saturn. The first and third of these are round, bright spots, somewhat brighter than the white equatorial zone in which they are situated. The second is a smaller dark marking on the equatorial edge of the shaded belt which forms the southern boundary of the white zone. While it requires patience and practice to see these markings readily, Mr. Williams has obtained abundant proof of their reality; and he publishes in the current astronomical periodicals a brief ephemeris to facilitate observations of the much-desired transits of these spots across the planet's central meridian. It will be remembered that in December of 1876 a bright equatorial spot on Saturn was discovered at Washington, which was followed and measured through more than sixty rotations of the planet, and which gave for its axial period 10h., 14m., 24s. But this determination, while the most accurate at present known, requires correction in the way of further approximation, which the continued observation of the newly discovered spots will, it is hoped, provide the material for. Unfortunately, the planet is already so far advanced towards its conjunction with the sun that these delicate markings are beyond all but the best of eyes and telescopes.

RECENT WORKS ON RAILROADS.

A FEW years ago railroad literature consisted almost wholly of technical works, which were of little interest to the outside reader. To-day the change in this respect is very marked. Public curiosity concerning railroad methods and railroad operations has become wider. It is probable that more books have been written to meet this outside demand in the last two years than in any previous period of ten times that length. Some of these works are purely popular, written to interest and amuse the public. Others are intended primarily for railroad men, but so arranged as to attract outside readers also. Still another class, probably the most important of all, is written for that section of the public which is willing to make a serious study of questions of railroad economy in their wider bearings. Both here and in England the idea has at last gained a foothold that railroad legislation is not the simple thing men once supposed, but a matter of the utmost complexity and importance; and one prominent symptom of this change is to be found in the literature to which it has given rise.

Of the more popular books, the first were histories of individual railroad systems, of which those of the Baltimore and Ohio and the Northern Pacific, the latter by Mr. E. V. Smalley, were the best known. Of recent works of this kind, none is more valuable than W. K. Ackerman's history of the Illinois Central, a system which has played a unique part in the transportation developments of the country, and whose growth is described in the work before us with unusual care. The same kind of descriptive work has been done for British railroads by Mr. W. M. Acworth, a Parliamentary barrister and writer of considerable prominence. A number of magazine articles by this author on the management of the different English systems have been collected into two volumes under the titles 'The Railways of England' and 'The Railways of Scotland' (London: John Murray). Though purely popular, and making no pretension to depth of reasoning, they give a great deal of useful information of a desultory but interesting kind as to the methods in use in Great Britain. Perhaps the nearest parallel to Mr. Acworth's book in American literature is to be found in the work published by the Scribners two years ago, under the title 'The American Railway'; the chief difference being that the Scribners' book was arranged by topics instead of companies, and written by a number of different authors instead of by one.

Of widely different size and scope is Ringwalt's 'Transportation Systems of the United States' (Philadelphia: The *Railway World*). This is nothing less than an undigested collection of information of all sorts, good, bad, and indifferent, bearing on the canals and railroads of the United States from the beginning until now. It forms a volume of enormous size, whose usefulness in its different parts depends wholly upon the source from which the information was drawn, and not at all upon any head-work of the compiler. It is a collection of materials for history rather than a history itself, and its usefulness in this respect is impaired by a lack of references to the authorities whence the information is drawn. In spite of this drawback, it will be of considerable service to specialists, and perhaps to those general readers who are endowed with abundant leisure and strong intellectual digestion.

Among works of more technical character the foremost is A. M. Wellington's 'Economic Theory of Railway Location' (New York: John Wiley). This book, though in one sense old, has passed through successive editions by which its original appearance has been much changed, and which have made it virtually new. It has merited its success thoroughly. It was the first book in the English language which applied principles of political economy to modern methods of railroading; and although written by an engineer for engineers, it contains a great deal which would be useful to legislators and courts, if they only had the sense to read it and apply it. It shows more clearly than any other book the effect of modern improvements upon cost of transportation, the conditions which govern intelligent investment of capital, and the general principles of economy in operation; and it also incidentally contains much information about railroad rates and railroad policy. The criticism may perhaps fairly be made that some things have considerably greater clearness in Mr. Wellington's mind than they have in the actual order of nature; or, in other words, that he does not always know quite as much as he thinks he knows. But where a man actually does know so much and has done such good work as the author of this book, we cannot find severe fault with him for sometimes setting himself up on a pedestal.

A recent English book on railroad operation deserves more than passing mention. This is 'The Working and Management of an English Railway,' by George Findlay, General Manager of the London and Northwestern Railway Company (London: Whittaker & Co.). It grew out of a course of lectures at the Brompton School of Military Engineering, and has rapidly passed through three editions. It treats primarily of the railroad as an organization, taking up successively the staff, the permanent way, signalling, telegraphing, rolling stock in its various forms, train management and staff management; finally dealing with rates and fares, and the relations between the Government and the railroads. The last part of this book is not so good as the first. The author has attempted to write from his own experience without much outside reading on the subject; and while this experience is of great service in describing English methods of railroad operation, he falls far behind the times in his knowledge of what has been written on the relations between the railroads and the public. In this respect English railroad men stand distinctly behind those of America or Continental Europe. Mr. Findlay's mind, on the whole, reflects the conventional attitude of English railroad managers on this subject, rather than the progressive thinking which is going to tell in the long run.

In this connection Mr. W. M. Acworth, whose more popular writings have been already alluded to, has rendered great public service by a book entitled 'The Railways and the Traders' (London: John Murray). The author is a thoroughly wide-awake man, who has studied not only English railroads, but Continental and American ones, and who in fact made extensive travels in the United States with direct reference to the objects with which this book has been written. He has unquestionably given us the most valuable contribution to railroad economics of the past three or four years. Unfortunately he writes as an advocate rather than a judge, having been employed by the Railway Companies Association to "sketch the railway rates question from the railway point of view." Doubtless there were reasons for such a policy in the special circumstances of English legislation at the time. We cannot help regretting that the book should not be ostensibly written in a judicial spirit, as it is really in most parts.

After a brief introduction, the author first takes up the principles involved in rate-making, showing the difficulties of apportioning cost of service, the absolute impracticability of equal mileage rates, and the necessity of charging what the traffic will bear. He shows the meaning of the principle of charging what the traffic will bear by analogies from turnpike tolls, from taxation, and from charges for professional service. He shows how false is the belief that one portion of traffic taken at specially low rates is done at the expense of the rest—the most prevalent of all fallacies. At the same time he carefully recognizes the necessity of protecting shippers against charges which the traffic will not bear; and in asking who shall fix the rate, he takes a point of view more judicial than that of almost any court that has attempted to rule on the subject. His conclusion is that the initiative in rate-making must, on the whole, remain in the hands of the agents of the companies, because State initiative does not furnish the facilities and the progress which England or America demands, while the French system of strict control has been purchased at the cost of most severe sacrifices in every direction.

When he comes to consider actual railroad practice, he resumes the attitude of an advocate. He holds that while English rates are high, there are good reasons for this inherent in the nature of the business. He arrives at this conclusion by a series of detailed comparisons to which we have no space to do justice. Admitting the existence of extortionate rates in many special cases, he holds, as does every student of the question, that it is useless to rely on competition; that the traders' demands, as presented to Parliamentary committees, are

much more unjust than the existing railroad practice; and that even the professional orders of the Board of Trade, recently adopted, go too far in the direction of restraint. We recommend the study of this book to all who are interested in seeing live questions vigorously dealt with, or in comparing results of business management and of legislation in America and Europe.

No account of recent English literature on this subject would be complete without some reference to a monograph on 'Express Trains,' by Messrs. Foxwell and Farrer (London: Smith, Elder & Co.), which formed the theme of an article in these columns at the time of its appearance two years ago. With infinite care and pains the writers have made a comparison of express mileage in different parts of the world, as developed in the summer of 1888, placing England in the front rank of efficiency in this respect, America second, and the rest of the world far behind. Among the different countries of Continental Europe, France and Holland do relatively best, Germany not nearly so well. The criticisms in this book were far from being relished by the German Government. It has sought to blind the eyes of the public by articles in the *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* which are far from worthy of the standing of that journal; and, still more wonderful to relate, finding this defence unsatisfactory, it has from that day forth begun to put on better trains with astonishing rapidity.

Of recent American works on railroad economics, Bonham's 'Railway Secrecy and Trusts' (Putnams) requires but slight comment. Those who are familiar with the same author's previous work on 'Industrial Liberty' will understand that whatever he writes is ably presented, but without adequate conception of some of the practical difficulties of the case. A more valuable book, which has deserved wider attention than it has received, is W. D. Dabney's 'Public Regulation of Railways' (Putnams). Written primarily for the needs of legislative committees, this book presents its special aspect of the subject in clear and logical fashion. It can perhaps best be described as a book about railroad law and legislation for non-professional men, written with a thorough understanding of the difficulties involved and a good sense of proportion in estimating the relative importance of various objects. There are places where we could have wished that the author had put a little more of himself into the book instead of simply giving other people's opinions, which is more than can be said of every man who writes on subjects like these.

A much more pretentious book, but not nearly so good, is that of A. B. Stickney on 'The Railway Problem' (St. Paul: D. D. Merrill Co.). Mr. Stickney's experience as President of the Chicago, St. Paul and Kansas City Railroad led people to hope for a really valuable discussion of the subject, which should leave us further advanced than we were when he began to write. Unfortunately, he has committed precisely the same mistake as Mr. Findlay in his book on English railways, and has supposed that his experience would relieve him of the necessity of reading what other people had written on the subject. The result is, that some of his propositions are commonplace and others impracticable. A very little examination of what had already been done would have shown him his errors in these respects. Not that his book is wholly without value. On the contrary, it gives an extremely interesting popular account of methods employed in Western railroad construction and of the conditions under which railroad [illegible] grew up. The author has been engaged in general business quite as much as in railroading, so that he looked at the question from both sides, and, in his account of the Granger movement, attempts to do fuller justice to all parties than has been generally the case. It seems to us that he goes too far in his favorable judgment of any of the Granger laws. "The object of all Granger laws," he says, "has been to prevent discrimination by making all rates equal or proportionate, rather than to reduce the amounts to be collected by the railways." Now, while it may be true that this was one of their objects, it is by no means a fair account of their general character. The main object was to equalize by levelling down rather than by any more rational method, and this levelling process has often been adopted in most reckless fashion. If railroad rates could actually be fixed upon the principles which Mr. Stickney supposes to be possible, the Granger legislation might have worked better than it did. But, in point of fact, the writer betrays his ignorance of the subject of rate-making, and leaves small reason to wonder that the road of which he was President was an extremely unsuccessful one. Working from his own head, and without clear knowledge of what has been written and done, he assumes that rates should be based on cost of service in precisely the crude way which was followed by writers thirty years ago. He is at least a generation behind the time in his knowledge of matters of railroad economy. His proposals for standard average rates, making the same ratio between different articles all over the country, and basing rate determination upon mathematical principles instead of upon the needs of business, would necessarily result in keeping rates up and in impairing efficiency of the service rendered. Nor can we agree with his proposals as to methods of management any better than with those as to railroad economy. It is undoubtedly true that railroads exercise quasi-public functions as agents of the State; but, with the Government of the United States organized as it is at present, we can hardly expect to have the French system of control put in force without loss of power and efficiency greater than we see in France, and far greater than the American public would for a moment tolerate. Bad as have been many abuses of railroad management, we believe that they can be better corrected by the action of the courts in enforcing equality than by a comprehensive scheme of regulation and of rate adjustment which would make railroading a department of the Government rather than a progressive business.

PALMER'S ODYSSEY.

The Odyssey of Homer. Translated by George Herbert Palmer, Alford Professor of Philosophy in Harvard University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

PROFESSOR PALMER, in his brief and graceful preface, has himself anticipated and disarmed criticism, if that were not already accomplished by the scholarship and the various merits of his work. He confesses that he has been allured by the song of the Sirens, and that he has failed in the impossible attempt to reproduce it. In other words, he has given us one more view of a poem which has many facets. It is, in several respects, a clear and true view; it is inevitably, also, somewhat incomplete and unsatisfactory. Perhaps there is no way for the modern reader to get the "parallax" of Homer except by making his observations from the standpoint of various translators. If Keats was able to divine the greatness of Homer through Chapman, he might certainly obtain new and delightful impressions by the aid of Worsley or of Mr. Palmer, and might as justly have paid to either of these workmen the well-earned tribute of a sonnet.

The present volume contains the whole of the 'Odyssey,' and completes the first twelve books, which appeared in 1884. The Greek text which accompanied that edition is here omitted, and a large number of slight changes have been made in the version as it first appeared. These changes are all in favor of simplicity or exactness, or of a Saxon diction; frequently, also, they have been made in the interest of the rhythm. A few inaccuracies have been corrected. The alterations are all for the better, but they are very slight in substance, and the main qualities of the work have been maintained just what they were in the earlier instalment, which was noticed in this journal on its first appearance. If Mr. Palmer had been content to produce the best prose translation of the 'Odyssey' that has yet appeared, we believe (with all due appreciation of preceding work) that he could have succeeded. He has not been content, however, with a plain prose version. He has seen the difficulty of rendering Homer in our ordinary English metres, and has cherished a theory that the free, continuous movement of the hexameter could best be conveyed by a novel form of prose which he describes as "iambic recitative." We have already expressed our opinion of this expedient. We believe that it is the one serious mistake in a work which has otherwise exquisite qualities of taste and scholarship. We believe that the real value of the work does not lie in this expedient at all; that its charm might have been retained and increased if the same vocabulary had been used in a prose of ordinary legitimate rhythm. When we say *legitimate* we are, of course, taking for granted the question with regard to certain innovations of Mr. Walt Whitman and Mr. William Morris. There is no great harm in innovating, but an innovator must win his way; in matters of taste, he must not merely capture but captivate his constituency. Men will not long look askance at a strange beauty if they really find her beautiful. Now, we are sure that Prof. Palmer in his lecture-room has read his own prose so skilfully as to produce an agreeable impression on the ears of his listeners generally; we doubt whether the ordinary reader could do as much; we have a fancy, moreover, that the most refined ear, even when listening to Mr. Palmer, would have cause for offence and uneasiness. We have a fancy that Keats, for instance, would have been uneasy in listening to the "iambic recitative."

The reason is simple enough. It constantly leads the careful listener to expect verse, and it frequently disappoints him with the cadences of prose; it gives him sometimes half-a dozen iambics, followed by a dactyl, or trochees, or a fragment of a line, ending in a hedge or a ditch of plain prose. It suggests occasionally the effect of being carried by a badly broken horse: one cannot tell what his next gait will be. At the same time, there is a monotony in these long stretches of iambic movement which is not felt in the blank verse of any great master, with its finish and variety of music, to which Mr. Palmer's method does not pretend. There is felt, again, an occasional incongruity when we meet homespun prose phrases travelling in the rhythm of poetry. Neither this monotony nor this in-

congruity is perceived in the 'House of the Wolfings,' a venture that provokes comparison with Mr. Palmer's, and of which we may almost say that its "beauty is its own excuse for being." Whatever we may think of this experiment theoretically, it has at least the merit of consistency—it keeps up a poetic diction from beginning to end. It seems, moreover, to contradict Mr. Palmer's conclusion that the Saxon English "carries in itself a dominant iambic beat." Mr. Morris writes Saxon English with a prevailing rhythm which to our ear is dactylic or anapæstic, and in so far more akin to Homer's verse, and certainly, as it is handled, swifter and more varied than the "iambic recitative." Mr. Morris was, of course, less hampered: he was moving at his own will and was not tied to the chariot wheels of a master. At any rate, he has avoided monotony; he has also avoided any inconsistency between his expression and his rhythm.

The real merits of Mr. Palmer's translation are its transparent diction, its directness, its combination of fidelity with idiom, of dignity with ease, and its eminent readableness. It shows the fluent grace of the original like a Coan robe. In some of the qualities just enumerated, it is a strong contrast to Butcher and Lang's 'Odyssey.' We have a high admiration for the conscientiousness and the felicitous turns which abound in the work of these scholars—felicities to which, indeed, Mr. Palmer's work is deeply indebted. But it must be confessed that its Biblical phraseology, its artificial tone, its diffuseness, become very wearisome. The movement is heavy. The diffuseness passes beyond the easy fulness of Homer, and degenerates into the wordiness of our early Chroniclers. The Biblical phrases become distracting; their cleverness seems to spring from the Concordance, as certain modern Latin verses derive from the 'Gradus ad Parnassum.' It is, moreover, next to impossible to write with consistency for any length of time an artificial language. People who walk on stilts must expect sometimes to get an awkward fall. And this happens to the translators when they offer the grotesque Scriptural reminiscence, "The proud wooers who speak friendly with their lips but imagine evil in their latter end"; and when they use the strange English, "All her joints were loosened," "The suitors died outright for laughter."

It is certainly a defence for some of these expressions that their strangeness is due to a conscientious attempt to imitate some feature of the original. Mr. Palmer did not entangle himself with the problem of reproducing Homer's archaism or conventionality of language—a problem which exists for any one who considers all sides of the Homeric style. The men who first heard Homer's verse undoubtedly heard forms which they did not use in ordinary conversation, while to the later Greeks it was a storehouse of poetic and archaic expression. But this problem Mr. Palmer did not touch at all, and on the whole it need not fall within the province of a prose translation. With the instinct of a delicate literary taste, he has avoided such pitfalls as we have mentioned. He has seen just how far fidelity can be pushed, how far the idioms of the two languages can be made to travel together, and at what point they must diverge. The experiment which he tried of dropping the *thee* and *thou* of solemn style has been a complete success. It relieves the reader greatly, and has not marred in the slightest the dignity of the style. Though he avoids far-fetched words and fine phrases, and though he fancies he has eschewed the "dream language, the language of poetry," the same happy instinct has saved him from making his prose prosaic. As a matter of fact, the inversions which he permits himself and his choice of words differ constantly, though subtly, from ordinary prose, and make up much of the charm of the achievement. In his representations of the naïveté of Homer, he has been sometimes very daring, and we cannot always follow him in the results. We submit that the "pretty" clothes and the "Papa dear" of Nausicaa smack of the boudoir rather than of the Arcadian housewifery and the toilet by the sea. "He shall fight the crowd" (πλεόνεσσι μαχήσεται) hits the meaning exactly, and is very clever—if it is not a little profane. When Melantho meets Odysseus, after his defeat of the beggar Irus, she taunts him in language which we quote as an extreme instance of Mr. Palmer's familiar style:

> "Why, silly stranger, you are certainly some crack-brained person, unwilling to go to the coppersmith's to sleep, or to the common lodge; but here you prate continually, braving these many lords and unabashed at heart. Surely the wine has touched your wits; or else it is your constant way to chatter idly. Are you beside yourself because you beat that scapegrace Irus? A better man than Irus may by and by arise, to box your pate with doughty blows and pack you out-of-doors all dabbled with your blood."

If we may trust our ear, this rings a little false; it has fallen a note lower than the original. It is dramatically suitable, but we see no precise warrant in the Greek for the general lowering of tone and the oddity of the closing sentence.

We had marked many neat phrases and skilful turns of expression for quotation, but it is not fair to judge by a handful of sparkling drops the even current of a style which flows strong and pellucid, confusing nothing, distorting very rarely, and mirroring with fidelity the large and simple traits of the original. We prefer to leave the last word to Mr. Palmer, and to let him show for himself how he can rise as well as sink—how nobly he compasses a poetic passage even though, as he says, he "employs persistently the veracious language, the language of prose":

> "Meanwhile our staunch ship swiftly neared the Sirens' island; a fair wind swept her on. On a sudden the wind ceased; there came a breathless calm; Heaven hushed the waves. My comrades, rising, furled the sail, stowed it on board the hollow ship, then, sitting at their oars, whitened the water with the polished blades. . . . But when we were as far away as one can call and driving swiftly onward, our speeding ship, as it drew near, did not escape the Sirens, and thus they lifted up their penetrating voice: 'Come hither, come, Odysseus, whom all praise, great glory of the Achæans! Bring in your ship, and listen to our song. For none has ever passed us in a black-hulled ship till from our lips he heard ecstatic song, then went his way rejoicing and with larger knowledge. For we know all that on the plain of Troy Argives and Trojans suffered at the gods' behest; we know whatever happens on the bounteous earth.'"

GREEN'S SPANISH CONSPIRACY.

The Spanish Conspiracy. A Review of Early Spanish Movements in the Southwest, containing Proofs of the Intrigues of James Wilkinson and John Brown; of the complicity therewith of Judges Sebastian, Wallace, and Innes; the Early Struggles of Kentucky for Autonomy; the Intrigues of Sebastian in 1795–7 and the Legislative Investigation of his Corruption. By Thomas Marshall Green. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1891.

It fell to our lot during the last summer to review at some length a posthumous work of the late Col. John Mason Brown, in which, under the title of the 'Political Beginnings of Kentucky,' it was sought by that gentleman to vindicate his grandfather, John Brown, from the suspicion of having had art or part in the so-called "Spanish Conspiracy" set on foot for the separation of Kentucky from the Union in 1786 and later. For the purpose of this vindication, Col. Brown found it necessary to impeach the accuracy of certain very specific statements made by Humphrey Marshall in his well-known History of Kentucky, and in this way the embers of a long-buried controversy were raked afresh from the ashes beneath which they had slumbered for more than three generations, but beneath which, it seems, they had lost none of their wonted fires in the lapse of a century. In the work before us Mr. Green has sought to kindle these embers into a leaping flame for the destruction of John Brown's political fame and for the special confusion of his latest apologist, who is represented to have been inspired with much more of pious zeal than of either truth or candor in performing the task so imprudently undertaken.

It is to be regretted, we think, that a pure and simple question of history should be complicated, as between the descendants of John Brown and of Humphrey Marshall, with a polemical purpose which discolors the narrative of the disputants on both sides, and disturbs the serenity of impartial students in their quest for truth. The color of the time is quite obscured by these obsolete personalities. Injustice is likely to be done as well to the truth as to the error of men who acted a difficult part in a grave conjuncture, when their dark striving is pursued, even across the grave, with the fierce outcries and hoarse denunciations of the political forum. Col. Brown, it is true, wrote with a becoming moderation of style, but he wrote in support of what seems to us an impossible thesis, and with a *parti pris* which hid from his sight the true perspective of history. Mr. Green, in the work before us, maintains a thesis which seems to us substantially true, but he writes with an acerbity of temper and with a personal acrimony which often impair the strength of his historical argument.

The reader, however, should not allow himself to be too much surprised at the vivacity brought by Mr. Green to his exposition of the issues which so sharply divided the houses of Brown and of Marshall in the early annals of Kentucky. The author confesses that he had only a limited acquaintance with the facts of this formative period until they were forced upon his attention by "the astonishing statements which are made in the 'Political Beginnings.'" It was natural, too, that these facts should be accentuated by the polemical purpose which breathes through every page of this volume. The strange and picturesque incidents of this stirring period have therefore come upon the writer with something like the surprise which attends a new discovery, and this surprise often finds expression in a flamboyant style of literary composition, much more remarkable for the reiterated stress of its emphasis than for its strength of reserve. Cicero pleasantly tells us in one of his letters that, in writing the history of his consulship, he had emptied on it the perfumery-pot of Isocrates, the jewel cases of all that rhetorician's disciples, and a slight sprinkling of pigments borrowed from Aristotle. Mr. Green is

much more simple in his color values. He satisfies himself with monochrome by hurling the contents of his inkstand in blow upon blow aimed at the hapless performance of Col. Brown. Even when he pays a tribute to what seems "a solitary truth" in the 'Political Beginnings,' he can do so in words no less high-pitched than these:

"As the enraptured eye of the wearied traveller in the Sahara rests with delight upon the distant palm trees which shade the sparkling spring of sweet and living water that gushes out from amidst the sands of the desert, so will the reader who has wandered through this bewildering maze of suppression, evasion, and invented inaccuracy, which appear in the 'Political Beginnings,' be charmed to find in all its pages a solitary truth." (P. 316.)

Animadversion on the errors and inaccuracies of the book which Mr. Green takes for his quarry is couched in a lurid style which leaves nothing to the imagination of the reader. The following citation will serve as a specimen:

"These tortuous concealments of the evidence, these pitiful efforts to evade the facts, these statements which are so emphatically contradicted by John Brown himself, and these shameless accusations of others, render the 'Beginnings,' instead of the 'vindication' for which it was designed by its author, a sorrowful, a painful, and a most sickening confession of the author's own conviction of John Brown's guilt, and of his detection of John Brown's deceits in his efforts to conceal that guilt." (P. 381.)

It will be admitted that even the truth of history is liable to suffer damage from a style like that.

It would have been much better if both Col. Brown and Mr. Green could have been content to put the so-called "Spanish Conspiracy" in the large historic framework to which it rightfully belongs, instead of viewing it through the pin-hole of a personal and political feud that is emptied of all significance at the present day. That there was "a Spanish Conspiracy," which in one or another of its phases and manifestations extended from the year 1785 to the year 1806, will be denied by none who has acquainted himself with the annals of that epoch. The fact of such a conspiracy, sometimes working underground and sometimes breaking out in eruptions of popular ferment, meets us again and again in the political archives of that time, as well as in the pages of Gayarré, who first gave to the story of this plot a full and perfect confirmation based on authentic documents still preserved at Madrid.

The roots of the plot were planted in the critical period which immediately followed the conclusion of the treaty of peace with England after the Revolution. The Federal Union at that time, as Gayarré phrases it, and as everybody knows, "was weak in the very bones and marrow of its organization." Washington, writing to John Jay in 1786, expressed the opinion that, ignorant as were our political councils at that time, they were inspired still more by a spirit of popular wickedness. He confessed that the waywardness of the Western people was even more to be feared than the machinations of the Spaniards at New Orleans. While Wilkinson was bargaining with Gov. Miró at the mouth of the Mississippi River, Gardoqui, the Spanish Minister at Philadelphia, was openly coquetting with the members of the Continental Congress, and bluntly avowed the opinion that "the people of Kentucky would make good Spanish subjects, and would become such for the sake of the privileges annexed to that character." The impending separation of the western part of the country from the Eastern States was a topic of common remark, and Jefferson wrote to Madison in 1787 that it might be expected to take place at any moment. The letters of Madison from 1785 to 1792 are replete with apprehensions on this same subject, for we find him reciting again and again, to one or another of his correspondents, how the people of Georgia seemed at one time to vie with the people of Kentucky for the favor of the Spaniards at New Orleans, in flagrant contempt of their Federal obligations; how the people of Kentucky, in their eagerness for political independence, "disliked to be hung up on the will of Congress" in the matter of their separation from Virginia; how it was soon to be decided whether "it were possible or worth while to preserve the Union of the States"; how a concurrence with Spain in her settled project for closing the Mississippi River to Western commerce would have for its inevitable consequence to barter away "the affections of our ultramontane brethren"; how "the people at large on the Western waters," abetted by the State of Virginia, which was "already jealous of Northern politics," would consider themselves as "sold by their Atlantic brethren" if Gardoqui should be successful in his negotiation with Jay; how all these jealousies and apprehensions were stimulated and exaggerated by the proposed surrender of the right to navigate the Mississippi River for the term of twenty-five years; how, as the result of such a surrender, "it would be no unnatural consequence" if the people of the West "should consider themselves absolved from every Federal tie, and should court some [foreign] protection for their betrayed rights"; how men of reflection, in view of these popular discontents, grew less and less sanguine as to the possibility of achieving a new system of government in proportion as they grew more and more despondent over the then existing anarchy; how the bulk of the American people, in dread of turbulence at the East, like that witnessed in Shays's rebellion, and in dread of turbulence at the West, like that menaced by Spanish intrusion, would probably end by preferring a partition of the Union into three distinct and energetic Governments, the Eastern, the Southern, and the Western; how "the ambition of individuals [who were these individuals?], mixing itself with the first impulses of resentment and interest," might by degrees lead the people of the West "to set up for themselves"; how Great Britain at the North was beckoning to Kentucky from the Canadian border, and how Spain at the South, "taking advantage of this disgust in Kentucky," was then (in 1787) "actually endeavoring to seduce them [the Kentuckians] from the Union by holding out a darling object which would never be obtained by them in the Union"; how this disunion plot, though concerted in secret, "was as certain as it was important"; how the commercial freedom of the Mississippi River had become at that crisis "a bait for the defection of the Western people"; and how "some of the leaders of Kentucky [who were these "leaders?"] *were known* to favor the idea of a connection with Spain," while the people at large were as yet inimical to the project, because their future disposition was dependent on the measures that should be adopted by the new Government about to be framed under the Constitution of 1787.

Such, in brief, is an outline sketch of that larger framework of historical facts and ideas (we could easily make it larger still) in which the so-called Spanish conspiracy should be placed to be seen in its true aspect and real proportions. The picture should be disengaged from the trivialities of personal debate and partisan contention. Statements like those we have cited from the writings of Madison alone would suffice to show the reality and the extent of the negotiations set on foot by Spanish sympathizers in Kentucky for the separation of the trans-Alleghany region from the Atlantic States. Men like Wilkinson and Sebastian, who were afterwards proved to have been for years in the pay of the Spanish Government, may have been inspired primarily by sordid motives of private gain, but none the less were they eager to cloak their personal designs under pretexts of the public welfare. Clark tells us in his 'Proofs' of Wilkinson's corruption that even that "acquitted felon," as John Randolph used to call him, was wont to palliate, and even to justify, his Spanish connections, on the ground that the situation of Kentucky, before the Constitution of 1787, was peculiar; that the Western country was laboring under exceptional disadvantages at the time when he made his bargain with Miró, and that the state of the whole Union was "doubtful and distressed," so long as the Union "was bound together by nothing better than a rope of sand."

That John Brown, while a member of the Continental Congress, was acquainted by Gardoqui with the projects of Spain for the separation of Kentucky from the Union, and that Brown communicated these projects to political friends in the Kentucky country, is not denied. It is only denied that he sympathized with the Spanish conspiracy and that he gave to it aid and comfort. It is very certain that he did not expose the conspiracy with a view to its popular condemnation, and that the plans of Gardoqui encountered from him no open opposition. His reasons for this cautious reserve were explained at the time to Madison, and these reasons seem to have commanded the approval of that prudent statesman, whose loyalty to the Union nobody can doubt. The same reasons which deterred him from even bruiting the designs of Spain serve equally well to explain why it was that he made no open opposition to them. He preferred to bide his time and to watch the drift of events in a day of political and social dissolution. In this attitude of expectation he forbore to precipitate the crisis, because he had hope as well as faith in the prospects of the new Government. So far as he gave advice at all, he seems to have thought that a masterly inactivity was better than either open resistance to the overtures of Gardoqui or open confederation with Spain.

This cautious policy may have seemed to him at that time as much the part of public duty as it was the dictate of personal prudence. But it was inevitable that the mental reservations of such a policy should carry with them all the perils that environ statecraft, whether such statecraft be prompted by patriotism or by personal ambition. That the mental reservations of Brown were inspired by patriotism seemed clear to Madison. That they were prompted by a truckling spirit of subserviency to Spain, and were fed by personal and political ambitions, was openly charged, and we doubt not honestly believed, by Humphrey Marshall.

How easy it is to do more than justice to the enigmatical attitude of Brown in this difficult crisis we may read in every page of the 'Political Beginnings' as written by his grandson. How easy it is to do less than justice to this enigmatical position we may read in every page of the volume before us. So easy does Mr. Green find it to do less than justice to

John Brown that the author will not concede to him even the poor credit of having communicated to Madison the nature of Gardoqui's overtures. It is urged that this alleged communication was an "afterthought," invented as a screen for conscious guilt. Yet we have the express testimony of Madison to the truth of the statement. Writing in 1834, he held the following language, and we cite his words at length because they contain the best defence that can be made for what at best, without such an explanation, must seem to have been an equivocal position:

"My recollection, with which references in my manuscript papers accord, leaves no doubt that the overture [of Gardoqui] was communicated to me by Mr. Brown. Nor can I doubt that, as stated by him, I expressed the opinion and apprehension that a knowledge of it in Kentucky might, in the excitements there, be mischievously employed. This view of the subject evidently resulted from the natural and known impatience of the Western people on the waters of the Mississippi for a market for the products of their exuberant soil; from the distrust of the Federal policy produced by the project of surrendering the use of that river for a term of many years; and from a coincidence of the overture in point of time with the plan on foot for consolidating the Union by arming it with new powers—an object to embarrass and defeat which the dismembering aims of Spain would not fail to make the most tempting sacrifices and to spare no intrigues. I owe it to Mr. Brown, with whom I was in intimate friendship when we were associated in public life, to observe that I always regarded him, whilst steadily attentive to the interests of his constituents, as duly impressed with the importance of the Union and anxious for its prosperity." ('Madison's Writings,' vol. iv, p. 365.)

The West Indies. A Historical Geography of the British Colonies. Vol. II. By C. P. Lucas, B.A., of Balliol College, Oxford, and the Colonial Office, London. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

ALTHOUGH Great Britain was not invited to the Pan-American Congress, statistics demonstrate that the trade of the British dependencies in America is, after that of the United States, the first in importance among nations in the Western Hemisphere. This is not to be wondered at, seeing that, besides her vast possessions in North America, her world-wide empire embraces British Honduras in Central America, and British Guiana in South America, and numerous islands in the West Indies. It is with regard to British Guiana and the British West Indian islands that Mr. Lucas, the private secretary to Sir Robert Herbert, permanent Under-Secretary at the Colonial Office, has issued a volume of his series treating of the history and the geography of the British colonies throughout the world. In view of the fact that the colonies in question had no representation at the Pan-American Congress, it cannot but be interesting to Americans to learn from Mr. Lucas's statements respecting their commerce, that their trade, and especially their export trade, tends steadily towards the United States. This is, of course, a result of the free-trade policy of England, which enables the colonists to take advantage of the best market for the sale of their products. It must be left to our statesmen to decide whether there might not be a further development of trade relations with these tropical colonies, which, together, import goods to the value of between £8,000,000 and £9,000,000 sterling, while the exports are of equal value.

The care which Mr. Lucas has bestowed upon the volume before us has resulted in the production of a book of handy size and of very varied information respecting the interesting places treated of. Herein may be found facts of history, commerce, taxation, laws, religion, education, and other subjects of West Indian being and doing, and very pleasantly and instructively are they treated of by the author. The admirable spirit in which the colonies of Great Britain are administered in the latter part of the nineteenth century pervades the volume. One might almost imagine Mr. Lucas to be a colonist rather than a member of the Colonial Office staff, in such striking contrast is his sympathetic style of writing to that speech of the ancient régime which did not hesitate to express its contemptuousness in the admonition, "Damn your souls! grow tobacco."

Wherever it may be thought fit to give correct and ample instruction in the resources and history of the British possessions, there should the series being issued by Mr. Lucas be made a standard class-book. The statesman also will find it the authority to consult. Americans who may be fleeing from the rigid winter of the North to the perpetual summer of the West Indian Islands, will find volume ii. a very entertaining companion during their sojourn.

With the Admiral of the Ocean Sea: A Narrative of the First Voyage to the Western World. By Charles P. Mac Kie. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1891.

WITH the approach of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America we may expect a general revival of Columbian literature. This book is probably the pioneer of a number of volumes bearing more or less directly upon the finding of the New World. Very appropriately it bears the imprint of a firm in Chicago, to which city has been assigned by the Government of the United States the duty of arranging the formal celebration of this anniversary by the greatest nation of that world which Columbus found.

The author presents to us in this volume a very readable and connected account of the first voyage of Columbus, founded upon and drawn mainly from the diary of Columbus as abridged and compiled by Las Casas. The title of the book may seem rather fanciful to the casual observer, but it is the title and rank officially given by Ferdinand and Isabella to Columbus before his first voyage, and confirmed by them upon his return. His commission read as "Our admiral of the ocean sea and Viceroy and Governor in the said islands and mainlands which you shall discover and acquire." The "ocean sea" was the term used in those days when referring to the Atlantic Ocean, as distinguished from the Mediterranean Sea.

Mr. Mac Kie has taken, as we have said, the compilation made by Las Casas of the original journal of Columbus, which Las Casas used in writing his 'History of the Indies,' as the main source of his information. In addition to this, however, he has enriched and amplified his narrative by information drawn from the official documents of Spain relating to the discovery, the testimony in the lawsuit brought against the Spanish Crown, after the death of Columbus, by his son Diego, and the publications of Muñoz, Navarrete, and others under the auspices of the Spanish Government. Based upon this research, the author has constructed very successfully a lively and picturesque, as well as accurate, narrative of the great voyage of discovery. He desired to make a popular, readable book rather than a new history, and, in his endeavors to draw a living picture of the events, is quite willing to lose somewhat the dignity of the graver methods followed by others whose works are destined to greater fame. Printed in the appendix are brief notes upon several of the disputed points concerning the birthplace and early life of Columbus, and the events preceding and accompanying the voyage; these show research, and desire to ascertain the actual facts, in each case.

The book begins with the arrival of Columbus and his son at the Convent of La Rábida near Palos in Andalusia, the narrative opening in a lively style, somewhat suggestive of Kingsley's 'Westward Ho.' This description of the visit to La Rábida brings us at once to the disputed question as to whether it was the first or second visit to the convent. The proximity of the convent to the borders of Portugal, as well as the statement of Las Casas, has led most writers to state that Columbus first found refuge in this Convent directly after his flight from Lisbon. We think, however, that the author, relying upon the testimony of García Fernandez as well as the letter of the Duke of Medina Celi to the Grand Cardinal of Spain, is correct in stating that the visit referred to was the first visit that Columbus made to the convent. The testimony of Fernandez and Juan Rodriguez, surnamed Cabezudo, in the lawsuit of Diego Columbus against the Crown, also seems to settle the question of the time that aid was extended by the Pinzons to Columbus, namely, after the return of Columbus from his successful visit to the Spanish Court and after the expedition was duly authorized. That due credit has not been given to the Pinzon for this aid was owing to the insubordination, desertion, and selfishness of Martín Alonzo Pinzon, which eclipsed his own efforts as well as to some extent that of his nobler brother.

The first seven chapters of the book treat of the events preceding the sailing of Columbus, the narrative of the voyage beginning with the eighth chapter, when the three vessels left the Rio Tinto, with the ebb tide and land breeze, upon their voyage to vast unknown spaces of ocean. It is well sustained, and, though the tale has been often told, it never loses its interest. The frail craft employed, the crude and imperfect appliances for navigation, and the great mystery surrounding the watery world west of the Canaries, added to the ignorance and superstition of the seamen, will always make this adventurous and eventful voyage a matter of wonder. Those who shall view at the Exposition at Chicago the facsimile of the caravel that crossed and recrossed the Atlantic at its widest part, will more than ever marvel at the successful termination of such a voyage.

The author, both in the main part of the book and in the appendix, expresses his belief that Columbus was fairly entitled to the reward offered by the Spanish sovereigns for the first sighting of the land. We cannot, however, but agree with Irving in expressing our regret that the great discoverer did not allow the reward to go to the humble sailor by whom the land was first seen. From the journal of Columbus as edited by Las Casas we quote the following:

"The Admiral again perceived it [the light] once or twice, appearing like the light of a wax candle moving up and down, which some thought an indication of land. But the Admiral held it for certain that land was near; for which reason after they had said the *Salve* which the seamen are accustomed to repeat and chant after their fashion, the Admiral directed them to keep a strict watch upon the forecastle and look out diligently for land, and to him who should first discover it he promised a silken jacket, besides the reward the King and Queen had offered, which was an annuity

of ten thousand maravedis. At two o'clock in the morning the land was discovered at two leagues' distance."

The lines immediately preceding this quotation state that the land was first seen by a sailor called Rodrigo de Triana.

Concerning the much-discussed question of the identity of the present San Salvador or Cat Island with Guanahani, the author has good grounds for believing that this identity has been well established, and, notwithstanding the many papers upon this subject in later times, we can find no discussion of it more satisfactory and convincing than that written many years ago by Commander Mackenzie of the United States Navy, and appended to Irving's 'Columbus,' treating both of the identity of Cat Island and the course of Columbus after leaving Guanahani.

The book in its binding, paper, and typography is creditable to its publishers.

Browning as a Philosophical and Religious Teacher. By Henry Jones, M.A. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

It is seldom that a poet's system of thought is submitted to so rigorous a philosophical criticism as is, in this highly interesting volume, applied to the intellectual contents of Browning's works. Prof. Jones, in apologizing for treating professed poetry as if it were a treatise on metaphysics, observes justly that Browning forsook art for dialectics in the larger part of his later writings; these poems have either a speculative interest and value, or none at all, and hence they are to be criticised from a philosophical point of view. The statement of the case by Prof. Jones can hardly be bettered:

"Kant's 'Metaphysic of Ethics' is not more metaphysical in intention than the poet's later utterances on the problems of morality. In 'La Saisiaz,' in 'Ferishtah's Fancies,' in the 'Parleyings,' and, though less explicitly, in 'Asolando,' 'Fifine at the Fair,' and 'Red Cotton Nightcap Country,' Browning definitely states, and endeavors to demonstrate, a theory of knowledge, a theory of the relation of knowledge to morality, and a theory of the nature of evil; and he discusses the arguments for the immortality of the soul. In these poems his artistic instinct avails him, not, as in his earlier ones, for the discovery of truth by way of intuition, but for the adornment of doctrines already derived from a metaphysical repository. His art is no longer free, no longer its own end, but coerced into an alien service. It has become illustrative and argumentative, and, in being made to subserve speculative purposes, it has ceased to be creative. Browning has appealed to philosophy, and philosophy must try his cause."

The sifting of Browning's doctrines by a philosophical scholar has long been a desideratum, for the estimate of these later works did not belong to poetic criticism. They were acknowledged without difficulty to have no primary interest as poetry; it remained to ask, Were these works, then, philosophy? Prof. Jones set himself to answer the question very fully, and the volume he publishes is so much concerned with philosophy in its general principles that Browning becomes in it only an incident and illustration; or, at least, the treatise may be so regarded, and one who cares nothing at all for Browning, but much for the ethical and metaphysical questions of the time, may read the book with a lively interest.

Browning, however, is the ground of interest stated in the title, and consequently we shall confine our attention to the criticism upon the poet. The summary given of his essential doctrines is very just and clear. The three main assumptions of his theory are thus stated: "(1) That knowledge of the true nature of things is impossible to man, and that, therefore, it is necessary to find other and better evidence than the intellect can give for the victory of good over evil; (2) that the failure of knowledge is a necessary condition of the moral life, inasmuch as certain knowledge would render all moral effort either futile or needless; (3) that after the failure of knowledge there still remains possible a faith of the heart, which can furnish a sufficient objective basis to morality and religion." A few pages further on, Prof. Jones again sums up Browning's view of knowledge more concretely: "We are ignorant of the world; we do not know even whether it is good, or evil, or only their semblance, that is presented to us in human life; and we know nothing of God except that He is the cause of love in man"; and the critic then asks, "What greater depth of agnosticism is possible?" He goes on to give his conclusion: "When the doctrine is put in this bald form, the moral and religious consciousness of man, in behalf of which the theory was invented, revolts against it."

In these brief extracts the whole matter is succinctly put, but even further explication may be useful. Browning adopts the view that all man's knowledge consists only of his inner states of consciousness, an idealistic view destitute even of that universal element which exists when knowledge is regarded as true for man, instead of only for men severally. This means the "failure of knowledge," the negation of the power of the intellect to reach truth, the suicide of the mind. The poet turns, therefore, to the emotions as the means of faith, and, in consonance with much vague conviction of his time in religious matters, appeals to "the heart" in default of "the head." The critic's examination of what is meant by such an appeal is admirable; he has little difficulty in showing that, taken literally, it is unmeaning; and that such meaning as it has, real and vital in human life, is contrary to the poet's apprehension. So far from reposing in an assumption of the "failure of knowledge," this appeal from the "head" to the "heart" is from less perfect to more perfect knowledge on which the depth of the emotion depends.

In respect to the curious doctrine of Browning in regard to evil, Prof. Jones finds his easiest task; the destruction of each clause as expressing any philosophical truth is complete. In the course of the examination of the entire theory which the critic aims to annihilate, the positive element is in the main an interesting application of the idea of evolution to metaphysical conceptions, one point of which may be incidentally mentioned: he holds that, as in morals the ideal exceeds the actual, yet becomes actual at each moment of man's progress in morality, so the reality (perfect knowledge) is similarly related to the phenomenon (man's knowledge), and becomes more known at each moment of man's progress in knowledge. In other words, as it is the ideal which is incompletely held in the actual, in morality, so it is the real which is incompletely held in the phenomenon, in knowledge; one parallels the other, and in each the contradiction of the terms is solved by the process of man's transformation. The error of Browning lies in affirming the opposites as irreconcilable, in the theory of knowledge, and secondly in having recourse to a false theory of evil in order to save conduct, and a false theory of faith in order to save religion.

"I conclude," says Prof. Jones, "it was a profound error, which contained in it the destruction of morality and religion, as well as of knowledge, to make 'the quality of God' a love that excludes reason, and the quality of man an intellect incapable of knowing truth. . . . The idea that truth is unattainable was represented by Browning as a bulwark of the faith, but it proved on examination to be treacherous. His optimism was found to have no better foundation than personal conviction, which any one was free to deny, and which the poet could in no wise prove. The evidence of the heart to which he appealed was the evidence of an emotion severed from intelligence and therefore without any content whatsoever. 'The faith' which he professed was not the faith that anticipates and invites proof, but a faith which is incapable of proof. In casting doubt upon the validity of knowledge, he degraded the whole spiritual nature of man; for a love that is ignorant of its object is a blind impulse, and a moral consciousness that does not know the law is an impossible phantom—a self-contradiction."

This conclusion is sufficiently definite and severe. What has been shown is that Browning's philosophy is agnosticism, and endeavors to escape from moral and religious paralysis by an ingenious but easily confuted error in respect to the character of evil and a mystical self-deception in respect to God. The amateurishness of his metaphysics and the imperfect logic of his thinking, even within the limits of his erroneous assumptions, are both brought out. In these later poems, so far as their contents are concerned, the answer seems to be that they are no more philosophy than, so far as their form is concerned, they are poetry. The critic has the kindness to point out, on the other hand, that before Browning's later speculations developed his early ideas in the region of dialectic, he represented the truth of experience in quite another way. The errors of his reflecting period do not have place in the earlier creative period, when, as a poet, he followed the larger method of artistic intuition. The height of his development is here set at "The Ring and the Book," in which the balance of his mental habit still inclined towards art rather than philosophy, and the representation of life was by the mirror of poetry. After that time his works taken in the mass exhibit a deterioration, as much in intellectual as in poetic phases. This is true whether agnosticism be admitted or rejected. The validity of agnosticism, so far as Browning is concerned, is not in issue; the inconsequence of his conclusions as drawn from his premises is enough to prove that he was not a thinker, in the special sense of that term; agnosticism leads elsewhere than to his goals. Nevertheless, the value of this treatise as a criticism of agnostic premises is to be pointed out, and also its interest as a criticism of widespread religious and theological moods proceeding from Kantian influences. The volume is, it is true, somewhat difficult reading, but the practical interest it derives from its dealings with poetry in a concrete instance, and with the idea of evolution and the tendency of religious thought, removes it from the special class of metaphysical works, and gives to it much suggestiveness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Francis. The Genuine Works of Hippocrates. 2 vols. in one. William Wood & Co. $5.
Auvray, Richard. Les Gens d'Epinal, 1423–1444. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Black, William. Donald Ross of Heimra. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Boutmy, Emile. Studies in Constitutional Law. Translated by E. M. Dicey. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Braddon, Mrs. M. E. The World, the Flesh and the Devil. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Burnham, S. M. The Struggles of the Nations. 2 vols. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $6.
Carhart, Prof. H. S. Primary Batteries. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.50.
Drayton, Dr. H. S. Vacation Time, with Hints on Summer Living. Fowler & Wells Co. 25 cents.
Emtage, W. T. A. An Introduction to the Mathematical Theory of Electricity and Magnetism. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

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Foreign Books, Subscription to foreign periodicals, Tauchnitz British Authors. Catalogues on application. Carl Schoenhof, 144 Tremont St., Boston.

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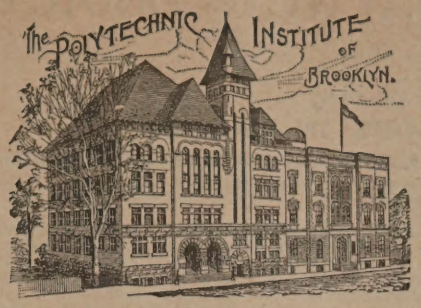

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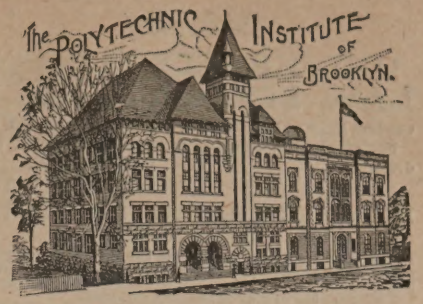

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 6, 1891.

The Week.

QUAY and Dudley have at last resigned their positions as Chairman and Treasurer of the Republican National Committee, and Quay has resigned his membership of the Committee also. Dudley assigns a reason for his departure, saying, "My business engagements will demand all my time and attention during the coming year." Quay assigns no reason whatever. The Committee have deprived this event of its due moral force by passing resolutions extolling the retiring pair in every form of eulogy, and expressing deep regret at their departure. We take the liberty of putting into popular language the transaction which has just been completed. The letter of Quay should read something like this:

DEAR MR. FASSETT: You are well aware that I was accused of taking large sums of money from the Treasury of Pennsylvania, for private speculation, on two different occasions; that on the first occasion I lost the money, and was reduced to such extremity that I contemplated suicide, but that Don Cameron came to my aid at the last moment and paid back the money. So my enemies said, and although there was no truth in the story, the people of Pennsylvania believed it, and wanted me to 'get out,' and when I wouldn't get out, they turned on my candidate for Governor, Geo. W. Delamater, one of the purest and noblest men in the world, and defeated him by over 16,000 majority (you remember that Harrison had about 80,000 majority for President two years before). Since that time a large number of Republican newspapers in different parts of the country have been demanding my resignation as Chairman of the Committee, and predicting disaster next year if I continued to hold my present position. My enemies in Pennsylvania have gone so far as to demand my resignation as a member of the Committee also, and for the same reasons. In short, there is much ground to apprehend that if I remain Chairman, the party will be beaten next year, and that if I remain a member of the Committee, we shall lose Pennsylvania. For these reasons, which I trust you will find satisfactory, I have forwarded to the Hon. William H. Andrews, Chairman of the Republican State Committee of Pennsylvania, my resignation as the member of the Republican National Committee from that State. The greater usually includes the less, but in this case the less includes the greater.—Yours very truly, M. S. Q.

This is the substance of what they are all saying to each other in private. If a letter had been written by Dudley marked by the same spirit of frankness, it would allude in feeling terms to the unreasonable prejudice existing in Indiana and elsewhere to the use of money for the purchase of votes in "blocks of five." Also, to the unfounded and unwarranted belief that he (Dudley) wrote a letter authorizing the disbursement of a large sum for that purpose two or three years ago, which is false; and besides, everybody knows that the Democrats would have done the same thing if they had only had the money.

A month after his accession to the Presidency Mr. Harrison appointed to the Collectorship of this port Joel B Erhardt, a Republican politician of prominence, who had served as Assistant District Attorney in Brooklyn years ago, and later as United States Marshal, and who had established peculiar claims to recognition by running as the Republican Machine candidate for Mayor in 1888. Col. Erhardt has undoubtedly made as good a collector as any partisan can. The business community has been well satisfied with the business conduct of the office. Its political side has been less objectionable to enlightened public sentiment than could reasonably have been expected. The Collector has enforced the Civil-Service Law so faithfully that the "boys" have been "kicking" ever since he went in, while there has been less manifestation of "Custom-house influence," in its more offensive forms, than ever before. He has now resigned midway of his term. Why? He himself frankly tells the reason, like the straightforward man that he is. Here it is, the most important sentence being italicized:

"I have resigned because the Collector has been reduced to a position where he is no longer an independent officer, with authority commensurate with his responsibility. I have given bonds for $200,000. I have received for the Government during the twenty months last past $322,697,135 40, and I am all the time personally responsible for enormous values in money and in merchandise. My duties are necessarily performed through about 1,500 employees. I am not willing to continue to be responsible for their conduct unless I can have proper authority over them. *The recent policy of the Treasury Department has been to control the details of the customs administration at the port of New York from Washington, at the dictation of a private individual having no official responsibility.* The Collector is practically deprived of power and control, while he is left subject to all responsibility. The office is no longer independent, and I am. Therefore we have separated."

We assume that the "private individual" here referred to is "Tom" Platt. In other words, Col. Erhardt gets out because he could stay only on condition of being "Tom" Platt's man.

The *Tribune's* explanation of Collector Erhardt's removal is about as frank as words could make it, and practically confesses that Mr. Erhardt had to go because he insisted upon running the Custom-house on business principles and living up to the Civil-Service Law. It is also about as cynical in its contempt for enlightened public sentiment as words could make it, and practically declares that the Harrison Administration believes in the spoils system, and is not afraid to say so. Considering the natural tendency of politicians and organs towards indirection, it is a great help to a correct understanding of the situation when a party is so ready to tell the truth about its principles and practices. The President's course in this matter, we need hardly add, is most discreditable. In his letter of acceptance, Mr. Harrison asked the support of voters upon the basis of this pledge:

"In appointments to every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office. Only the interest of the public service should suggest removals from office."

A difference was made in the loan market last week between notes payable in *gold* and notes payable in *dollars*. This difference amounted to 1½ per cent. in the rate of interest charged, the former being at 4½, and the latter at 6 per cent. This was the case as to time loans on collateral security. A discrimination is likewise made as to mortgage loans on real estate, and this discrimination is likely to become general. It is the first practical effect of the silver craze, or rather it is the first visible manifestation of it. The first practical effect has been a paralysis of trade in the face of cheering conditions in the natural world. The *Financial Chronicle* pictures the situation in moderate language, saying in its last number:

"Wall Street affairs continue to move on in a state of almost semi-panic, with no real cause for the condition, and indeed with every material fact and promise favoring confidence except those which relate to the wretched condition of our currency produced by silver coinage. The feeling of fear and uneasiness is so prevalent that a whisper respecting the strongest house on the street puts the markets in a quiver, while a suspicion expressed as to the payment of a dividend not due for months yet, is sufficient to make the prices of the property affected drop many points. It is easy to recall periods of general distrust when stock values and rates for money were in much the same position as now, but never an occasion like the present, when these features were prominent and yet railroad earnings, net and gross, were increasing, and the country on the verge of realizing abundant harvests of food products, with a European demand awaiting the surpluses at fair prices."

It is idle to suppose that the holders of ready money worth at the present time 100 cents per dollar in gold are going to see it converted into something less valuable without an effort to keep it in as good condition as it now is. The extra 1½ per cent. interest charged for loans payable in dollars over those payable in gold represents the amount of risk that before the maturity of the loan we shall be on the silver basis, or at any rate off the gold basis. There is some difference between the two phrases. We shall be off the gold basis whenever gold commands any premium, however small, over "current funds." We shall not be on the silver basis, strictly speaking, until gold commands a premium over current funds equal to the difference between gold bullion and silver bullion under our legal ratio, about 24 per cent. at the present time. A free-coinage bill with a clause making silver bullion exchangeable at the mint for legal-tender silver certificates, without any delay for coinage, would carry us more rapidly to this point than the present law is doing.

The question may be asked, Why do not the Clearing-house banks make their loans payable in gold, and thus take time by the

forelock? They may be compelled to do so eventually. They may be driven by the action of their own depositors to take this step, but up to this time they have reasoned with themselves that the step would not be popular; that it would expose them to the attacks of demagogues and ignorant people in Congress, and that it will be best for them in the long run to take pot-luck with the country. At the same time it is an observed fact that the Clearing-house banks hold an amount of gold at least equal to their capital stock, so that in any contingency their own shareholders are protected against a depreciation of the standard of value. It may be said that the depositors are entitled to draw out at all times as good money as they put in; but as the banks do not make the money that is deposited with them, they cannot guarantee it as against the possible acts of the Government. The situation is a deplorable one, and the only thing tolerably certain is that before any free-coinage bill can become a law, we shall be off the gold basis. The holders of ready money will see to that.

The campaign of the People's party in Ohio was opened by Senator Peffer, at Cleveland, on Thursday. He said:

"We want more money and cheaper interest. Free coinage of silver is but a drop in the bucket which must be filled. That high tariff tends to increase the volume of money is a fallacy. The glaring need of the people is more money. The eventual outcome of political parties in America must be that the money-lenders will organize in opposition to the debtor class."

This is undoubtedly the "keynote" of the party which Mr. Peffer represents, and it is well for the politicians of other parties, who are tumbling over each other in their haste to make silver dollars for these people, to understand that silver is only one instalment of the demand for cheap money. Silver is the product of labor. It is not to be had for nothing. Free coinage will not help "the debtor class," or that portion of it that Peffer speaks for. What they want is the kind of money that is made of lampblack and rags. As surely as they carry their silver programme, so surely will they push their demand for paper.

The action of the Maryland Democratic State Convention regarding the silver question is most significant. Senator Gorman controlled the assembly, and was endorsed by it for reëlection. Last winter he was a pronounced advocate of free coinage, and nobody then doubted that his party in his State would approve his position this summer. In the meantime, however, discussion of the question has so weakened the case of the free-coinage men that the Convention on Thursday refused to say a word in favor of the policy, and adopted a plank which, so far as it has any meaning, takes ground against it, since it declares that "the power of Congress to coin gold and silver ought not to be so exercised that gold coin or silver coin will become a commodity, and so disturb the operations of trade, but in such manner that the dollar in gold coin and the dollar in silver coin shall be of equal exchangeable value in all the markets of the United States." This is as far as a convention could reasonably be expected to go which was endorsing for reelection a Senator who had favored free coinage, and it represents a distinct victory for the cause of honest money. Mr. Gorman's prominence in the Democratic party only emphasizes the significance of this proof that the free-coinage craze is beginning to abate.

The result of the Kentucky election on Monday ought to open the eyes of those people who have supposed that the rise of the Farmers' Alliance threatens the supremacy of the Democratic party in the South next year. For some days past, reports have been coming from representatives of the Alliance and of the People's party that the Democrats were in great danger of losing the State. The returns show that the Democrats have elected their candidate for Governor by fully the usual majority of about 30,000, and by almost twice as large a majority as at the last gubernatorial election in 1887, when Buckner's plurality fell short of 17,000. The Alliance succeeded in electing some of its candidates to the Legislature over the Democratic nominees, and in other cases induced Democratic conventions to take up its favorites. In this way it will exert considerable influence upon legislation, but without in any way shaking the hold of the Democratic party upon the State. It is entirely safe to predict a similar result in every other Southern State. The Republican party still stands as the champion of the Force-Bill policy in the South, and however much the Democrats of that section may disagree as to minor questions, they will all stand together in opposition to that party when the national contest of next year comes on.

The most important result of Monday's election was the adoption of the new Constitution by a tremendous majority, a large proportion of the Democrats voting for it, together with nearly all the Republicans, the Farmers' Alliance, People's party, etc. The State has long stood in pressing need of a revision of its fundamental law, the existing instrument having been framed in 1849, and its antiquated character being well illustrated by its provision that the right of property in slaves is "before and higher than any constitutional sanction." Unfortunately the high hopes which were entertained of the convention called to frame a new constitution were not realized. It did, indeed, incorporate many needed reforms, like the prohibition of lotteries and the substitution of the Australian system for the *viva-voce* form of voting which has hitherto been maintained; but it also shovelled in all sorts of minor provisions which are either bad or of doubtful value, and which in either case should be adopted as legislative statutes, rather than as parts of the framework of government. Moreover, the work was done in a most slovenly manner as regards style. For example, one clause provides that the Governor shall be elected in odd-numbered years; another that Representatives shall be elected in even-numbered years; and still a third, that the Governor shall be elected "by the qualified voters of the State at the time when, and places where, they shall respectively vote for Representatives"! An even more ridiculous blunder is committed in the section which provides that "no person shall be eligible as judge of the Circuit Court who is not less than thirty-five years of age." The courts will have plenty of work straightening out such contradictory and absurd provisions.

Gov. Pattison of Pennsylvania is a most exasperating kind of man to the average Philadelphian. When the bank scandals there became to a certain extent public, and Bardsley's resignation left a vacancy in a plundered office, the Governor stepped in and filled the vacancy with a Democrat of his own kind of independence, who cannot be counted on at all to conceal matters simply because they reflect on the character of prominent Philadelphians. The fathers of the city carried to the courts the question of their own right to make this appointment, but the courts sustained the Governor. Now this same truth-seeking Governor has, in a very easily understood letter, asked Secretary Foster to authorize him to appoint a committee of three or five citizens to examine the books of the Keystone Bank. The simple meaning of this request is, that Gov. Pattison has no faith in any thorough investigation of the bank scandals by the Councils Committee and their and the Mayor's experts, and so he proposes to take a hand in the investigation himself. There is a blending of city and State interests in the office of the Philadelphia city Treasury, and it is this which gives the Governor an excuse for making his request, and takes from the Secretary of the Treasury any excuse for assisting in concealing the frauds by rejecting Gov. Pattison's petition. Mr. Foster has, in fact, given his consent to it.

The new Republican Senator from New Hampshire, Dr. Jacob H. Gallinger, has had his portrait painted by the old Republican Senator from the State, "Bill" Chandler. The picture is done in Chandler's newspaper, the Concord *Monitor*, and the artist puts his full name at the bottom. We reproduce a few touches:

"The necessities and desires of Dr. Gallinger were money and office. For money he was employed by Samuel W. Hale in his canvass for the Governorship in 1883, and no money-barrel has he ever seen, from that of the Montreal railroad in 1878 to that of Gen. Alger in 1891, without an intense desire to tap it and absorb its contents. Unworthy ends by corrupt means have been his unvarying aim. In 1887 he sold himself and his influence as member of Congress and Chairman of the State Committee to the Concord Railroad for $5,000 or

more; and he superintended the expenditure of the money of that company among venal Republicans over the State to the amount of $100,000 or more. With the aid of the mercenary force thus organized, he usurped the State Committee Chairmanship in 1888 and became an unsuccessful candidate for Senator in 1889.

"He originated or joined numerous wild-cat endowment orders, and is more responsible than any other living man for the injury, suffering, and disgrace caused to New Hampshire by these wicked and reckless organizations; and he took care to obtain in cash his own large fees as supreme medical examiner, and to secure for himself the earliest benefit certificates issued. With his barrel full of money obtained thus and from the Concord Railroad, he sent out during the canvass of 1890 his circulars demanding the Senatorship, and brought on an issue in the town and ward caucuses which of itself was sufficient to cause the close result in the State on members of the Legislature."

It has long been believed that there was about as much rascality to the square inch in the management of the Republican party in New Hampshire as could be found anywhere in the country, but it was never expected that one United States Senator would turn State's evidence against another.

The *Times* publishes the charges of Cashier Banta of the New York Life Insurance Company against the President and in a general way against the executive management of the company. These charges have been going about by word of mouth for years, but in a very vague and indefinite way Nobody except the committee who investigated them could have understood their gravity. It is hardly possible to imagine anything worse than these charges, and it is difficult to understand how the cashier could be retained in office after the President had been acquitted of them. The truth or falsity of them cannot be pronounced upon by the newspaper press, but there is one charge that the Legislature ought to look into at an early day, viz.:

"(7.) They have spent immense sums under the name of 'law expenses,' presumptively in corrupting Legislatures, to defeat investigations, and to procure the passage of laws making speculation in stocks more easy."

The *Times* says that the money paid for corrupting the Legislature was paid to lobbyists, "the most notable of whom is well known in public life in this city." Why not give his name?

The *Tribune* thinks that our exports of flour to Cuba will at once be doubled as a result of the reciprocity agreement. As we already supply three-fifths of Cuba's total consumption of flour, this would mean that we are going to absorb all of Spain's share in the trade, and also that the consumption is to be increased by one-fifth. But the Spanish millers are left with a discrimination of one dollar a barrel in their favor, and will probably remain in the field, while there is no likelihood whatever of an increased consumption of flour. The majority of the population almost never taste wheat bread, their staple diet being native fruits, corn, and beans. Moreover, the main cause of Cuban complaint is not touched by the so-called treaty—that is, our McKinley tax on imported tobacco. It is that which has closed the factories in Havana and created widespread distress. If we would agree to remove that, it might be in order to talk about the relief brought to misgoverned Cuba by "American diplomacy," and to expect that the grateful and prosperous Cubans would double all their American orders. As it is, they will have to put up with Mr. Blaine's barren assurance that the President will make the tobacco grievance the subject of a "special note." What the Spanish Minister asked was, that the President would agree to recommend to Congress a reduction of the tobacco duties; if he thinks to secure this through that "special note," he will be very much mistaken. With the tobacco duty remaining as it is, with Cuban finance in a bad way, and likely to be in a worse one as a result of the treaty, and with the power expressly reserved to the Cortes to upset the whole arrangement, the measure is not fitted either to give great satisfaction in Cuba or notably to increase our export trade. We already have the best of Cuba's foreign commerce, and our exporters would do better to continue to rely upon their natural advantages than to count too much upon this defective reciprocity agreement.

The news item sent out from Washington in regard to the increase of English exports to Brazil, suggests comparison with the state of our own commerce with the same country. This will at once show that we are making no impression upon the trade in cotton manufactures. English exports of cotton goods to Brazil for the first four months of this year amounted to $7,591,440, as against $3,702,215 for the corresponding period of 1890. Our own exports of similar products to the same country for eleven months ending with May 31, 1891, were of a value of $505,610, as compared with $726,574 for the same part of the preceding fiscal year. Now, as the treaty of reciprocity secured us special advantages in the matter of cotton goods, this result is considerably discouraging, and goes to prove that the *Rio News* was correct in assuring English cotton-manufacturers that they need not fear their American rivals even under the treaty. It may be said that the reciprocity arrangement has not yet had time to work; that may be so, but, in so far as it has worked, it would seem to be no great help to our exporters of cotton goods, as their shipments for May of this year, the second month of the treaty's operation, were $15,000 less than for May, 1890. We cannot extend the comparison to exports of woollen and linen goods, for the very good reason that we have none. In the matter of manufactures of iron and steel, horse-cars, engines, etc., the Treasury returns show a marked gain in our Brazilian trade, fully as great as that reported for England. So, too, in exports of wood and lumber, and manufactures thereof, considerable advance is shown. No figures are given for the exports of agricultural implements to Brazil, but for South America as a whole, a great falling off appears—upwards of $870,000. This is principally due to the Argentine collapse, it should be said. The whole matter comes down to this: Brazil is having a great business and speculative "boom," and we are getting a share of her expanding foreign commerce in those products in which we were able to compete before the treaty. That measure does not seem to have had any marked effect one way or the other. Certainly it has not shut out England, and, just as certainly, the only increased demand that we have been able to supply is a mushroom growth which may die away as suddenly as did the Argentine.

A sort of modified Farmers' Alliance is gaining considerable headway in Switzerland. It calls itself an Agrarian League, and appears to have been evoked by the writings and public appeals of one Gottfried Keller. He is a farmer in the Canton of Zurich, and makes his war-cry, "The Land and the Government for the Farmer!" In the course of a summary of his views and demands he says: "The State should be, above all things, for the service of agriculture; the universities should be lessened or suppressed and primary education simplified; the public service should be conducted with the strictest economy; borrowing on mortgage should be on easier terms, and the land should be taxed not on the basis of its assessed value, but on that of the income derived from it; and the exaggerated claims of workingmen in the cities should be combated, particularly in the matter of shorter hours of labor." The last specification marks a peculiar phase of the movement, in its avowed setting the laborer of the field against the laborer of the shop. The League is reported to be spreading rapidly through the rural regions, and has at least this testimony to its growing strength, that the labor journals are outspoken in hostility to it. But the organ of the farmers—they have one already—accepts this as inevitable, and as a part of the conflict that is to come, saying: "We are positive that a deep chasm separates the industrial workingman from the farmer. . . . The latter knows that he gets nothing without hard work, and it is a mystery to him how the workingman cuts down his hours of work from 12 to 11, to 10, and finally to 8, all the while increasing his wages by means of strikes, and still asking for more." Whatever may be the fate of the Swiss organization, it will serve to call attention to the lengths to which State Socialism has gone in Switzerland, in the interest of the workingmen of the cities and to the oversight of the laboring men in the country districts. It may also have the effect of giving the Catholic authorities pause, and making them less ready to go the whole Socialist figure than they appeared to be at the time of their Congress at Olten, last year.

THE DEMONETIZATION OF SILVER.

SENATOR STEWART of Nevada takes exception to our statement that he voted for the act demonetizing silver in 1873. On the 10th of January, 1871, there was a bill under consideration in the Senate of the United States (S. 859) in relation to coinage. It named as silver coins of the United States the half-dollar, the quarter-dollar, and the dime, and no other, and it contained also a section in these words:

"Sec. 18. And be it further enacted, That no coins, either of gold, silver, or minor coinage, shall hereafter be issued from the mint other than those of the denominations, standards, and weights herein set forth."

The legal-tender faculty of silver coins was by this bill limited to one dollar. Mr. Stewart was then a member of the Senate, and participated in the debate on this bill. The vote on the passage containing the fore going sections, provisions, and prohibitions was yeas 36, nays 14. Mr. Stewart is recorded among the yeas and Mr. Sherman among the nays. The bill, after passing the Senate, was sent to the House, where it failed for want of time. All this took place in the Forty-first Congress, third session.

The same bill substantially was considered and passed by the House in the next Congress and came before the Senate on the 26th of December, 1872. The clause relating to silver coins was in these words:

"That the silver coins of the United States shall be a dollar, a half-dollar, or fifty-cent piece, a quarter-dollar, or twenty-five-cent piece, a dime, or ten-cent piece; and the weight of the dollar shall be 384 grains; the half-dollar, quarter-dollar, and dime shall be respectively one-half, one quarter, and one-tenth of the weight of said dollar, *which coins shall be a legal tender at their nominal value for any amount not exceeding five dollars in any one payment.*"

Section 18, prohibiting the issue of any other coins than those named, was in this bill in the words already quoted.

The standard silver dollar was and is 412½ grains, not 384 grains, as provided in this bill, but that fact is not material, since the dollar here spoken of was not to be full legal tender. It was to have the same legal-tender faculty as two half-dollars. The history of this particular provision is that the House Committee on Coinage thought it would be a good idea to have a coin approximately equal to the French five-franc piece. So they put into the bill a dollar of 384 grains, exactly equal to two half-dollars. The French five-franc piece weighs 385.8 grains, nine-tenths fine.

The Senate Committee on Finance amended this section of the bill by substituting a trade dollar of 420 grains for the would-be five-franc dollar. The clause limiting the legal-tender faculty of all silver coins to $5 in any one payment was retained. The bill as amended was passed by the Senate on the 17th of January, 1873, without a dissenting vote. That Mr. Stewart was present, and was giving his attention to the bill, is shown by the record of the debate, his name appearing on the same page which records the passage of the bill. There were some minor matters of disagreement between the House and the Senate which went to a Conference Committee, but the demonetization of silver was not one of the points of disagreement, as we have seen. Both houses had agreed that silver in any form should not be legal tender for more than five dollars. The report of the Conference Committee was agreed to by both houses without a dissenting vote.

The Coinage Act was printed thirteen times in the course of its passage through Congress, for the use of members, and documents were repeatedly and officially sent to members of the Senate and House calling their attention in capital letters to the fact that the silver dollar was discontinued by the bill. Perhaps Senator Stewart did not know what was meant by discontinuance of the silver dollar. That would not be at all wonderful, seeing how heedless he is, and seeing, also, that the silver dollar had been for a long time a disused coin, and was almost as rare a curiosity as the *stater* of ancient Greece.

Mr. Stewart raises considerable dust (it is nothing but dust) about the omission from the *Congressional Globe* of the usual statement that section 15 of the bill had passed. There is a hiatus here which can only be accounted for by an oversight on the part of the *Globe* reporter or of the foreman of the printing-office. The bill itself was in the hands of every Senator as well as in the hands of the Reading Clerk of the Senate. The record of the latter, which is the only legal evidence, says that this section was agreed to. What was Mr. Stewart doing at this time? Was he waiting, with a copy of the bill in his hand, and with section 15 before his eyes, to see what the *Globe* would say about it at some future time? Why did he not call attention to the fact that here was a clause demonetizing silver? Why did he not, within a day or two, call attention to the fact, if it were a fact, that section 15 had not been actually passed? Evidently because he and everybody else at that time were in favor of section 15. Mr. Stewart had voted for a similar section in the bill of 1871.

Mr. Stewart says:

"Let it be borne in mind that President Grant signed the bill demonetizing silver on the 12th of February, 1873, and that in January, 1875, he signed the specie-resumption act and returned it to the Senate with a recommendation that two or more mints be constructed to *coin silver dollars* to provide for the resumption of specie payments in 1879, the date fixed for such resumption."

This is not very important except as illustrating Mr. Stewart's recklessness. There is not a word about "silver dollars" in President Grant's special message accompanying his signature of the Specie-Resumption Act, nor a word to show that he meant silver dollars. He speaks about "fractional currency," and about "change," and about "silver," meaning, of course, the only silver that the generation to which he belonged had been accustomed to, namely, silver half-dollars, quarters, and dimes. If he had reference to legal-tender silver dollars, he would undoubtedly have said so.

Mr. Stewart says further:

"I defy any one to point out a sentence or a suggestion in the *Congressional Globe* during all the time the Coinage or Mint Act of 1873, or any other Coinage or Mint Bill, was under consideration, intimating any purpose or intention to omit the silver dollar from the list of coins, or in any way to limit or restrict the coinage of silver."

This is another sample of Mr. Stewart's recklessness. He can hardly be ignorant of the fact that Clarkson Potter, W. L. Stoughton, Samuel Hooper, and William D. Kelley (although Mr. Kelley afterwards denied it) all discussed the demonetization of silver as a feature of this bill, and that their remarks are in the *Congressional Globe*—for example, in the debate in the House on the 9th of April, 1872. We might make other references from the same volume, but this one is sufficient to brand Mr. Stewart's assertion as being of no higher value than his assertion that he did not vote for the demonetization of silver. He voted for it twice, to wit, on the 10th of January, 1871, and again on the 17th of January, 1873.

THE DEPRESSION IN RAILWAY STOCKS.

A SURVEY of the railway field does not disclose any sufficient reason for the extremely low prices at which most railway stocks are now selling. The earnings of the roads have been, with few exceptions, good, and they have been increasing. Several roads have advanced their rate of dividend. There has been a cessation of the mad competition for new territory, and the competition for existing business has been probably less furious than in some former years, even if it has not yet been brought within the bounds of moderation. There have been no expensive strikes, and no more destruction through the action of the elements or from accident than is incident to the business. Moreover, harvests of an unusually bounteous character are either already secured and beginning to move, or are in such promising condition that it would be an excess of caution to disregard the practical certainty of profitable business; and probabilities of this kind are almost always indicated by advancing prices for stocks. People who have not got them think they would like to get them, and people who have them think they would rather keep them unless they could sell them at an advance.

The fact that people would like to buy stocks, however, has no tendency to raise their prices unless they have the money to pay for them. It does not constitute an "effectual demand." This money may either be their own or it may be borrowed, and the first question that we would ask is, Have people at present any large amount of money to invest? If we look back three or four years, we see that a great deal of money has been wasted in unproductive enterprises. We do not refer to speculative schemes like those of M. Secrétan and his copper syndicate, because such schemes did not necessarily involve the loss of any money at all. What some lose others gain, as in any gambling venture, and although there may be some incidental waste of money through the disturbance of trade, the loss is not very considerable. But in the enterprises to which

we refer, money is actually sunk without any return, or at least without any adequate or immediate return.

The greatest single instance of this kind is, of course, the Panama Canal. This frightful blunder cost the French people enormous sums, and the loss is probably a total one. But although the loss had to be borne by the French people, it was none the less a diminution of the world's stock of capital. The individual sufferers were the French people, whose savings were swept away, but so close are the business relations of all countries now that the loss of these savings must have affected the rate of interest throughout the world, either causing it to rise or preventing it from falling, or rendering it impossible to borrow money for undertakings that could otherwise have procured it.

In this country very heavy losses were met with, owing to the construction of numerous lines of railway, principally in the Southwest, that have produced no return upon the investment, and owing to some minor causes that tended to the same result. These losses may be only temporary, but they are evidenced by the reduction or cessation of dividends, and the owners of these stocks are a good deal poorer than they were four years ago. It might be said that hardly a family in New England, the great investing region, has not been more or less inconvenienced by these losses, and it is a necessary consequence that they have less money to invest than they did have.

A more recent loss has taken place in the Argentine Republic. Here, again, the losers were not American citizens, but the loss, whatever it may be in amount and by whomsoever suffered, must necessarily have had its effect upon the money markets of the world. It seems to have had, indeed, a very marked effect, and it can only be explained upon the supposition that the market had not recovered from the previous losses; that is, that the savings of the people had not yet filled up the deficit. At all events, there is every indication that there is a scant supply of money in London for investment in new enterprises, and this scarcity must have its effect upon the markets of the world.

While these causes have undoubtedly operated to diminish the supply of money available for new enterprises, it might seem that they would not account for the indisposition to lend money to those who desired to take advantage of the prospective increase in the earnings of railroad properties. It has seldom been the case in this country that any one who desired to speculate at a time when greater activity in business was looked for, has not been able to borrow money upon the collateral security of his investments. We think that the uncertainty as to the future standard of value in this country is the true cause of this unwillingness to loan. It is common to argue that it will make no difference in the value of railroad stocks if we do come down to a silver basis. The reasoning is, that although prices will be higher, the charges that railroads will make for their services will be correspondingly increased. Their expenses will be nominally increased, but so will their receipts, and the standard that is used to measure them is immaterial. It follows, therefore, that the railways will be just as well able to pay the interest on their gold bonds as they are now, and that they will be able to pay increased dividends in silver. We fear this reasoning is fallacious. If we adopt the silver standard, it admits of no question that the prices of every article bought by railroads will rise, and that they will be obliged to raise the wages of their employees correspondingly. In so far as their obligations are for the payment of gold, they will have to buy gold at a premium. On the other hand, they are not in the situation of individuals with regard to raising their rates. To a considerable extent these rates are fixed by legislation that does not discriminate between gold and silver money. To an even greater extent they are fixed by custom, or, rather, the people have become so habituated to a progressive lowering of rates that they would be extremely impatient of an apparent reversal of this tendency.

If the railroads were thus compelled to make the same disbursements, measured by the gold standard, as at present, while they were able to secure only their present revenue, measured by the silver standard, it is obvious that their solvency might be seriously impaired. In many cases they would not be able to pay the premium upon the gold required to meet their coupons, and in all cases their rate of dividends would have to be reduced. In view of this possibility it is not to be expected that conservative bankers should lend gold, or its equivalent, upon collateral that is threatened with serious depreciation. The disasters that may follow a descent to the silver standard will be manifold, but the railroads are likely to suffer worst of all.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SUNDAY STATUTES.

THE city of Hartford, Conn., which recently gave us some striking results of an investigation of her system of out-door relief, is now supplying an object-lesson in the enforcement of the Connecticut Sunday laws. Until recently the fruit-dealers of the city, most of them Italians, were allowed to make sales and keep "open shop" on Sunday. This scandalized certain people, and on Sunday, July 19, on petition of fifty-eight merchants, the fruit-shops were closed by order of the city Chief of Police. The fruit-dealers then "combined," looked up the old State laws, and got out a petition of their own, in consequence of which on the following Sunday the cigar-shops were all closed and the druggists were also inhibited from selling cigars, soda-water, and candy. Sunday newspapers were not outlawed, the Chief of Police taking the curious view that they came under the "necessity and mercy" exception of the statutes, as they could not be bought on Saturday, while cigars and candy and even soda-water (bottled) could be bought.

Except, perhaps, Massachusetts, no State has so long and persistently as Connecticut held to Sunday laws, and rather severe ones, too. Her old "blue laws," though a satire and a fiction, had a certain meaning as such in their relation to the colony satirized, and suggested a popular tendency and feeling which to some extent prevail at this day. Every few years, by direction of her Legislature, a commission of skilled Connecticut lawyers makes a revision of her general statutes. The next Legislature sends the bulky revised volume to a committee, and, after examination, it is reported back and passed without much change. Neither the commission nor the committee ever dares to expunge or prune much the Sunday laws, though they admit them to be largely obsolete—this for fear that some strong rural Sabbatarians in the Legislature will discover the change, make a protest, precipitate a discussion, and possibly imperil the commission's whole work. It is instructive to see what are now these Connecticut Sunday laws which have come down from the spirit if not the letter of the far past, and have run the gauntlet of so many revisions.

They are not many in number, but in form are drastic and severe. Service of civil process is void between sunrise and sunset on Sunday. Persons present on Sunday, day or evening, at any concert of music or dancing "or any other public diversion" must be fined four dollars for each person and each offence. Net fishing on Sunday is prohibited under heavy penalty, but, strangely, there is no specific reference to Sunday fishing with a rod or hand-line. Sunday shooters, however, are directly reached by a section imposing a fine of from seven to twenty-five dollars, one-half the fine going to the informer; and the same penalty is imposed for having, "in the open air," implements for shooting on Sunday. The section relating generally to secular business or recreation is so sweeping that it deserves reprint *verbatim:*

> "Sec. 1569. Every person who shall do any secular business or labor, except works of necessity or mercy, or keep open any shop, warehouse, or manufacturing or mechanical establishment, or expose any property for sale, or engage in any sport or recreation on Sunday between sunrise and sunset, shall be fined not more than $4 nor less than $1."

The foregoing, with the Sunday liquor laws, are the important Sabbatarian statutes of Connecticut with two exceptions, one of which allows Hebrews who actually observe Saturday, and refrain from secular occupations on that day, to work on Sundays, provided they do not disturb the Christian habit of attending public worship. The result of this exception is, that many of the Connecticut Hebrews "keep" Sunday instead of Saturday, and a few months ago the Hebrew Rabbi at New Haven aroused considerable criticism in the Jewish Church by actually transferring to Sunday a part of his services. The other case relates to Sunday railroad trains, which, except "for necessity and mercy," cannot be run in Connecticut on Sunday, between sunrise and sunset, save by permission of the Railroad Commissioners, and are especially prohibited between the hours of 10:30 A. M. and 3 P. M. When,

about a year ago, the Commissioners allowed a Sunday passenger train between those hours to be put on for a few miles, between Hartford and New Britain—the train bearing many church-goers—they were attacked fiercely, and quickly withdrew their assent.

What is the practical effectiveness of these ancient statutes in the old Puritan State is of course the vital point. As a fact, while the Sunday liquor laws and some others are enforced, most of them are essentially obsolete. Connecticut sportsmen do not shoot much on Sunday, partly because it is "noisy"; but many of the working classes go fishing, and many of both the upper and lower classes go sailing—the City Attorney of New Haven himself, it will be recalled, barely escaping with his life from a sailing accident two Sundays ago. Driving for pleasure is nearly universal on the Connecticut Sunday, many church members enjoying it without criticism, though it is clearly against the law. As for the Sunday "occupation" law, as related to the sale of certain small commodities, its exceptional enforcement now in Hartford shows how commonly it is slighted. The general rule in Connecticut, notwithstanding her rigid statutes, is that so long as anybody does not violate public decency or public peace, he may disregard the letter of the Sunday laws. Hence we find them enforced only locally, spasmodically, or as a form of temporary retaliation, the latter being pretty common. They are a "theory" rather than a "condition," yet, queerly enough, are rather approved by the State judges on the ground that they have utility for occasional and extreme cases.

While this failure of Sunday statutes is conspicuous in Connecticut, there is no doubt that the situation is nearly the same in many States of the Union whose statute-books are lumbered up with a great mass of laws by no means confined to Sunday. Whether in the long run it pays to retain these old statutes for the sake of a very few extreme offences under them, and keep the people as a whole in constant contact with violated laws which therefore shadow better ones and, in a sense, tend to familiarize lawlessness, is a question as old as debating clubs, jurisprudence, and civilization. Every State and community makes its contribution to the problem, but Connecticut's experience is specially valuable because of her historical place as a Sabbatarian stronghold.

THE ATTITUDE OF THE SOCIALIST PARTY IN GERMANY.

Ever since the 1st of October, 1890, when, through the expiration of the famous Anti-Socialist Law, the Socialistic party of Germany was readmitted to an equal footing with the other political parties, its leaders have shown a remarkable circumspection and a truly statesmanlike reserve of action. None of the fears which their enemies a year ago brought forward as arguments for continuing the Bismarckian policy of repression have come true. The Socialistic party has not become revolutionary—it is becoming parliamentary.

The first occasion which very clearly brought out this fact was the so-called May demonstration. While the labor parties of all other European countries, regardless of the warnings of employers and governments, selected the first day of the month for this purpose, the German Socialists, in order to avoid conflicts, postponed the celebration to the following Sunday. And although this celebration was held on a very grand scale in all the principal cities of the Empire, accompanied, in true Teutonic fashion, by a great deal of singing, drinking, and speechifying, not a single offence against the public order seems to have occurred. Even in Munich, where the police had laid hands on a "Goddess of Liberty" which was to have formed the centre of the Socialist jollification, the holiday humor of the occasion was heightened rather than dampened through the replacing of this work of art by a huge pedestal bearing the inscription, "Goddess of Liberty confiscated by authority of the police."

More recently some attempts have been made by the more radical wing of the party to force the leaders into rash measures, but these attempts have been repelled with singular promptness and dexterity. Herr von Vollmar, the most prominent of the south-German Socialists, in a speech at Munich some weeks ago, boldly came out as a firm believer in patriotic principles in general and as a supporter of the foreign policy of the present Government in particular. Thereupon there was an outburst of indignation on the part of the Radicals, and a summary demand addressed to the official party leaders, Bebel, Singer, and Liebknecht, to expel Von Vollmar from the ranks, as an "opportunist and parliamentary coward." Bebel, although himself by no means agreeing with Vollmar, flatly refused to do any such thing, upholding, in a most powerful speech before an enormous Berlin audience, the right of individual and private opinion, and vindicating Von Vollmar's claim to be allowed to plead his cause before the next party convention, which takes place in October. But Herr Bebel went further than this: he seized the opportunity to define his attitude towards parliamentary life clearly and unmistakably.

"It goes without saying," he told his hearers, "that to-day our tactics must be very different from the time when our party consisted of only two or three persons. Now that we have come to be a large party, now that millions of laborers stand at our back, our responsibility, also, has grown immensely. The Radicals say we have nothing to expect from the present capitalistic society. I think those who hold this belief had better leave all parliamentary work alone, and stand up in the market-place and preach revolution. But I shall see to it that these gentlemen be induced to leave our ranks and to form a party of their own."

The latest proof of this growing tendency of the Socialist leaders to take a practical part in national legislation is the draft of a new party programme, drawn up by Herren Bebel, Liebknecht, and Engels, which, too, will be submitted to the October convention. This remarkable document, although maintaining the fundamental incompatibility between a "capitalistic" and a "socialistic" order of society, at the same time, by the precision of its language and the directness of its actual propositions, marks a most decided advance beyond the vague generalities of the old Gotha platform. Among its demands may be noted woman suffrage, transference of the prerogative of declaring war from the Crown to Parliament, international arbitration, secularization of the schools, replacing of standing armies by a militia system, substitution of public medical attendance for private practice, abolition of all indirect taxes, gradual introduction of the eight-hour day.

It remains, of course, to be seen whether the wholesome constructive policy of the present party leaders will prevail, or whether in the long run the more radical elements will get the upper hand. For the moment it seems as though the Socialist party were destined to take a most decisive part, not only in the emancipation of the working classes of Germany, but in the struggle for freedom in general.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION AT BERLIN.

Berlin, July 17, 1891.

The fact that this summer's Internationale Kunst-Ausstellung in Berlin is of far less artistic importance than the exhibition in Paris two years ago really gives it its chief value, paradoxical as it may sound. The refusal of the Frenchmen of note to allow themselves to be represented is now an old story. A few have recognized that art is not bounded by the Franco-German frontier. There are one or two Bouguereaus, several Madeleine Lemaires, a Gaston La Fouche, and about half-a-dozen more. But these are all, and without the modern French artist the show unquestionably proves that the very backbone of modern art is left out. I doubt if the presence of his work could have so triumphantly established the leading rank he now holds in the art world as its absence. He has kept away only to make his supremacy more wholly realized. Not even in the Champ de Mars Salon has it been so evident to me that it is to France one must turn to-day for almost all that is vigorous, alive, and progressive in art.

As a whole, the exhibition is dull and lifeless. Most of the exhibiting nations can boast of a fair technical average, and even of one or two artists of individuality and power; the average, however, is that of men who have learned their trade very thoroughly, but who have no special use for their knowledge, and can only do what has already been done again and again. The exceptions to this rule stand quite alone, and have gained no following and formed no school; in their work French influence is often manifest. In the case of several countries, particularly of America, as I shall point out later, the exhibition is scarcely representative. But still there is not even a suggestion that in any one case a collection could be got together which would rival that supposed to be merely a national show seen this spring in the Palais des Beaux-Arts in Paris.

Naturally, as far as space goes, the Germans make the most important and imposing display. Each of the large towns, Munich, Berlin, Düsseldorf, Weimar, has one or more rooms to itself, but of these it is not easy to say which is dreariest, though perhaps the palm for commonplace may be awarded to Berlin. It is significant but melancholy to

find how completely the school of Munich, once so strong, has become a thing of the past. Though the Germans of note scattered through the different rooms are not in sufficient force to relieve the general dulness, one is very glad of the chance to see their work. The veteran Adolf Menzel is always interesting, especially in his marvellous drawings, sketches in pencil and water-color on red paper, several of which have been lent by the National Gallery. There are also three of his curious pictures, so carefully studied, so badly painted: one, of some state function, with the guests eating like so many pigs off gold and silver plate, is as chock full of observation and as keen in its rendering of character as it is funny in technique; and this is quite as true of the other two. Uhde, unfortunately, sends but one portrait, which is strong enough, and stands out very prominently in the Munich rooms, but is not very good for him, and cannot be compared to his wonderful scenes from Christ's life, one of which is in the Berlin Luxembourg; in many a small London gallery he has shown to far greater advantage. Liebermann does better, and among his four examples is the well-known "Flachsscheuer in Holland," which, probably because he is a Berlin man, the authorities of the National Gallery have seen fit to lend for the occasion, though the same consideration has not been extended to Uhde, who belongs to the Munich, or South German, group of artists, little loved in Berlin. Arnold Böcklin may practically be classed with the Munich men, though one is hardly sure whether he is really German, Swiss, or Florentine. Still unknown in England, he is as fantastic and allegorical in his subjects as any English Watts, or Richmond, or Holman Hunt. But he does not believe imagination can ever be an equivalent for bad technique, and he paints with a knowledge and a fine feeling for color and decorative effect of which the Englishmen cannot boast. There is a mermaid by him here, which is delightful in the original and effective treatment of the long-scaled tail upon which gulls are resting, and yet the flesh-painting in the upper part of the body is sound and naturalistic enough to satisfy a Manet or a Roll. His power in rendering character, too, is seen in a Susanna, simply inimitable in the lecherous leers of the old elders who have discovered her at her bath. Work of this kind helps to explain that when one objects to the would-be idealists in England—the men who despise the life about them—it is not because of their choice of subject, but because of their technical shortcomings.

There are several other Germans—Piglhein, Franz Stuck, Gebhardt, for example—who show the same tendency in their selection of subject, and, almost invariably, much excellence in their treatment of it. Indeed, some of the best work in the German division is found among them. I do not include in their number the celebrated Ferdinand Keller, whose huge apotheosis of the Emperor William hangs conspicuously in a gorgeous circular gallery set aside for portraits of royalty. In his picture, the mixture of realism and would-be poetry degenerates into the ridiculous. The Kaiser, in royal robes, is surrounded by allegorical creatures in no clothes at all, and the whole conception, whatever it may mean, panders to the vulgar taste of a people who can pride themselves on the showy pretentiousness and inartistic splendor of their capital. The court portraits, too many painted by the photographic Werner, are as depressing, with the exception of a good strong pastel of the young William by Lenbach, yet they have evidently given the German portrait-painter his standard. The German landscape-painters, except Paul Vorgang, Max Ulb, and one or two more, are feeble and insignificant to a degree incredible in these days of brilliant *plein-airistes* and impressionists. Apparently Germany has not yet awakened to a knowledge of the revolution the last few generations have worked in the art of landscape-painting. Of course there is good work by Lenbach, Meyerheim, Achenbach, and the other German painters of reputation, but it shows only the old traditional motives and methods; and the same official conventionality and formal correctness which prevail in the Champs-Élysées Salon are the characteristics of the galleries devoted to Germany.

American exhibitors have been received with every distinction. America is given the second place—immediately after Germany—in the catalogue; American pictures have been hung to advantage. But German civility cannot succeed in making the American department representative as one would like to see it. The painters who contribute are principally those of a certain little clique who happen to be just now in Paris. A clique that is led by Melchers and MacEwen and Walter Gay is clever enough as far as it goes, but it does not go very far. In it one need not look for those artists who won for American art its present position in Paris. There is nothing from Whistler, Alexander Harrison, Sargent, or Dannat, nothing from such men as Chase and Duveneck. Painters who studied in the Paris of an older generation are here, but the presence of Bridgman and Stewart makes one the more conscious of the absence of Ridgway Knight. Decidedly the most important contribution is Melchers's large church interior, of which I had so often heard but which I had never seen before. It is worthy of the fame it has brought its painter; it is full of truth and character in the study of the men and women, of sound painting in the working out of the details—the chairs and tables, and, above all, the communion cloth, which is a marvel of technique. But even in this his masterpiece I am conscious of the tendency, shared by Melchers with the men of his school, to see everything in the same way, and to let certain little tricks, which too speedily can become so many conventions, take the place of original observation of nature. All the faces are painted with exactly the same colors: the flesh of old and young alike is produced with an unchanged palette, the light is that which fills all his pictures. Moreover, there is a suggestion of the painted photograph, which has been the undoing of the Newlynites in England. Melchers is a far greater man than Stanhope Forbes, but, if he is not careful, his work eventually may be marred by the blemishes which of late are so prominent in that of the English painter. Mr. MacEwen has his clever "Ghost" of the Salon of two years ago, his "Sisters," strangely without the light or atmosphere or qualities which usually distinguish his pictures, and two little canvases which are proofs of his technical skill, but which the unkind critic might suggest savored of the pot-boiler species. Of Mr. Humphrey Moore's three large works and twenty-one small sketches, a few would have been cheerfully spared for the same number of examples from those artists who are so sadly missed. The other most notable American contributions are Bisbing's small study of Dutch cattle; Walter Gay's two pictures, dated respectively 1886 and 1889, showing the marked progress he made in the three years; Charles Sprague Pearce's three canvases, one a weak imitation of Carrière; and Julian Story's good strong portrait of his father.

But it is in the exhibit of the Society of American Wood-Engravers that American art is seen at its best: wood-engraving, at least, is adequately represented. There are several cases of the engravings of Cole, Kruell, Closson, Whitney, Kingsley, Davidson, and all the other well-known men whose work appears monthly in our magazines. Here are the principal illustrations which have been published during the last few years in the *Century*, *Harper's*, and *Scribner's*. Almost all are carefully printed on India paper, and they form one of the most interesting compartments in the exhibition. For delicacy and refinement American wood-engravers easily hold their own. But for big, bold, direct work, probably because they have never had the same opportunity, they show nothing which begins to equal the large blocks of such men as Closs of Stuttgart or Hönemann and Ettel of Berlin, Klinkicht of Freiburg. A little group of Warsaw engravers are also rapidly coming to the fore, and there are few things better than the large engravings of Nicz and Klein. Baude and the other Frenchmen, of course, are not to be seen.

The English department is a disgrace to England. With the exception of a portrait by Frank Holl, an Alma-Tadema, and some drawings by Alfred Parsons, the only work which redeems it from hopeless commonplace is really by Americans, Shannon and Abbey, who, for some reason or another, choose to class themselves with Englishmen, as Carl Marr does with Germans. This is not so surprising in the case of Shannon, whose two portraits stand out here with unusual strength; throughout his entire art career he has identified himself with England rather than with America. But it is another matter with Abbey, and I can find really no excuse, unless it be sheer benevolence to England on his part, for this public denial of his own nationality. Alongside his countrymen, his drawings, which are almost all marked *Sold*, would no doubt have been disposed of as readily. To those who answer every objection to the Royal Academy by saying that, after all, the greatest British painters are Academicians and Associates, this exhibition would be a convincing proof of the fallacy of their argument. A few of the younger men, whether of Glasgow or London, could have given the British collection the artistic stamp with which Sir Frederick Leighton and Millais and Richmond and Watts and the other leaders of Burlington House have not succeeded in marking it. It is amusing to find how completely the Germans have failed to appreciate the holiness of the English Neo-Gothic school. Walter Crane is badly skied, while Holman Hunt's "Triumph of the Innocents," instead of the drapery and artificial lighting with which it was honored in Bond Street and Whitechapel, is hidden away in a remote corner behind the American wood-engravers, whose work, in the eyes of Mr. Hunt, is one of the unspeakable blasphemies of modern art!

Of the other countries, Italy and Denmark and Poland are by far the most interesting; Italy chiefly so because of the work of Segantini. This painter, who was seen for the first time in London at the Italian exhibition of two summers ago, is without doubt the most distinguished of all the contributors. There is not one other of such vigorous individuality, of such daring originality. He is the first man who has ever ventured to paint Alpine colors and light and effects as they really are—to give the strong black blue of the Alpine sky, the blinding white of the peaks that rise against it, the hard clearness of Alpine at-

mospheres. His technique is as strikingly original. When looked at closely, the paint seems to be laid on the canvas almost like mosaic work or an arrangement of fine colored glass threads, and yet, seen at the proper distance, nothing could be broader than the result he obtains. Whether his technical methods require infinite time and patience, or have the breadth and freedom of the effect they give, it would be impossible for any one who has not seen him at work to say. He fairly towers above the other Italians, though there are three very good and decorative Michettis and two fine Favrettos. One of these, belonging to the King of Italy, is the last work of the painter, and is not quite finished, but, for that very reason, perhaps, it has more action and "go" than almost any Favretto I have ever seen.

The interest in the Danish and Polish departments comes less from individual contributions than from all the work taken collectively. In both countries, painters, even when they do not achieve any very great distinction, evince a desire to see things for themselves, and to express them in their own way, which is delightfully refreshing, and which promises that when the man of genius really comes, he will take the art world by storm. This is in strong contrast to the prevailing tendency among Austrians to turn out the traditional "machine," which has already travelled to all the big exhibitions, and which, while it is a marvel to the multitude, is but weariness to the artist; or among Spaniards to imitate to satiety their own masters. One wonders if, in a few years' time, these second-hand Monets and Manets will seem as utterly old-fashioned and lifeless as the second-hand Fortunys do now. In the Russian division, the work which attracts most attention does so chiefly because of sentimental or literary reasons. The name of Marie Bashkirtseff has not yet lost its interest for the present generation, and indeed one of her two pictures, the portrait of a lady smiling, has more than the artist's personality to recommend it to notice; the other is as bad as the portrait is good.

The Maris family, not seen at their best, however, Mesdag, Israels, Blommers, alone would insure the artistic excellence of the Dutch galleries, where, moreover, the general level attained is very high. And much the same is true of Belgium. The average Belgian artist shows great technical proficiency, while there are several prominent painters who rise even above this high average. Fernand Khnopff of Brussels, for example, whose cleverness cannot be denied, though, with some other of his countrymen, he too often condescends to mere tricks and devices to advertise this cleverness; Albrecht de Vriendt of Antwerp, whose careful and well-studied pre-Raphaelite designs might give a few useful hints to Burne Jones, Walter Crane, and the other lights of the New Gallery; and Émile Claus, who has the best landscape in the entire exhibition. But the Belgians excel above all in sculpture, as, indeed, do the Germans, and it is curious to see how much more life and vitality there is among the mere handful of sculptors exhibiting than among the great multitude of painters; the former seem to have emancipated themselves from the conventions and traditions of the schools, and to be seeking to become something more than mere weak reflections of their masters. The only statue of note by an American sculptor, however, is Mr. Paul Bartlett's "Indian Dance."

I wish I had space left to speak in detail of the remarkably good work which Germans are doing in the revived art of illumination. There are illuminated diplomas and addresses quite equal to the old manuscripts in their beautiful lettering and their page decoration, in which is found the same combination of conventional design and realistic illustration used by the old illuminators. It is to be regretted that the *Münchener Kalender*, the finest popular work of this kind now being done, is not represented. I must also add just a word of praise for the massive and effective cartoons in charcoal and pen produced by a German architectural draughtsman, Bruno Schmilz by name, who has had the good sense to realize that the drawing of architecture for an architect need not necessarily be absolutely devoid of interest to the outside public.

N. N.

LAND TAXATION IN JAPAN.

Tokio, July 8, 1891.

One of the most interesting phases of Japan is her system of land taxation. Like so many other institutions to-day existing in this country, her method of taxation is a curious mixture of past and present—to a great degree the product of the old Tokugawa régime, but profoundly modified to suit modern conditions. During the feudal period, taxes were for the most part paid in kind by the cultivators of the soil, and were in fact a form of rent due to the Daimio, or lord of the province. The staple food of the country being rice, the taxes were almost invariably collected in that commodity. The amount paid, however, was not fixed by any national measure, but varied from province to province, depending on local customs, the humor of the Daimio, or other circumstances. Still, as a rule, the share required was seldom less than one-half the total crop, and it sometimes was as much as two-thirds. Moreover, as the established policy of the Tokugawa Government was to preserve and fix the status of all classes and conditions of men, it laid down a multitude of vexatious and arbitrary rules for the farmer, all tending to rob him of every spark of enterprise and progress. Without Government permission he could neither increase nor decrease the amount of his cultivated land; nor could he change from the cultivation of rice or paddy field (*ta*) to that of dry field (*hata*). All the conditions of land cultivation were so carefully prescribed that the farmer had nothing to do but follow a routine that deviated little from generation to generation. It was not likely that, under such a Procrustean system of land tenure, population could advance either in wealth or in numbers; and right here is probably the explanation of the fact that the population of Japan increased so slowly during 250 years of undisturbed peace.

With the Restoration there came a great change, not only in the general status of the farmer, but in the conditions under which he cultivated the soil and paid his taxes. All the previous iron rules imposed upon him were abolished; he was given perfect liberty to buy and sell land or adopt new modes of cultivation. The system of payment in kind to each provincial lord was replaced by a national land-tax paid in money. About 1876, the value of every piece of cultivated land was appraised according to a complex and somewhat arbitrary method of valuation, and on this capitalized value a land-tax of 3 per cent. was imposed, two years later reduced to 2½ per cent. This tax, though perhaps not so heavy as in the feudal period, is still a tremendous burden on the farmer, especially when we take into consideration the various local taxes he has to bear, as well as his general economic position.

Besides the high rate of the impost, one of the principal objections to the tax is that it falls so unequally on the different districts of Japan. Since the year 1876, when the terrier was drawn up, land values, owing to the extension of railways and other improvements, have undergone great changes. The result is that the cadastre has become antiquated, and stands in great need of revision. Last winter a reform of the whole system was demanded in the lower house of Parliament, and it will probably be carried in the next session.

Barring the discrepancies in the tax that have sprung up during the last fifteen years, the rate of 2½ per cent. on the value of the land takes, on an average, more than 30 per cent. of the annual crop of the farmer. And when we add to the demands of the national land-tax the burden of the various local taxes and charges, the farmer as a rule has but little more than one-half his crop left, especially if it be rice. Indeed, in many districts of Japan the total amount yielded by the farmer to the Government, national and local, is estimated at even more than 50 per cent. of his crop. Naturally the land-taxes contribute the largest amount of revenue to the treasury, furnishing more than 40,000,000 yen out of a total national receipt of about 75,000,000 yen, and nearly 20,000,000 yen more in the shape of local taxes.

This statement, however, gives no indication of the true condition of the Japanese farmer. In this country, where the Government performs so many functions which in America are left to the individual, a high rate of taxation is not necessarily an indication of poverty or of a low standard of living. With a sufficiency of land and a variety of crops, even the Japanese farmer can live comfortably, especially if a good fraction of his land is dry field (*hata*), on which he generally raises two crops a year. Very few of the farmers of Japan, however, are in this condition of tolerable comfort. The amount of the cultivated land of the Empire is so small (less than 12 per cent. of the whole area) and the population so large (over 40,000,000) that the land belonging to each family is absurdly insufficient. The average holding is less than two acres, subdivided into smaller parcels, which vary in size in different provinces, but average nearly one-eighth of an acre each. Thus, to picture a typical Japanese farm, one must imagine a piece of land less than two acres, cut up into about fourteen pieces, or bits, each separated from the other by a raised path of earth. Even then the picture is incomplete, since the bits belonging to one farmer are not necessarily adjacent to each other, but frequently many a rood apart. Such a beggarly amount of land, even under the most perfect system of cultivation, cannot of course yield sufficient to bring up a family according to Western standards of comfort. The idea of wages, or remuneration for labor, scarcely enters the Japanese farmer's mind; he is content if, after paying his taxes, he can in some rough fashion merely make both ends meet. At any fair rate of wages, farming is carried on at a loss in Japan. The farmer seldom eats the rice he grows, generally using barley or millet as a cheaper means of subsistence. His expenditures are on an infinitesimal scale; the clothes of the family are often heirlooms handed down from generation to generation; and as for saving anything from year to year, the practice is so little known in this country as hardly to be considered a virtue.

A system of taxation that demands 40 or

even 50 per cent. of the annual produce of agricultural labor, especially when carried on under such circumscribed conditions, would be deemed infamous in most countries of the world. In European countries a land-tax of 10 per cent. is considered high, and is perhaps nowhere strictly levied. Yet, for the present at least, the Japanese Government has no other resource. Under the present treaties with foreign nations, she is limited to a 5 per cent. duty on imports and exports. Thus her receipts from customs are insignificant, and those from other sources, as from the tobacco, beer, and income taxes, are insufficient, and Japan is driven to resort to the feudal land-tax. It is not likely, however, that this state of things will continue much longer. Under the present representative institutions of Japan, the farmers, hitherto tractable, will begin to ventilate their grievances and demand a reform of the unjust land-tax. They constitute one-half of the population, and bear practically three-fourths of the taxes. As soon, therefore, as the Parliament becomes an established institution in Japan, we may expect a determined agitation for the reduction of land taxes, for which at present there is probably no exact parallel in any civilized country.

G. D.

MARBOT IN THE AUSTRIAN CAMPAIGN.

PARIS, July 21, 1891.

AFTER the storming of Saragossa, the mission of Lannes was accomplished; he returned to France with Marbot, who, notwithstanding his wounds, had to travel with him as a courier or postilion. They arrived in Paris on the 2d of April; Marbot almost immediately left for Strasbourg and Augsburg. Napoleon was beginning a new campaign; he gained the victory of Eckmühl, and took Ratisbon by storm. Marbot took a leading part in the assault of this town. It was before Ratisbon that Napoleon was slightly wounded in the foot. Larrey examined the wound and allowed Napoleon to remount his horse immediately. The enthusiasm of the army was intense; Napoleon passed it in review, and for the first time distributed *dotations*—that is to say, pensions—to simple soldiers.

"An old grenadier who had made the campaigns of Italy and Egypt, not hearing his name pronounced, left the ranks and asked for the Legion of Honor. 'What have you done,' said Napoleon, 'to obtain this recompense?' 'It was I, Sire, who, in the desert of Jaffa, in a dreadful heat, offered you a watermelon.' 'I thank you again for it, but that is not worth the Legion of Honor.' The grenadier, who, so far, had been as cold as ice, flew into a paroxysm, and said with great volubility: 'Do you count for nothing seven wounds received at the bridge of Arcole, at Lodi, at Castiglione, at the Pyramids, at Saint Jean d'Acre, at Austerlitz, at Friedland—eleven campaigns in Italy, in Egypt, in Austria, in Prussia, in Poland?' Here the Emperor interrupted him, and, imitating his vivacious language, said: 'Well, well, well! how you scream! Now you come to essential points; you end where you ought to have begun; this is better than your watermelon.'"

By this familiarity, the Emperor made himself adored by his soldiers; "but," says Marbot, "such means ought to be employed only by a chieftain whom many victories have made illustrious; they would hurt and discredit another general."

At the storming of Ratisbon, two small columns of assault had been repulsed and completely destroyed; Marbot took part in the third, and was the first, with Labédoyère, to gain the rampart of the town, in view of the Emperor Napoleon and of the whole army, who saluted them with an immense acclamation. "It was one of the finest days of my life."

Whoever has gone from Munich to Vienna must remember the fine town and abbey of Mölk, on the Danube. "It was at Mölk," says Marbot, "that I accomplished the feat of which I am the most proud, because the dangers which I had so far incurred had been imposed on me by the execution of orders given by my chiefs, but there I braved death voluntarily to serve my country and my Emperor, and to acquire a little glory." The Danube was very high; it had risen till, at Mölk, it was a league wide. Napoleon, who was dining in the convent with the abbé, Lannes, and the other marshals, sent for Marbot. It was raining; the night was dark; on the other side of the river were seen the lights of the Austrian camp. Lannes said to Marbot: "The Emperor wishes to know if the corps of Gen. Hiller is on the other side or is still on this side. It is necessary that a man of pluck should go over, seize a soldier, and get the truth out of him; I have told the Emperor that you would go." Napoleon added: "Observe that this is not an order which I give you; I only express a desire. The enterprise is perilous, and you will not displease me if you refuse. Reflect a few moments, and tell me frankly your decision."

At the proposition of Lannes Marbot felt himself bathed in cold sweat. He did not hesitate, however; he was proud of having been chosen, out of 200,000 men, for such a mission. "I will go," said he. The Emperor pinched his ear, which was his greatest mark of satisfaction. Lannes said: "There is a brave soldier!" The execution of the project was not easy. Marbot procured a boat, took five soldiers, five boatmen, who were carried away by force, and the syndic of the boatmen of Mölk. The boat reached the other side of the river with difficulty. A soldier was coming down to get water; the soldiers concealed under the branches of willows seized him, and threatened to kill him if he uttered a word. Two other Austrians were seized in the same way; but soon was heard a cry of "Wer da?" No answer. The boat was seen by the Austrian pickets, and put off with as much haste as possible. A tremendous fusillade began; the artillery was directed against the small craft; a single shell would have sunk it. The inundation had covered the river with broken pine-trees, and it was difficult to steer. Marbot landed two leagues away from Mölk, not knowing whether he was among friends or foes. His party was fired upon; he screamed, "Vive l'Empereur!" and found himself among Frenchmen. On his return, he ascertained that Hiller was on the other side of the Danube, and had been able to join Prince Charles. He saw the Emperor, and brought him his three prisoners. "I am well satisfied with you, *Chef d'escadron* Marbot." These words were equivalent to a promotion. He asked Marbot to breakfast, and gave the Legion of Honor to his five grenadiers. He gave a large sum of money to the five boatmen of Mölk.

Two days afterwards the Emperor was before Vienna; twenty-seven days after having left Paris, he was in the capital of Austria. He took for his residence the castle of Schönbrunn, which is two miles from Vienna. Marbot enters into many details of the operations which took place on the Danube on the occupation of the island of Lobau. During the battle between the French army and Archduke Charles at Essling, Marshal Lannes was severely wounded in the legs by a cannon-ball; Larrey, the head surgeon of the army, thought an amputation necessary. After the operation Napoleon came to see Lannes. "You will live, my friend, you will live," said he to the Marshal, who merely answered: "I hope so, if I can still be useful to France and to your Majesty." Lannes was born in 1769 at Lectoure, in Gascony. His father was a dyer; he helped his father in his trade, and, when the Revolution broke out, all his knowledge consisted in reading, writing, and a little arithmetic. He enlisted in 1791 in the first battalion of the volunteers of Gers, and by the suffrage of his comrades he became a lieutenant. He began to study and spend many of his nights in trying to remedy the defects of his education. He rapidly became a colonel, and when Napoleon made his Italian campaign, he soon recognized Lannes's merit. Lannes followed him to Egypt, and returned with him. He saved the French army at Montebello and thus insured the victory of Marengo. After the death of Lannes, Marbot joined the staff of Masséna, with the grade of *chef d'escadron;* he was created at the same time Chevalier of the Empire, with a stipend of 2,000 francs a year. Soon afterwards occurred the battle of Wagram.

The Memoirs of Marbot in the second half of the second volume assume the tone of ordinary military memoirs. His position allowed him to see more than many, and he cannot resist the temptation of telling all he saw. We must pass a little rapidly over the account of the military operations, and insist more particularly upon the incidents which touch the character of the persons engaged in these Homeric struggles. Of all the marshals of the Empire, Marbot seems to have particularly liked Augereau, and particularly disliked Masséna. At the battle of Wagram, Masséna's corps was at first defeated. "The Marshal, from his carriage, saw the danger which threatened us, and calmly took the necessary dispositions to maintain in good order the three divisions which had not yet been broken into. He had been obliged for that to send so many aides-de-camp to his generals that he had by him only the young lieutenant, Prosper Masséna, his son. He soon found that the soldiers of Boudet's division, pursued by the Austrian cavalry, were being pushed back on these three divisions, and in throwing themselves into their ranks would produce a general rout. To prevent this catastrophe, the Marshal had to order the generals and colonels to send the runaway soldiers to the island of Lobau." The mission was difficult, as the aide-de-camp would have to cut his way through a disordered multitude. Marbot's horse had been half burnt in some cornfields which had taken fire, and could hardly move. The etiquette of battle for the aides-de-camp consisted in taking their places, when they returned to the Marshal, furthest from him. Masséna, who had been carrying an order and was returning, took his place. Nevertheless the Marshal, who should have sent his son first, bade Marbot fulfil the dangerous mission which has just been explained. Masséna was so candid as to tell him, "You understand why I don't send my son, though it is his turn to go. I am afraid they will kill him. You understand?" Marbot understood too well, and started at full gallop towards Boudet's division. Young Masséna felt indignant at his father, and followed Marbot.

Masséna, who was slightly wounded, was obliged to remain in a carriage during the battle of Wagram, and during the combats which followed he had his own postilions. These two men showed great intrepidity. They were for eight days exposed to the greatest

dangers, especially at Wagram, where hundreds of men were killed near their carriage. A ball went through the coat of one of them, another ball killed one of their horses. The whole army admired their bravery, which was of the most voluntary sort, as they were not soldiers. The Emperor said to Masséna: "There are here 300,000 fighting on both sides. Well, would you know who are the bravest? They are your coachman and your postilion, as we are all here to do our duty, while they have no military obligations." The Marshal had a very large fortune: he received 200,000 francs as commander of an army, 200,000 as Duc de Rivoli, 300,000 francs as Prince of Essling. Masséna, however, waited two months without thinking of doing anything for these two men. One evening he was with his staff and announced that he would give to each 400 francs. Marbot imprudently asked, "400 francs a year?" Masséna was furious, and said, "Do you want to ruin me?' He became even more furious when, a few days afterwards, the Emperor, who was very fond of a joke, and who, besides, was extremely generous, maliciously complimented Masséna for having given to each of the two men who had taken him over the battlefields a pension of 400 francs. It is easy to imagine that such incidents did not ingratiate Marbot with Masséna nor Masséna with Marbot; but they remained together, and we shall see Marbot's criticisms assume a more important character when we arrive at the very important affairs of Portugal.

In 1810, Marbot found himself in Paris, and he was married to a Mlle. Desbrières. The winter of 1810 was very brilliant; Napoleon had divorced Josephine and married the Archduchess Marie Louise of Austria. Marbot took part in the festivities of the occasion. The ardor for pleasure of the brilliant officers of Napoleon's army was all the greater because they had the conviction that each spring would bring a new campaign. Marbot accompanied Masséna to Portugal in the spring of 1810, and his account of the Peninsular campaign is full of interest. He left Paris with sombre forebodings, which were only too well justified by the event.

Correspondence.

GOLDWIN SMITH AND THE JEWS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The appearance of Goldwin Smith's essay on the "Jewish Question" as the leading article in the leading American review, seems to me at this present time very unfortunate. There is no "Jewish Question" except so far as the madness of a modern Nero, wielding absolute power over more than a hundred million human beings, has made one. Not that other nations than Russia might not possibly be better off if there were fewer Jews among them, or if those there are were put under restrictive laws; but all other great nations have committed themselves irrevocably to the principle of religious freedom and equality, and it would be found impracticable to discriminate against the Jews on the ground of race in the way in which the United States discriminate against the Chinese.

Aside from Russia the Jews are indeed oppressed and sometimes persecuted in Morocco and in Rumania; but the Moorish Government of the former country will soon fall under West-European control, when the Jews, who in language and habits are pretty nearly European, must get the upper hand, and the Rumanian situation is but part of the Russian problem, for the ill-will of the people on the lower Danube is directed mainly against Jews who have been thrust upon them from Russia, not against the old settlers of the "Spanish" ritual, who are generally on the best footing with their Gentile neighbors.

The "question" in Russia has arisen since the mischievous dynamite shell of a Nihilist ended the life of Alexander II. and put the lives of one-fourth of the globe into the keeping of a gloomy, unfeeling monster. The tortures which he inflicts upon his Slavic subjects, as described in the letters of Kennan, have curdled the blood of English and American readers. His Semitic subjects he is pleased to treat in a different way: he gives them the choice between starvation and exile. They flee by thousands and by tens of thousands to Austria, to Turkey, to England, to Italy, to the United States, to the Argentine Republic. In some countries the sudden inroad of large numbers of often penniless exiles must cause much unpleasantness—thus we find that, in East London, tailors and shoemakers complain of the sharp competition made by these new-comers in the labor market; but all this is only a part of the one Russian question, which ought, if possible, to be met in Russia.

Thus far, the whole civilized world has been practically at one in its protest against the cruelties of the Muscovite tyrant. Even the anti-Semitic politicians of Germany and Austria have not justified the horrors perpetrated at Moscow. It was left for the New York *Herald* to break the monotony of this universal protest, and to distinguish itself by that journalistic enterprise which found, through its St. Petersburg correspondent, that there was really no persecution to speak of. We now meet a first-rate publicist writing in a first-rate review something which, no matter how much he may disclaim the intent, can only be taken as an argument in defence of a stupendous and still progressing crime. Long before this, I have no doubt, a résumé of Goldwin Smith's lucubrations has been cabled to the *Novoe Vremya*, in order that the advisers and tools of the oppressor may find comfort in the concurrence of a British writer and an American magazine. Some have foolishly imagined that Goldwin Smith's pen has been hired with Russian rubles. I believe nothing of the sort. He is simply filled with hatred for those whom he thinks too weak to resist oppression, whether they be Irish rack-rented tenants or Jewish artisans and students in Russia. If Prof. Smith really understood the strength, the toughness, the persistence of the Jewish character, he would feel as much love and admiration for the "chosen people" as he now cherishes hatred and contempt. L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., August 1, 1891.

THE NEW KENTUCKY CONSTITUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may be interesting to your readers to know something of the new Constitution about to be adopted by Kentucky. That it will carry on Monday next is practically assured. The *Courier-Journal*, the very head and front of the opposition, withdrew from the fight some weeks ago. The first material change to note is in the Bill of Rights, section 3, which provides:

"All men, when they form a social compact, are equal; and no grant of exclusive, separate public emoluments or privileges shall be made to any man or set of men, except in consideration of public services; *but no property shall be exempt from taxation except as provided in this Constitution; and every grant of a franchise, privilege, or exemption shall remain subject to revocation, alteration, or amendment.*"

The italics show so much of this section as is new. The change is made to prevent property from being exempted on the pretence that "public services" are rendered, and to stop the granting of "exclusive privileges" which cannot be revoked, altered, or amended. Our experience in these two directions has been a painful one.

In the legislative department, section 48, the Constitution provides that any bill appropriating money or creating a debt shall, on its final passage, receive the votes of a majority of the members of both houses. Section 62 puts a stop to local and special legislation, which in Kentucky usually consumed six or seven months of the Legislature's time and vast sums of the taxpayers' money.

Probably the change that will interest the lovers of honest elections more than any other thing the Convention has done is the addition to our chapter on Suffrage and Election. Section 154 provides:

"In all elections by persons in a representative capacity, the voting shall be *viva voce* and made a matter of record; but all elections by the people shall be by *secret official ballot*, furnished by public authority to the voters at the polls, and marked by each voter in private at the polls, and then and there deposited. The word 'election' in this section includes the decision of questions submitted to the voters, as well as the choice of officers by them. The General Assembly shall make provision so that persons illiterate, blind, or in any way disabled may have their ballots marked as herein required."

It remains to be seen how effective a law the General Assembly will provide under this section. Happily, the Constitution itself requires that the ballot shall be "official" and furnished by public authority. The General Assembly is required to provide for the registration of the voters of cities and towns having a population of 5,000 or over.

Lotteries are for ever prohibited by sec. 235, which reads:

"Lotteries and gift enterprises are forbidden, and no privileges shall be granted for such purposes, and none shall be exercised, and no schemes for similar purposes shall be allowed. The General Assembly shall enforce this section by proper penalties. All lottery privileges or charters heretofore granted are revoked."

There are other new provisions, some good, others the wisdom of which is doubtful, but space forbids their mention. Those noted above seem to be the most important changes made by the Convention. The question of taxation, always a difficult one, was disposed of by providing that real and personal property should be taxed at the same rate. The General Assembly (sec. 257) may provide that in civil actions, when three-fourths or more of the jury concur, a verdict may be returned; the jury to consist of twelve persons. ***

Louisville, July 31, 1891.

PROTECTION TO AMERICAN AUTHORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Uncle Sam seems to have mended his drag-net of late, and the fish must be small-fry indeed that now go through its meshes. A learned society of Scotland, in pursuance of its liberal policy, mailed to me fifty author's copies of a paper which had been honored by

admission to its *Transactions*. The bundle came to the local post-office this week opened, and accompanied by a slip giving the package a "commercial value" of twelve dollars, and assessing a duty of 25 per cent. The local collector of customs thinks that I am resisting the just claims of a hard-working Government in delaying payment; but curiosity as to how they discover the commercial value of a paper whose real audience might, I think, be numbered on the fingers of the two hands, has led me to appeal the case. X. Y. Z.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROS., Boston, will publish in the fall 'A Calendar of Sonnets,' by the late Helen Jackson, illustrated by E. H. Garrett and Émile Bayard; and 'Last Words,' a final collection of the stories of the late Mrs. J. H. Ewing.

Lee & Shepard announce 'Wood Notes Wild,' notations of bird music by Simeon Pease Cheney; 'The Golden Guess,' essays by John Vance Cheney; 'Gestures and Attitude,' an exposition of the Delsarte theory of expression, by Edward B. Warman; 'A Bundle of French Studies,' by Maria Ellery Mackaye; and 'The Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law,' by Harriette R. Shattuck.

Benj. R. Tucker will publish shortly 'Russian Traits and Terrors,' by a number of contributors to the *Fortnightly Review*.

The Student Publishing Co., Hartford, Conn., have in press 'Bibles Within the Bible,' being the text of Genesis and the first twenty chapters of Exodus according to the Revised Version, in varieties of type to exhibit the constituent sources according to the analysis of the best critics, with notes explanatory of the phenomena of redaction. The author is the Rev. B. W. Bacon.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in preparation a series of concise biographies of the men whose systems have marked successive stages in the progress of education, from Aristotle to Dr. Arnold. It will be edited by Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia. Mr. Thomas Davidson will undertake Aristotle; J. G. Fitch, Pestalozzi; J. Courthope Bowen, Froebel; Prof. Butler, Horace Mann. The same firm will issue another volume of 'Children's Stories in English Literature'; and 'The Business of Life,' by the author of 'How to be Happy, though Married.'

A new prospectus of Funk & Wagnalls's 'Standard Dictionary of the English Language' gives a list of the editorial staff, which is not lacking in eminent names, and exhibits some original features which it will certainly be desirable to have in a dictionary, if not in every one. Mr. Teall, whose work on the 'Compounding of English Words' we lately noticed, will be charged with the oversight of this important matter—a complete innovation, we imagine. So is the use of the German double hyphen to indicate compounds, the mode of expressing the pronunciation, etc.

The well-known Danish publishers, Brödrene Salmonsen, announce a new Scandinavian encyclopædia, the first part of which will appear in the spring of 1892 under the title of 'Salmonsen's Store Illustrerede Konversationsleksikon for Norden.' This work will be founded upon the recently completed fourth edition of Meyer's German 'Konversationslexikon,' the use of the 4,000 illustrations to which has been secured. Many of the German articles will be translated, with special reference, however, to Scandinavian interests. Over a quarter of the contents will be devoted to Denmark and Norway, an amount of reading matter equalling the whole extent of any previous Scandinavian encyclopædia. The chief editorship will fall to Chr. Blangstrup, whose book on Christian VII. and Caroline Mathilde has already been favorably noticed in these columns. Mr. Halvorsen, the editor of the 'Northern Biographical Dictionary,' will have charge of the Norwegian department, and the work of translating from the German will be supervised by L. Stange, who is himself an experienced translator. Among the 150 assistants already announced in the preliminary circular are many of the most prominent littérateurs and scientists, both of Denmark and Norway. The work will be published at intervals of two weeks, the subscription price for each part of three sheets being about 15 cents, or $3 25 per annum. When completed it will include 18 volumes, containing about 6,000 illustrations, maps, plans, etc. It is intended, furthermore, on the completion of the work, to issue at convenient intervals supplementary volumes, which will serve to keep it up to date. While this encyclopædia, as its title implies, is intended particularly for Scandinavian readers, it cannot fail to be of great value to all familiar with the Danish language and interested in the affairs of the North.

The seventh volume of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.) carries on the work from Maltebrun to Pearson. The freshness of the editing is attested by mention of the new Life of Laurence Oliphant and by the record of Parnell's discomfiture down to his defeats at North Kilkenny and North Sligo, and the striking off of his name from the burgess-roll of Edinburgh. Notable articles are Canon Isaac Taylor's "Names," R. H. Hutton's "Newman," P. G. Hamerton's "Painting," Prof. A. H. Keane's "New Guinea," and A. Clark's "Oxford." Under "Parliament" is a list of constituencies showing the number of members sent to the House of Commons. As usual, woodcut illustrations abound, and the several States of the Union embraced in this part of the alphabet are mapped in color.

The twenty-seventh volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) is occupied with another instalment of the mighty letter H, ending with Hovenden. The longest article (fifteen pages) is upon Hogarth, who, it should be remembered, was instrumental in securing copyright for artistic designs, and who made interesting experiments with wood as a cheaper mode of engraving, but without success, as regards cost. The two plates actually executed "show that Hogarth's bold drawing upon the block, even in its rough knife-cut facsimile, has a vigor which is wanting in the copper." Hobbes is treated of in eight pages by Leslie Stephen, who styles him "a product of the great intellectual movement distinguished by' Bacon, Galileo, Kepler, Harvey, and Descartes, and says he "produced a fermentation in English thought not surpassed until the advent of Darwin." The carrier, Thomas Hobson, whose "choice" of the next horse in turn in his stall for his customers gave rise to the proverb, is shown to have been a considerable person and to have been a lasting benefactor to Cambridge. Hobart Pasha, who, from being blockade-runner during our civil war, became the Sultan's naval adviser, began as a gunner's mate in suppressing the slave trade on the South American coast. The strange career of the medium Home is related with all possible credit, and is said to offer a "curious and as yet unsolved problem."

Mr. Giles B. Stebbins's 'Upward Steps of Seventy Years: Autobiographic, Biographic, Historic' (New York: U. S. Book Co.) is valuable as the work of a man of the forties for whom the forties are not yet ended. He still feels in himself all the reformatory impulses of that fermenting period, and a large portion of his narrative consists of very accurate portraits of the men and women with whom he coöperated and whom he met more or less familiarly, especially as a lecturer in the anti-slavery cause. Noticeable is his account of the Northampton Community and some of its leading figures. The latter part of the volume is given up to personal spiritualistic experiences, running through the whole gamut of "manifestations," from the puerile to the permanently mysterious. Mr. Stebbins has a firm belief in "that bourne from whence travellers sometimes return," as he puts it. How a man of his kindly, humanitarian disposition could become the author of 'British Free Trade a Delusion' and the 'American Protectionist's Manual,' and hired editor, for the late E. B. Ward, of a protectionist paper in Washington, passes understanding as much as any of his mediumistic miracles. But he does not dilate excessively on this phase of his activity. He describes his intercourse with the late Henry C. Carey as admiringly as that with the free-trader Gerrit Smith at Peterboro. Mr. Stebbins was born in Springfield, Mass., about the year 1817. His parents attended the Unitarian Church, and he recalls George Bancroft "standing before the window in prayer-time, and catching flies on its panes in his total absence of mind." Among other philanthropists intimately portrayed by Mr. Stebbins are Oliver Smith of Northampton and his niece, Sophia, the founder of Smith College.

Mrs. Cynthia Morgan St. John's 'Wordsworth for the Young' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.) is a book of selections which deserves respectful treatment for its aim. This aim is not an introduction to Wordsworth, nor an initiation in poetic taste, but an early subjection of the childish mind to "the calming and spiritualizing influence of the natural world." It is easy to see what order of pieces would be chosen for this purpose, and our main criticism is that the older children (in the three graded divisions) are least well provided for, and suffer most from the compiler's comparative indifference to poetic standards in making excerpts from the most unequal of poets. While judicious parents and teachers would skip much in their reading from these pages, Wordsworthian doggerel is, it must be conceded, of better worth than Mother Goose—to adopt Mrs. St. John's comparison more closely than she does. The illustrations are selected like the verse, and with considerable skill, considering the probable medley at command.

There can be nothing but praise for the purpose of two manuals that meet together on our table—'Elements of Civil Government,' by Alex. L. Peterman (American Book Co.), and 'The American Citizen,' by Charles F. Dole (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). Intended primarily for use in the public schools, they serve as one practical solution of the question of non-religious teaching of morals. Especially is this the case with Mr. Dole's book, which takes a wider range than the other. His sections entitled "Economic Duties" and "Social Duties" are particularly valuable, his sure and clear handling in the chapters on Property and Money being worthy of special commendation. Senator Peterman's book (he is a member of the Kentucky Senate) is more formal, and restricted to the subject of government pure and simple; it is based, he says, upon his experience as a teacher for many

years, and is certainly written with an eye to the technical requirements of the school-room. It is of the happiest omen that such books are now accessible to teachers.

We have on a former occasion praised the still recent work of M. É. Boutmy, Principal of the French School of Political Science, called 'Études de Droit Constitutionnel,' and we are now glad to announce an English translation under the title 'Studies in Constitutional Law: France, England, United States' (Macmillan). It is a translation from the second edition by E. M. Dicey, and is provided with an introduction by Prof. A. V. Dicey of Oxford, who confidently recommends it to the attention of students, and holds it to be a great recommendation that "the essay is written by a foreigner for foreigners." He has added a few notes, signed with his initials, some of them referring to Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.'

Mr. H. Morse Stephens's 'The Story of Portugal' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) can but add to the favorable impression of Mr. Stephens's powers made by his writings on the French Revolution. He disclaims, it is true, having made exhaustive researches for the present work, yet it is much to have thoroughly acquainted himself with the results of the modern historical school in Portugal, and by adopting these to have produced a manual far more trustworthy, at least as respects the early history, than anything heretofore published in English. The method followed is not so episodic as has been the case in some volumes of the "Story of the Nations" series; Mr. Stephens calls himself only a plodding annalist. Yet he observes the proportions and knows where to lay emphasis, and is thus far from giving simply a register of events. A good specimen of his self-sacrifice is where he passes so lightly over the period of French occupation, content to refer the reader to Napier's unrivalled narrative of the Napoleonic wars in the Peninsula. Altogether, the book deserves commendation, and will meet a "long-felt want" more truly than some of its predecessors in the series. We notice that the given name of Herculano, that Niebuhr among Portuguese historians, is spelled in three different ways.

The 'Cantigas' of Alfonso the Wise have lately been published by the Spanish Academy in two folio volumes. Heretofore these poems, written in Galician and of great value to the student of the literature of the Middle Ages, have been accessible only in scattered citations.

From Macmillan & Co. we have received 'The Apostolic Fathers,' a volume begun by the late Bishop Lightfoot, and now completed and edited by J. R. Harmer. In the case of each writing, the Greek text is preceded by a short introduction and followed by an English translation. The same house sends us a third and revised edition, two volumes in one, of Martineau's 'Types of Ethical Theory,' and a second edition of the first volume of Prof. Alfred Marshall's 'Principles of Economics.' The new edition of the 'Principles' differs from the first only in point of detail and in arrangement. The changes are not without importance, but are too numerous to allow us to do more than refer to them.

Dr. Seward Webb has printed an account of a journey to California and Alaska, returning via the Canadian Pacific. An *édition de luxe*, with etchings, is destined for his friends, while a popular edition, with numerous "process" illustrations, has been issued by the Putnams. It does not appear to rise above a chronicle of ordinary experiences on a special train over the usual routes of tourists.

J. B. Bailey writes to the *Academy* that a copy of Marat's 'Essay on Gleets' has at last been found and, together with his later medical tract published in London, is soon to be reprinted. The same journal announces that the Chaucer Concordance is getting within sight of publication; work upon it was resumed in 1888, and now Dr. Ewald Flügel of Leipzig undertakes to edit the mass of material.

A new milestone marks the rapid advance of "university extension" in this country, namely, the establishment of a monthly organ of the American Society. Judging by the first number, that for July, *University Extension* is to have a purely missionary tone, though that is inevitable in the beginning of such an enterprise, and may later on give place to something broader.

The Cleveland College for Women, in a recent report, shows a total enrolment of 132 students for the three years of its existence. A permanent site has been secured, and Clark Hall and Mather Cottage will be at once erected. The gifts of Mrs. Jas. F. Clark and Mrs. Samuel Mather not only cover this expense, but also aggregate $100,000 as the nucleus of an endowment fund. What is noteworthy about this institution is, that it appears to be symptomatic of a reaction against the coeducational practice of the West. It competes, one may say, not only with the neighboring Oberlin, but with the University of Michigan and with Cornell University.

Prof. W. W. Goodwin's masterly Phi Beta Kappa address on "The Present and Future of Harvard College" has been printed in a neat form by Ginn & Co., Boston. Every one who heard it should be glad to read it, and we especially commend it both to those who still have lingering doubts about the elective system, and to the candid friends of the three-years' course, with whom, we are free to say, we are in sympathy, while holding our judgment in suspense.

The full-length portrait of Phillips Brooks in his library is the chief attraction of *Sun and Shade* for August (New York: Photo-Gravure Co.).

A geological excursion on a large scale is planned for the wind-up of the International Geological Congress which meets in Washington, August 26 to September 2. The design is mainly to give European geologists an opportunity to examine personally the most important geological phenomena of the United States. Leaving Washington on Sept. 3, a train of completely equipped Pullman cars will start on a journey of more than 6,000 miles, in the course of which the Appalachian range will be crossed, the glacial phenomena observed in northern Minnesota, and the Yellowstone Park, and the Rocky Mountains in Montana and Colorado successively visited, the expedition ending in New York, Sept. 26. Those desiring to take part in it should write as early as possible to S. F. Emmons, Secretary, Washington. Two hundred and sixty-five dollars will cover all the necessary expenses of the trip.

—Part VI. of the English Philological Society's Dictionary, running from *Clo-* to *Consigner*, may now be expected in the course of a few days. It embraces 5,215 Main Words, 708 Special Combinations calling for separate explanation, and 985 Subordinate Words and Forms; the total amounting to 6,908. In Part VII. we are to have the rest of C, with the first portion of D. The importance of words in C is patent from the fact that, as Dr. Murray observes, this letter is one of three which, taken together, begin nearly a third of all English vocables. As showing the extensive scale of the Dictionary, it may be mentioned that no fewer than twenty three columns of it are devoted to the verb *Come;* no other word having yet demanded so large a space for treatment. The preparation of a Supplement to the Dictionary, which cannot fail to be instructive, is now announced in these words:

"In no earlier part of the Vocabulary have the ordinary Dictionaries been found so deficient, or so affected with error; the great number of bogus words, originating in mistakes of many kinds and of many authors, from the early days of English lexicography downward, which have been uncritically copied by one compiler after another, until, in the most recent compilation, they form a portentous number, has decided us to prepare a *List of Spurious Words* found in the Dictionaries, to be given at the end of the work, to which list such *verba nihili* are relegated from the text."

The beginning of Vol. III. of the same Dictionary, which has just left the press, has for its editor a very accomplished scholar, Mr. Henry Bradley, President of the Philological Society. The First Part of this volume, containing 344 pages, extends from *E* to *Every*. It deals with 6,842 Main Words, 1,565 Subordinate Words, and 786 Special Combinations explained under the Main Words, constituting a total of 9,193. One noteworthy feature of these words, we are told, is the extremely small proportion of them found to be natively English; while another is the unusual abundance, among them, of technicalities called into existence by the development of science in recent years. We can here only add, that, the more searching the scrutiny of the manner in which Mr. Bradley has discharged his editorial functions, the more convincingly, we apprehend, it will appear that Dr. Murray is most fortunate in having him as a coadjutor. It is a very considerable stride that has lately been taken by their herculean undertaking.

—We have received from B. Westermann & Co. the concluding parts of the first annual volume in extension of the fourth edition of 'Meyers Konversations-Lexikon.' The most cursory examination discovers the great value and convenience of this review of the year 1890. In the first place, we have an article on each of the leading Powers, narrating its history for the twelvemonth, with a summary of its literary productions. In the case of the United States, the population census of 1890 is recorded, and a separate article of four pages is devoted to the McKinley Bill and its effect on Europe, and another to North American Literature 1885–1890, by Karl Knortz. Then, still observing the general headings, we have the several congresses of the year, scientific and other; the art exhibitions of Germany; geographical discovery and bibliography; historical literature, 1888–1890, pedagogic, 1880–1890, and theological; recent historical works evoked by the great wars since Sadowa; works illustrating the history of civilization, etc. The problem of reform of the high schools, in which the Emperor has interested himself with the oppressive officiousness of a saviour of society; the new industrial courts for the settlement of disputes between laborer and capitalist; taxation, another German concern; German trade, the German climate, are further topics fully treated. The movement of prices 1870–90 furnishes a notable article, and of interest is the description of prehistoric and mediæval trade-routes in Germany. The ever-present anticipation of war is ministered to by articles on the military employment of carrier-pigeons and the use of bicycles in the army, and by a map of the fortified frontiers of Germany touching France and Russia. Electricity obtains a large space, and there is a table under Telephone which shows that Sweden is third of

the European countries in its use of this mode of communication, following Great Britain and Germany. The grippe is discussed by itself; there are tables and maps showing the spread of diseases, and tinted maps of France, Germany, and Italy to exhibit relative local criminality (or frequency of arrests). A curious list indicates by title or artist the most remarkable paintings since Cimabue. Characteristic are entries of great personages, like Machiavelli and Napoleon, in order to refer the reader to the latest works concerning them, and this is done in the case of Mr. Adams's 'Life of R. H. Dana.' So Lecky's name is introduced to note the conclusion of his 'History of England.' A great many American biographies are newly inserted, from Buffalo Bill to Bellamy, T. B. Reed, Sitting Bull, J. Keppler, Thomas Evans, D. G. Brinton, W. T. Harris, George Kennan, etc. The classified table of contents reveals the names of some of the contributors to this scrupulously edited and printed volume; and the necrology is brought down to May, 1891. Altogether, this annual will take a high rank in its class.

—Mr. W. H. Venable brings together an interesting collection of historical and biographical sketches in his 'Beginnings of Literary Culture in the Ohio Valley' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.). After an introductory chapter on some Early Travellers and Annalists, he gives us, successively, chapters on the Pioneer Press, Early Periodical Literature, Libraries, and Backwoods Colleges, and then goes on with accounts of pulpit and political orators, poets, and story-writers, winding up with eight biographical portraitures, the best known of the subjects being George D. Prentice and Alice Cary. The settlement of the Ohio Valley was effected at a time when cohesion seemed to be going utterly out of almost all forms of social organization, and the chaos resulting from the extreme individualism of the period is well indicated in Mr. Venable's pages. New sects sprang up like mushrooms, and the range was from Unitarianism down to the followers of Dilks, "the Leatherwood God, who, in 1828, inaugurated his system by a loud snort and the cry of the single word, 'Salvation.'" The ferment of ideas was revealed in the starting of endless sectarian schools, and also, perhaps even more notably, in the foundation of literary and philosophical periodicals. Mr. Venable gives a list of ninety-six of these, established between 1803 and 1860, with the warning that it is but "partial." They were nearly all ephemeral, naturally, but have their significance, and can show tangible results in having helped to train the pens of Harriet Beecher Stowe, James Freeman Clarke, W. D. Howells, M. D. Conway, and others. The book has much that is desultory and trivial, but withal yields the flavor which a studious and discreet attempt to preserve local traditions must always possess.

—The Superintendent of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey publishes in Bulletin No. 23 the secular variation and annual change of the magnetic force at stations occupied by the U. S. Eclipse Expedition to West Africa, 1889–'90, in charge of Prof. David P. Todd. Eight of these were island stations in the North and South Atlantic—Fayal, San Vicente, two at St. Helena, two at Ascension Island, Barbados, and Bermuda. Six stations are on the African coast—Sierra Leone, Elmina (Gold Coast), St. Paul de Loanda, Cabiri (Angola interior), and two at Cape Town. The observer was Mr. E. D. Preston, and his work is made directly available for the use of the navigator and others, by the comparison and discussion of it in connection with the accumulated mass of older observations. Isomagnetic curves of a recent epoch are thus constructed, and much light is thrown on the character and extent of the changes which terrestrial magnetism is undergoing at present over a very wide geographic area. If we compare the mathematical expressions for the secular variation in declination at these stations of the Expedition with those situate on our Atlantic coast, the greatly enlarged secular motion, both in range and in period, becomes at once conspicuous. The average range for our coast stations is about twice 3°, whereas for the Atlantic islands generally, Rio de Janeiro, and Cape Town, it is twice 13°.5, or four and a half times as great. The period of a complete angular swing for the Atlantic coast stations is 267 years; whereas for the islands of the Atlantic, and coast stations in South America and West Africa, it is just double the length, or 534 years. This very significant change of character, as depending upon geographic position, is, like the entire phenomena of the secular motion, difficult of explanation; possibly there are interference phenomena due to more than a single cause. At Barbados, the Cape Verdes, Ascension, Saint Helena, and Cape Town there has been a systematic decrease, between the latest dates, both in the horizontal component and in the total magnetic force.

TAINE'S MODERN FRANCE.

Le Régime Moderne. Tome I. [Les Origines de la France Contemporaine.] Par H. Taine, de l'Académie Francaise. Paris. 1891.

The Modern Régime. By H. A. Taine. Translated by John Durand. Vol. I. Henry Holt & Co.

TAINE'S last volume contains, as does everything he has written, much interesting and important matter. His brilliant sketch of Napoleon's character might have been expected to interest Englishmen. His elaborate criticism and attack on the French administrative system is full of novelty for any one who is not a Frenchman. But, for all this, his 'Régime Moderne' has, in England at least, fallen flat. It has not aroused as much attention as either his 'Ancien Régime' or his 'Jacobin Conquest.' The reason for this, though not obvious, may be discovered by the use of a little thought. The 'Régime Moderne' displays the weak sides of Taine's genius. In his former volumes these defects were masked by the inherent interest of the facts which he laid before his readers. In his last volume the faults of our author are patent. He is too considerable a writer to need flattery. His sterling merits will always be recognized by intelligent readers; and now that a good opportunity for fair criticism has arisen, it is worth while to examine with some care the limits or deficiencies of an eminent man of letters.

Taine is great as a collector of facts, but he is neither an historian of the first class nor an original or profound thinker. That he cannot rank high as an historian appears from an examination either of his whole five volumes or of his chapter on Napoleon. He lacks that primary characteristic of a great historian, the capacity for looking at his subject as a whole. From Taine's pages you may learn an infinity of details about the old noblesse, about the Girondists, about the Jacobins, about French Constitution-makers, and the like. But no study, however careful, will enable a student to collect from Taine a picture of the *ancien régime*, a history of the Girondists or of the Jacobins, a view of the progressive growth (or, if you prefer, of the systematic misgrowth) of French constitutionalism. It would in many respects be very unfair to the writer of 'Les Origines de la France Contemporaine' if we placed him merely on a level with Duvergier de Hauranne, whose 'Gouvernement Parlementaire en France' may be described as the Whig view of French parliamentary government. But Duvergier de Hauranne does give his readers a real insight into the ideas which determined the course in France of the battle, hardly yet ended, for the establishment of parliamentary government. Taine does nothing of the kind. He tells us of the evils of the *ancien régime*, and impresses upon us the weakness of the Girondists; he makes us recognize the tyranny, the savagery, and the incapacity of the Jacobins who ruled France both before and (what Englishmen forget) after the fall of Robespierre. But he explains nothing, because he looks at nothing as a whole. Events at Paris are, throughout the Revolution, governed by events on or outside the frontier of France. Suspicions — as we now know, justifiable suspicions — of the treachery of the court weakened the hands of all men who wished to rally round the throne and resist the brutality of the Revolution. But Taine's criticism omits all notice of foreign affairs, and passes over or ignores the impossibility felt by every man, whatever his politics, of trusting the Bourbons. Even his account of the Reign of Terror, full as it is of impressiveness and instruction, is entirely deficient in unity. Two examples of this may suffice. A careful examination of Taine's pages has not enabled us to discover anything like a general estimate of the numbers of the victims who, in his opinion, perished on the scaffold or by lawless violence. They might, as far as his statements go, be numbered by thousands or by tens of thousands. He utterly omits, again, to state, what we believe is pretty well ascertained, that the towns or districts where executions took place were few. A student of Taine might well suppose that the horrors which disgraced Paris, Nantes, Bordeaux, or Lyons were repeated in every part of the country.

Let us turn from Taine's way of looking at French revolutionary history to his picture of Napoleon. On no part of his work has our author, we may be sure, bestowed more pains than on the chapter devoted to Bonaparte. He has brought to bear upon it all his skill as an historical portrait-painter, all his infinite laboriousness in the collection of characteristic details; but he repeats, in his attempt to analyze or describe character, exactly the faults which are fatal to his description either of eras or of institutions. Taine tells us an infinity of anecdotes about Napoleon. He insists, and no doubt with truth, on the importance of Bonaparte's Corsican descent. He shows the hero to us as a sort of Corsican savage, who had inherited from his Italian ancestors all the policy or cunning, the boldness or the recklessness, of an Italian of the Renaissance. But even the generalization that Napoleon was in fact a great *condottiere*, the survivor of an earlier age—which, we confess, is a rhetorical idea that does not seem to lead one very far in the search after truth—is concealed, and, so to speak, overpowered, by the crowd of anecdotes with which Taine crams his pages. We learn a great number of facts about Bonaparte's indifference or insensibility to political, or indeed to any kind of

morality; we are shown his marvellous power of taming ruffians such as Augereau or Vandamme; we are told about his impatience, his breaking of furniture when in a passion, the blows he gives his valets, or the kick in the stomach with which, on one occasion at least, he silenced the opposition of a colleague. We learn a great deal about the condition of his body, and a great deal also about the powers of his intellect, about his passion for details and his hatred of abstractions, the coolness of his understanding overbalanced (as Taine considers) by the excess of his imagination. All these and a hundred other things about Napoleon (such, for example, as the irregularity and the vigor of his literary style, the rapidity of his dictation, and the illegibility of his handwriting) are to be learned from Taine's pages. But do we gain any picture of the man, any real idea or explanation of Napoleon's genius?

The question can be answered only with the most emphatic negative. Taine can pile together details out of which some one may in the future construct a whole; but he can no more draw a portrait or analyze a character than he can paint a state of society or trace the evolution either of institutions or of ideas. His passion for detail prevents him from affording real information with regard to large questions even when the inquiries are of a kind which might be answered by research. The Code Napoléon, for instance, must, like every other great work, have a history. How far is it really the creation of the man whose name it bears? No one but a child supposes that the Code was written by Napoleon; but it is a fair, and in estimating his character a most important, inquiry, What was the part which he bore in the conception or the execution of the work which will insure his name a life as long as that of French law, and very possibly far longer? On this point Taine tells us next to nothing. We would gladly have spared anecdotes illustrative of Bonaparte's insolence or passion if their sacrifice had made room for a history of the Code.

Taine is not an original or a profound thinker. As long as he dealt with the *ancien régime* he followed the guidance of an original and subtle teacher. All that is speculative in Taine's pages on that subject is, whether consciously or not, drawn from Tocqueville. No doubt Taine's information is far wider and better than that possessed by his predecessor. Tocqueville died while his work was incomplete, and the last thirty years have opened mines of information about Revolutionary history and the condition of sentiment at the outbreak of the Revolution which were not open to Tocqueville, and have been worked with most creditable diligence and energy by Taine. But we find it impossible to perceive that, in the way of thought, the disciple has ever got a step beyond his master. In one respect at least Tocqueville saw a good deal more deeply into the truth of things than Taine. Tocqueville perceived that, as a matter of fact, the *ancien régime* was detested by all who came under it, and therefore inferred that it was detestable. Taine, with Tocqueville's writings before his eyes, and with hundreds of additional facts confirmatory of Tocqueville's conclusions, never grasps the meaning of the facts which he records. His view of things is detached, wavering, and incoherent. His 'Ancien Régime' shows us a society falling to pieces from inherent faults; his 'France Moderne' implies, though it does not distinctly state, that modern French institutions have suffered irreparably by not being built on the foundations of the *ancien régime*.

Let us take two points as tests—they are simple and obvious ones—of Taine's capacity as a thinker. The first is the relation of Napoleon to the institutions of modern France. Napoleon, argues Taine, is the architect of France as it now exists; if we want to understand the work, we must examine the character of the workman. This is the plea under cover of which he introduces into his work an immense lot of more or less interesting anecdote or gossip about Napoleon. No plea was ever more specious or more unsound. It is only in a very modified sense true that any man, however powerful, can be called the architect of a country's institutions. Modern France, with all its apparent unlikeness to the *ancien régime*, is, in many points, the development of the social condition which preceded the Revolution. On this matter Tocqueville is a surer guide than Taine, and French public law betrays, even to a very superficial student, the influence of ideas at least as old as Louis XIV., and probably much older. But grant, for the sake of argument, that French society is a fabric built up by Napoleon. To know the genius of the architect is no doubt in this case of importance. Still, it is only with his views as a builder that we are concerned. We are not concerned with the pettinesses or irregularities of his private life. Napoleon's work is partially explained by his ideas of government; it receives no explanation at all from stories of Napoleon breaking chairs when he was angry, or of his suddenly interrupting a dinner to indulge in other pleasures than those of the table. Let us accept Taine's analogy: a student of St. Paul's may gain something from knowing the architectural theories of Wren, but an intelligent student of architecture would never care to know whether Wren habitually went to bed drunk or sober.

Our second point is the cut-and-dried theory which Taine applies as a criterion for testing the merits and demerits of the *régime moderne*. He takes a theory of ultra-individualism as if it were an established political axiom: he refers to Macaulay's essay, Gladstone on Church and State, and to Spencer's 'Man versus the State,' as works containing doctrine which is beyond question. Now, against Macaulay's brilliant essay as an incisive criticism on an unsound theory we have not a word to utter; but it were simply ridiculous to suppose either that Macaulay meant it as a complete statement of the relation between the individual and the State, or that it can be treated as anything like a complete solution of a question the answer to which is filled both with speculative and with practical difficulties. We are quite aware that Mr. Herbert Spencer has disciples who believe that their teacher has solved problems which have perplexed philosophers and statesmen. All that need here be said is, that the validity of Mr. Spencer's theories is a matter, to say the very least, open to discussion. It is difficult to believe that any thinker, not the sworn adherent of a school—which we find it difficult to believe is Taine's position—can seriously believe that the institutions of France can be fairly tested by their consonance with or dissonance from Spencerian theories, or that dicta as to the relation between the State and individuals can in any case go very far in helping us towards an answer to the most difficult of inquiries, namely, how much France has gained or lost by the change from the *ancien régime* to the modern condition of society.

Our critique of Taine will seem to many of our readers unjust. We admit that it is one-sided, for the object of this article is not to weigh M. Taine's merits as a collector of facts—which are very great—against his defects as an historian and a thinker, which, to our mind, are not inconsiderable, and then on a fair balance strike an estimate of his genius; but to point out what are the limits of his powers. Such an attempt must of necessity seem unfair because it is, as we have admitted, of necessity one-sided. In articles on the earlier parts of Taine's great work we have, we think, dealt fairly with its merits. His last volume is not his best; as he approaches present times the difficulty of his work increases. Of this he is well aware. "L'entreprise est hasardeuse, plus malaisée que les deux précédentes." These are his own words; none could more happily express the great, we had almost said insuperable, difficulty of his position. Whether in any case the idea of writing an historical criticism which was neither a complete history nor a complete critique of the development of France since the Revolution was a happy one, is open to doubt. That the perfectly satisfactory performance of the task Taine has undertaken requires on the part of the man who is to achieve it the highest qualities both of an historian and of a philosopher, is certain. That Taine has sometimes not risen intellectually to the height of the enterprise he has undertaken affords ground for criticism, but hardly for censure. His last volume, whatever its defects, abounds in interesting information. All that the severest critic can say is, that the industrious collection of interesting facts does not of itself suffice either for the creation of historical portraits or for the development of the philosophy of history.

MORE NOVELS.

The Beverleys. By Mary Abbott. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Boris Lensky. From the German of Ossip Schubin. Translated by Elise L. Lathrop. New York: Worthington Co.

Flute and Violin, and Other Kentucky Tales. By James Lane Allen. Harper & Bros.

Sidney. By Margaret Deland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Stories Told at Twilight. By Louise Chandler Moulton. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Brampton Sketches. By Mary B. Claflin. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

A Book o' Nine Tales. By Arlo Bates. Roberts Brothers.

Balaam and His Master, and Other Sketches and Stories. By Joel Chandler Harris. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Against Heavy Odds. By Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. Charles Scribner's Sons.

To have read 'Alexia' is to feel a kindly predisposition towards the successor of that charming little book. 'The Beverleys' has followed it, and it is perhaps unreasonable to be disappointed at missing in a novel the wild-rose perfume of the story. It is a novel clever in form and style, and in its portraits from Calcutta society. The moods and fascinations of the wild Irish girl and the labyrinths of her naughty heart are prettily described; there are pungent observations on men, women, and manners a plenty what more would one have? What, indeed, unless something more of coherence in the plan; something less of disagreeable than one finds in a father's playing rival to his son, to the point of intercepting his letters; something less of shiftiness in the point of attack

upon the reader's interest, and—since one always wishes to approve of the Queen of Hearts—a little less inducement, here and there, to side with her detractors.

'Boris Lensky' is the story of a Russian violinist whose art and person were so steeped in *diablerie* that his pathway was strewn with the wrecks of his lady victims. One of them his son would later have liked to marry, but she never succeeds in loving a second time, so that the son is reduced to loving her "undesiringly, as one does a saint or the dead." The daughter of the violin-player has a yet sadder fate in being betrayed by an Austrian Count. The one who could not love both father and son induces the Count to marry the young girl he has wronged, and every one appears quite satisfied—even the father, who, having fallen into deep musical degeneration, appears before the public in a swan-like burst of more than his original power, and dies. If the story was intended to be a musical story, more music would have been in order; if a German 'Anna Karénina,' more power was needed throughout. There is, indeed, a certain force in the story of the young girl who slips through paths of simple unconventionality down to her doom, and, as well, in those pages where she plans her own death. The rest is an attempt at strength, not strong, and one asks why all this mud for nothing? The book is very poorly translated, and the illustrations are both weak in themselves and utterly out of place in a society novel of the calibre of this one.

It is with something akin to a sigh, nowadays, that one opens a new volume of tales of any section of our country, feeling that every State has bubbled with historians, and that every hue of "local color" has been offered us to admire, till the senses are weary. But Mr. James Lane Allen's book of Kentucky stories shows that any such jaded criticism is all wrong; that there was an imaginative height and a poetic depth to be touched which no previous hand had reached in this class of historic fiction, and which, indeed, puts these stories beyond the limits of local literature—as far as 'Zenobia' is beyond being a mere chronicle of Brook Farm. To read them, particularly the one called "Posthumous Fame," is to think of Hawthorne, and to recognize a poet spirit in this writer, whose occasional flights into the tropics of language do not prevent his being a rare teller of rare stories.

It seems to be Mrs. Deland's literary mission to create a highly unusual religious puzzle, and worry a way through it with a cleverness in pen-work and a fineness of observation that might better be put to better use. Mortimer Lee's conviction that because death is, marriage should not be, occasions his daughter Sidney a great deal of sorrow, and himself still more when she elects to marry at all hazards. It is quite impossible to infuse any great amount of reality into this moral tangle, and consequently the solution has little effect upon the sympathies. It may therefore be called an unsuccessful novel, so far as the main issue is concerned, albeit, as in 'John Ward,' there is some able side-work furnished.

We have not discovered any particular harm in Mrs. Moulton's stories for girls, except that it seems hardly worth while to advise them to nurse scarlet-fever and typhoid cases among their friends on the chance of working faith cures. We might, further, perhaps complain of a sense of monotony in the repeated appearance of the rich young girl who makes friends with the poor young girl in the opposite window, and who gives her first flowers, then drawing lessons. This young person is saved from being too angelic by touches like this: "Her hair . . . was like a halo about her forehead—a fine, fluffy, radiant halo, which meant hairpins over night, to be sure, but was none the less beautiful." This note of the human hairpin is exquisitely real, and should make fully half the world kin. The stories in other respects recall yet another line of Shakspere: "Oh! so soft, oh! so sweet!" are they.

'Brampton Sketches' tell of New England life in a village of the interior, eighty years ago, which has, as their author claims, a flavor quite distinct from the coast life of the same period. The concerns are more of indoors and of the intimately domestic—not of women who sadly await their fishermen from the hungry sea, but of men who meekly stand from under when their wives are making "sass." Gossip is lighter, views of life less sombre, pleasures more frequent, the horizon gayer, but more narrow. Readers of 'Agnes Surriage' will be interested in this closer view of the village where the fair Agnes was enthroned by her baronet, and in the gentle drolleries of the villagers, of the minister in particular. The art is photography, pure and simple, but the modest preface has already disclaimed any higher flight, and all that it promises is tastefully fulfilled.

Mr. Bates's little volume of stories ranges for subjects from hypnotism to the most beruffled young girls of the period. On the whole, we think his deepest ventures are his best, and that his psychic-research stories are more cleverly done than his society pictures. A delicate brightness marks them all, a refined inventiveness, and an expert style. We venture meekly to suggest that a proof-reader who should not permit a ride in New York in a "Fifth Avenue car on the elevated road," would contribute to the local color.

Mr. Harris's negroes are next in vitality to Nature's, and it is only with hers that it could occur to the critic to compare his. The dialect brings the very break of their voices to the reader's ear, and no one else has put such a detaining finger on their phrases. The present stories are mainly of war and reconstruction times, and, whether of blacks or whites, are penetrated with the spirit of those terrible days as few Southern stories are, the more because of the humor that plays around the horrors like a child among graves.

In 'Against Heavy Odds' Prof. Boyesen has made a felicitous return to Norse shores, and given an entertaining boy's story of a remarkable invention in harpoon-guns by which his youthful hero reconstructs whale-fishing and redeems his town, yes, even his country. That it reads something like a fairy story of the machine-shop, and that young Ingomar figures both as a Siegfried to whom Nature yields her secrets, and as a Conqueror before whom baronets and mobs alike bow down, may affect the probability of the story, but, for boy readers certainly, not its interest.

Early Days Recalled. By Janet Ross. London: Chapman & Hall. 1891.

THIS is an agreeable light volume of reminiscences, which, without adding much to the anecdotes of either literature or society, succeeds in giving the pleasantest impression of the social life of a distinguished group, and some aspects of private character in individuals which one is glad to get even a glimpse of. The author is the daughter of Sir Alexander and Lady Duff Gordon, and on her mother's side the grandchild of Mr. John Austin and his remarkable wife, Mrs. Austin, the friend of Carlyle and many other celebrated men. In her parents' town house and in their suburban place, nicknamed "The Gordon Arms," the child saw much of the best society, and was herself enough of a favorite to have many pretty things to tell of the attentions of great men to her small self. Her opportunities may be judged by a list of the guests whom she herself invited as her friends to one of her birthday parties—certainly, as she says, a remarkable company to gather at a child's summons; for in it were numbered Mrs. Norton, Lord Lansdowne, Tom Taylor, C. J. Bayley, Richard Doyle, and Thackeray. On this occasion Thackeray brought her an oyster for a present, and told her it was like cabinet pudding. She was bright enough to turn the tables by liking it and asking for more. He was a friend of the house, as was Dickens also, and often came in to dinner, sending a warning in verse. To this habit we owe the lines—"A nice leg of mutton, my Lucie"—"Lucie" being the name by which Lady Duff Gordon was called by her intimates. Carlyle was also a visitor, the only one whom the child cordially disliked. One day, when her mother was talking of German literature and overbore Carlyle with her animation, he lost his temper and burst out, "You're just a windbag, Lucie, you're just a windbag," on which the child, who had been listening with all her ears and was shocked by what she thought rudeness, interrupted the two, saying, "My papa always says men should be civil to women." Of course she was scolded for her pertness, but Carlyle only said goodhumoredly, "That child of yours has an eye for an inference, Lucie."

She was very fond of going with her father and mother to Rogers's Sunday morning breakfasts. He liked to have her brought in at dessert, and called her his "baby-love," and he kept a bunch of grapes for her, which she ate seated on a chair and two sofa cushions by his side. The highest praise she could think of for a grand Twelfth-Night party at Lionel de Rothschild's was, "It is *almost* as nice as Mr. Rogers's breakfasts." One day he puzzled her by saying, "Prose you will certainly write well—it's in your blood." Another time, seeing her stare into vacancy, he patted her on the head and asked what she was thinking about. "'Which is the most beautiful, mamma or Aunt Carry?' I answered. 'Ah, baby-love, that would puzzle older heads than yours,' said he, chuckling." (Mrs. Norton was "Aunt Carry.") She compliments Macaulay on his kindness to children. When she learned he was in the house, she would go and climb on his knee and say, "Now talk!" But these anecdotes, simple as they are and pleasant to linger over, are far from illustrating the whole little volume.

Of the more important characters of the time who come in for mention, and always in a most familiar and natural way, the most notable are Kinglake and Layard, John and Charles Austin, Barthélemy St. Hilaire, Guizot, Cousin, De Lesseps, Sir George C. Lewis, Eliot Warburton, Sir Francis B. Head, Lord Clanricarde, Lord Lansdowne, and some of the French royal family. The reminiscence of most of these is very slight, but it is put in the way of conversation, and entertains the reader more than memoirs of a perhaps more valuable sort. The passages about Kinglake and Layard are especially pleasing. The latter first appears on the scene with Lord Somers, who calls up to the young lady sitting in the bough of a mulberry tree on the lawn: "Come down, Janet, directly; here is the man who dug up those big beasts you saw in the

museum, and his name is Mr. Bull." Layard consequently signs his letters with this nickname, by which he was for many years called by his young and old friends. There is a good story of Lady Duff Gordon's seeing Kinglake come into the back drawing-room as she and her daughter were playing with a pet mouse; she was sure she saw him, spoke, and had the room searched, but he was, in fact, off on his travels. The hour and minute were written down, but Kinglake had no adventure to tell of it when he came back. "'Ah, Eothen,' we often said, 'you spoiled such a good ghost story by coming back with your full complement of arms and legs.'"

An anecdote of Mr. Nassau Senior will serve as an example of the conversational tone of these reminiscences, and of the sort of thing to be found in them, like plums. Mr. Senior was very indifferent to music, and once at Bowood "Tommy Moore" was induced to sing to a large party. "All prepared to listen to the charming performance save Mr. Senior, who went and sat down at a small table, and began to write with a quill pen on Lord Lansdowne's very ribbed paper. He was compiling an article on statistics, or something of that sort. Moore began, but his singing was rendered impossible by the persistent scratch, scratch, and he looked round to see who caused the odious noise. Mr. Senior raised his head and said innocently: 'Oh, you don't disturb me, I assure you; pray go on—I rather like it'—which caused an outburst of laughter absolutely puzzling to the unconscious statistician." Apropos of this the author relates how Vivier's "inimitable performances" came to an end in London because at the first one Lord Houghton blew his nose—"a war-trumpet, as friends will remember." Vivier threw up all his engagements at once. "'Ah,' he would say, 'les Anglais ont des nez terribles; celà vous fait l'effet du jugement dernier.'"

But we must bring our citations to an end; only it should be added that the author is a keen lover of horses and riding, and has a good deal to tell of her hunting and racing, and always writes of this topic with zest. She married and went to Egypt, and with recollections of her life there the volume comes to an end too soon. There is nothing very important in the story, but it is extremely entertaining to such as care for pleasant personal talk about very amiable and bright people, or merely the gossip of celebrated names. There is, too, a certain feminine charm in the easy-flowing style, a sense of womanly beauty and brilliancy throughout, which give a spirit to the whole.

The Flowers of Japan and the Art of Floral Arrangement. By Josiah Conder, F.R.I.B.A., Architect to the Imperial Japanese Government. With illustrations by Japanese artists. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh; London: Sampson Low & Co. 4to. 1891.

FOR four hundred years Japan, foremost of nations in the development of the principles of courtesy and social formality, practised assiduously three arts which, with one exception in recent times, have not had their counterpart in the West. The art of tea-drinking (standing for the broader art of social intercourse), the art of gardening, and that of flower arrangement first received systematic development at the same epoch and in union with one another. As painting was in its origin mere decoration, so flower arrangement and gardening were regarded originally as worthy of special attention because of the part they played in embellishing and setting off the tea ceremony, which was to Japanese feudal society what the *levée* and the *salon* were to the France of the last two centuries. The tea ceremony has gradually come to be the accomplishment of a few antiquaries only; but the arrangement of flowers is an art which still preserves its vitality undiminished.

The reason is that it has its roots in the peculiar æsthetic qualities of the nation. It is a trite remark that Japanese pictorial art is essentially linear. The same quality finds a particularly suitable expression and a most congenial field in that grouping of flowers, branches, and leaves which concerns the characteristic art under notice. Its fundamental principles of contour, direction, and proportion receive merely a broader and freer exemplification in the kindred art of gardening. Mixed with the artistic aspect of these rules is the symbolism which insists on attributing a moral significance to certain elements and the various modes of disposing them. Half-way between these moral and artistic considerations stand others which require the ways of Nature to be studied and observed in all artificial treatment of natural objects. The symbolism we of the West may reject, but the canon which requires that Nature shall never be violated and shall, if possible, always be represented or called to mind, is a fundamental principle which will always make the art a living one. This and the general æsthetic principle of variety in unity, without symmetry, are the great gifts of Japan to us in this department, and it is now made possible for us to study the lesson to good purpose.

For Mr. Conder it is a chosen field. In 1886 the Asiatic Society of Japan printed his 'Art of Landscape Gardening in Japan,' and in 1889 his 'Theory of Japanese Flower Arrangements'; and the book now before us is but an adaptation of the latter essay to the needs of foreign readers. He has shown good judgment in the rearrangement of topics, and in eliminating and enlarging where it was necessary for readers not resident in Japan. The chief addition consists of a general preface on the flowers of Japan, the customs and anecdotes connected with them, and the famous places for viewing them. Fifty-four full-page plates and twenty-six smaller cuts make it as easy as anything short of ocular demonstration could do for the learner to acquire practical skill in the art.

As to the art itself, we wish that there were space enough to set forth the attractions which it ought to offer to lovers of beautiful homes. It ought to become not merely a fashionable fad, but a recognized factor in ordinary domestic adornment. It is perfectly adaptable to our own flowers and our own rooms, for the room plays no small part in the ensemble. Everything bearing on the general effect must be considered—direction and proportion, first of all, then season, color, vessel, position in the room, and many other subordinate matters. The wonderful variety of vases and wicker vessels described by Mr. Conder would alone make a notable addition to our domestic furniture and decoration; and there is little which could not be easily reproduced and adapted. The influence which would be exercised towards simplicity, directness, carefulness, love of small things, interest in the ordinary and unpretentious, and against profusion, extravagance, ambition to rival others, exaltation of the rare and unattainable, would be not the least benefit that might result. It is a pity that Mr. Conder could not have embodied in the same volume the essentials of his essay on Japanese gardening, for it is probable that they would have found a quicker acceptance and trial, and would appeal to us more effectively than the floral art. To see a Japanese garden is to love it. As a part of the home, it has a much closer relation to the householder than our type can possibly have. But until we learn as a people to make more of Nature and her ways, to delight, as the Japanese do, in moulding miniature gardens in earthen dishes, to buy inch-high trees for playthings, to spend our holidays only where the finest blossoms are to be found, to give up our sidewalks three times a month to flower markets, to front our homes upon quiet gardens instead of on noisy streets, and to care for form more and for color less—until we change our nature, can we expect to find real attraction in the arrangement of a few flowers or in the composition of a garden?

It remains to add that the volume before us is a generous folio, handsomely printed, and embellished with a large number of interesting illustrations in color prepared expressly by native artists. These include a number of interiors, and it is no mean praise of the work to say that it deserves a place (as being supplementary) beside Mr. Morse's 'Japanese Homes.'

Life and Works of Horace Mann. 5 vols. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1891.

FROM the preface, which is bound up with vol. ii., we learn that this edition, in the main a reissue after many years, is "in response to a continuing demand for Mr. Mann's educational writings." In fact, apart from the Life by his widow, these volumes show only the educator in Horace Mann. Lectures and addresses, and the twelve annual school reports, with extracts from editorial articles in the *Common-School Journal*, are all devoted to a single theme. Historically, the compilation merits a place in the library of every institution of learning, and its present utility cannot be doubted in spite of Mr. Mann's prolixity and old-fashioned point of view. For example, his remarks on co-education in his inaugural address at Antioch College are full of sound sense. So, in his twelfth report as Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, his argument against sectarian religious instruction in the schools is inexpugnable, though he held fast to the compulsory reading of the Bible in the schools, and seemed to pity the committeeman who assigned as a reason for excluding the Scriptures in his district the fact that "they are not calculated for a school-book: the style and phraseology are too difficult to be read." Of course, he had still less toleration for the committeeman who reported, as to the Testament, that "objections have been raised against it by some teachers, on account of many of the verses not ending with a full stop."

Mr. Mann's faith in the Bible was sufficiently robust to suit the most orthodox, and, coupled with his faith in phrenology (his present editor is George Combe Mann), it led him into some extraordinary trains of thought. In the address already cited, he held it "to be morally impossible for God to have created, in the beginning, such men and women as we find the human race, in their physical condition, now to be." He appealed to the records of the book of Genesis, "which contains the earliest annals of the human family." For the first 2369 years "not a single instance is recorded of a child born blind, or deaf, or dumb, or idiotic, or malformed in any way! . . . Not one man or woman died of disease. . . . No cholera infantum, scarlatina, measles,

smallpox—not even a toothache! So extraordinary a thing was it for a son to die before his father that an instance of it is deemed worthy of special notice."

In contending (Report for 1846) for State education, he offers a test of the validity of his reasoning which he thinks "defies denial or evasion," namely:

"We prohibit infanticide under penalty of death. We practise a refinement in this particular: the life of an infant is inviolable even before he is born. . . . But why preserve the natural life of a child, why preserve unborn embryos of life, if we do not intend to watch over and to protect them, and to expand their subsequent existence into usefulness and happiness? . . . We are brought, then, to this startling but inevitable alternative—the natural life of an infant should be extinguished as soon as it is born, or the means should be provided to save that life from being a curse to its possessor; and, therefore, every State is morally bound to enact a code of laws legalizing and enforcing infanticide, or a code of laws establishing free schools."

We commend this dilemma to our Socialist friends, that they may supply the second term to suit themselves.

These volumes suggest many reflections not intended to be aroused, and it would be easy to comment further upon them. We close with remarking that as far back as July, 1848, the Irish immigration had so affected the population of Boston that in the primary schools more than half the ten thousand children were of foreign parentage.

Principles of Political Economy. By Arthur Latham Perry, LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THIS is not, as might easily be supposed, a new edition of Prof. Perry's 'Political Economy'—of which, by the way, twenty-one editions have been published—but a newly constructed book. The author desired to leave behind him a manual which should contain a fuller exposition of the principles of the science, and less historical matter, while he sought to emphasize the application of these principles to some of the pernicious legislation from which we are now suffering and are likely to suffer. In substance, however, the books are similar, and we observe few references in the volume before us to recent contributions to the science; the names of Cairnes, Rogers, Sidgwick, and Marshall not being mentioned. In fact, most modern researches would be, in the author's opinion, irrelevant, owing to the restricted view which he takes of the science. While there is much to be said in favor of limiting the range of economic inquiries, as necessary to preserve their definiteness, it cannot be denied that a system which disposes of the theory of rent by insisting upon a particular definition of value, and which relegates the doctrine of Malthus to the domain of physiology, is too narrow to be altogether satisfactory.

At the same time it is quite possible to construct a political economy, as the author has done, which shall have a merit of its own in making prominent a few highly important truths. By confining attention to the matter of buying and selling as the proper subject of the science, it becomes easy to explode some common fallacies. Since two parties are necessary to an exchange, the principle of diversity of advantages is disclosed at once, and with it the whole theory of trade. Again, as it scarcely admits of denial that the motive in buying and selling is gain, the consequence is easily deduced that Government is not properly constituted for engaging in such transactions. As to the constitutional argument against protection, however, we fear that the last legal-tender decision has rendered it futile.

In spite of the title of the book, we apprehend that for most persons its chief interest will be in its practical applications. There is a profusion of anecdote and quotation, much of which is effective and most of which is entertaining. The historical element is still prominent, and current events are considered in their bearing upon the principles laid down. The style is animated and often colloquial, and it is impossible not to be struck with the vigor with which the author maintains his propositions. While most economists would differ radically with him on many points, it is quite probable that the general good sense of his conclusions will make his book useful to readers who are not prepared to undertake abstruse investigations, and in this way a large class of citizens will be put in possession of a great deal of information which they require for the proper discharge of their political duties. We could easily prolong our comments, but Prof. Perry's books are too well known to the public to require any extended notice from us.

A Student's History of England from the Earliest Times to 1885. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner. Vol. I., B. C. 55—A. D. 1509. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. xxxii+378.

EVERY teacher of English history has reason to rejoice that the historian of the Stuart reigns has found time to write an extended general treatise for the use of schools. So long as text-books are a necessity, there is an obvious advantage in having the guidance of a master. Besides, for other reasons, we have really needed a book such as Prof. Gardiner has given us, one somewhat fuller in details and better provided with aids to study than is Green's 'Short History,' the only work which is at all likely to prove a serious rival. There are, however, no maps in the 'Student's History'; and it is to be regretted that the valuable reference-lists were not greatly extended. No opportunity should be lost to lead even the young student beyond the narrow horizon of the text into the greater world of the library. The genealogical tables are excellent. Particularly is this true of the twenty-one special tables, placed in their proper connections throughout the book, and carefully designed to aid the pupil where he most needs such assistance.

A unique feature consists of the very numerous illustrations. These have been prepared under the direction of Mr. St. John Hope, Secretary to the Society of Antiquaries, and they throw light on almost every phase of English life in all ages. Among others we find representations of domestic furniture, costume, armor, historic events, architecture, agricultural processes, and of various articles of manufacture, from the rude flint scraper of the river-drift to the ship of the fifteenth century. Never, perhaps, in such a treatise, has pictorial illustration been used with so good effect. The alert teacher will find here ample material for useful lessons by leading the pupil to draw the proper inferences and make the proper interpretations and comparisons.

The author writes for "such students as have already an elementary knowledge of the main facts of English history," and aims at meeting their needs by the use of plain language, and by the avoidance of multiplicity of details. In the accomplishment of this purpose he has been fairly successful, though we cannot give him unqualified praise. Any affectation of simplicity of diction, of childlike phrase, in a work of this grade is out of place. It leads to vague generalization. Educators are beginning to realize more and more that the young student of history requires much stronger meat than is usually set before him. His mind should be lifted up, his faculties put upon the strain, his aspirations aroused. Clearness of style and careful analysis are indeed essential; but to substitute general descriptions for exact terms, especially in the treatment of institutions, is to rob the subject of much of its scientific value. The remarkable success with which good teachers have been able to use Green's 'Short History,' even in the grammar school, is due largely to its dignified and suggestive style, constantly inviting and stimulating the best thought of both pupil and instructor. Prof. Gardiner's offence is not serious in this regard, and it is noticeable, perhaps, only in the opening chapters. Yet one cannot help regretting that he did not employ consistently the natural and fascinating manner which lends such a charm to his 'Thirty Years' War' and the 'Puritan Revolution.'

The present volume is divided into four parts: (1.) England before the Norman Conquest; (2.) The Norman and Angevin Kings; (3.) The Growth of the Parliamentary Constitution, 1199–1399; (4.) Lancaster, York, and Tudor, 1399–1509. The first division, consisting of six chapters, opens with an introductory account of ancient Britain. The characteristics of palæolithic, neolithic, and Celtic man are tersely described. The discussion of the English settlements, the strife of the early kingdoms, and the growth of the West Saxon and Danish monarchies, is clear and well arranged. Still this first part is, on the whole, the least successful division of the book. The treatment of institutions, in particular, lacks fulness and precision. Practically nothing of value is given as to the government of Roman provincial towns; and, considering the wealth of recent literature relating to the subject, the old English constitution receives scarcely the careful attention which it deserves. For example, some of the statements regarding the gesiths may prove misleading. It is not strictly accurate to say that the gesiths in their relation to the ceorls "were called eorls or men of noble descent"; or that the name gesiths "was abandoned for that of thegns, or servants, when they—as was soon the case—ceased to live with their chief and had houses and lands of their own, though they were still bound to military service." As a class, the gesiths—if they existed in England from the beginning—were not identical with the eorls. True, in many cases, it is natural to suppose that "they were probably all of them eorls." But nobility by service, as such, is opposed to nobility by blood. Theoretically, the *comitatus* of the chief, like the chief himself, was originally chosen solely on account of valor or military skill. Nor is it clear that the gesiths were superseded directly by the thegns. For a time, at least, as Konrad Maurer has shown, gesiths and thegns coexisted as distinct classes. Moreover, the name *thegn* does not mean "servant," as suggested, but "warrior."

The remaining three parts, constituting the body of the volume, are admirably well done. The political and institutional development is given due prominence. The style is compact, vigorous, and interesting. There is no lack of precision; and in the selection of the details the hand of a scholar thoroughly conversant with the sources and with the results of recent criticism is plainly revealed. It is a little surprising, however, to find the author seemingly

repeating the old error respecting the merchant gild. Speaking of the first borough charters, he declares that "in all these instances the governing body acknowledged by the charter was the merchant gild. It, to the exclusion of the townsmen who were not admitted to it, received authority to regulate trade to its own advantage, to choose officers, the principal officer being usually styled an alderman, with power to keep order and generally to provide for the well-being of the place." In practice, of course, the gild through its influence may usually have controlled the affairs of the borough. But, since the appearance in 1883 of Dr. Gross's 'Gilda Mercatoria,' recently expanded into his larger treatise, it may be regarded as definitively settled that the gild organization and the governing body of the town were in theory entirely distinct.

But whatever imperfections may be pointed out in Prof. Gardiner's book will not detract materially from its value. It is destined to take its place, we feel sure, as the leading text-book in general English history.

Taxidermy and Zoölogical Collecting: A Complete Handbook for the Amateur Taxidermist, Collector, Osteologist, Museum-builder, Sportsman, and Traveller. By William T. Hornaday. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. 362. Illustrated.

THE fact that Mr. Hornaday has retired may in part account for the readiness with which he gives out what by fellows of the craft are held as professional secrets. How such an enthusiast in the business could decide to retire is an unanswered question, unless, perhaps, it was a consequence of his exasperating experiences with rays and sharks, "the meanest of all subjects that vex the soul of the taxidermist." His book is a bulky, profusely illustrated volume, the contents of which, though in the main relating to results of his own labors or those of his comrades, give information on the majority of the topics by which it is demanded for either professionals or amateurs. The text is written in a lively style, and, aided by the numerous diagrams, conveys very clear ideas of the different devices and modes of procedure. A number of the cuts are drawn from single pieces or groups, of national renown, in the production of which the author has fully established his claim to rank as a master in his art.

The book is thoroughly modern; because of this, certain methods of manipulation, and receipts for special processes, as removal of stains, grease, etc., no longer appear as they did in older works. In regard to the collection and preparation of skins and skeletons, and in the instructions for mounting, the volume is most satisfactory. The section devoted to insects is admirable. Marine collectors will regret that several pages, with cuts of drags, tow nets, tangles, and grapples, were not added for their benefit. There is also reason to wish the proof-reader had been a little more wakeful.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Dead Man's Diary. New York: W. D. Rowland.
Buckbee, Sarah E. A Primary Word Book. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Colvin, Sidney. Letters of John Keats to his Family and Friends. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Conder, Prof. J. The Flowers of Japan and the Art of Floral Arrangement. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh; London: Sampson Low & Co.
Cook, William. The Corporation Problem. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Delpit, Albert. Her Sister's Rival. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Durand, A. M. Cosia, et le Royaume du Dahomey. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Esclangon, A. Récits d'Histoire de France. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof. 75 cents.
Farjeon, B. L. Ties—Human and Divine. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Foster, Prof. M. A. A Text-Book of Physiology. Fifth Edition. Part IV. Macmillan & Co.
Flügel, F. English-German and German-English Dictionary. Parts 5—7. B. Westermann & Co.
Gibbins, H. de B. The History of Commerce in Europe. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Gordon, Julien. A Puritan Pagan. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Haidheim, L. Wife and Woman. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Hancock, A. U. Old Abraham Jackson. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.
Hardy, Thomas. A Group of Noble Dames. Harper & Bros.
Hawthorne, Julian, and Lemmon, Leonard. American Literature: An Elementary Text-Book. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Heimburg, W. An Insignificant Woman. Robert Bonner's Sons.
Heimburg, W. Misjudged. Worthington Co.
Ireland, Mrs. Alexander. Life of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Janvier, T. A. The Uncle of an Angel, and Other Stories. Harper & Bros.
Johnson, Rev. J. B. Things Present and Things to Come. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Jones, D. A. The Business Corporation Law. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 75 cents.
Kielland, Alexander. Tales of Two Countries. Harper & Bros. $1.
Kimball, J. C. Zoölogy as Related to Evolution. D. Appleton & Co. 10 cents.
Kinglake, A. W. Eothen. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Koop, August. English Idioms with their German Equivalents. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof. 90 cents.
Landor, W. S. Imaginary Conversations. Vol. I. London: J. M. Dent & Co. $1.25.
Lightfoot, J. B. The Apostolic Fathers. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Ludlum, Jean K. Under a Cloud. Robert Bonner's Sons.
Lumby, Rev. J. R. II Kings. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Lyall, Sir Alfred. Natural Religion in India. Macmillan & Co.
Macalpine, Avery. A Man's Conscience. Harper & Bros.
Macfarlane, Dr. A. W. Insomnia and its Therapeutics. William Wood & Co. $1.75.
Marshall, Prof. A. Principles of Economics. Vol. I. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Martineau, James. Types of Ethical Theory. 3d ed., revised. Macmillan & Co. $2.60.
Maupassant, Guy de. Contes et Nouvelles. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Mayhew, A. L. Synopsis of Old English Phonology. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
McRealsham, E. D. Romans Dissected. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
McQueary, Rev. Howard. Ecclesiastical Liberty. United States Book Co.
Molière, J. B. P. Les Précieuses Ridicules. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.
Ohnet, G. A Debt of Hatred. Translated by E. P. Robbins. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Oliphant, Mrs. The Heir Presumptive and the Heir Apparent. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Overland Monthly. Jan.—June, 1891. San Francisco: The *Overland Monthly* Publishing Co.
Pennell, Joseph and Elizabeth R. The Stream of Pleasure. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Peters, Dr. Carl. New Light on Dark Africa. Ward Lock & Co.
Peterman, A. L. Elements of Civil Government. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Plummer, Rev. A. St. John. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Pool, Miss Maria L. Dally. Harper & Bros.
Purves, John. The Iliad of Homer Translated into English Prose. London: Percival & Co.
Ratzel, Prof. F. Anthropogeographie. Zweiter Teil: die Geographische Verbreitung des Menschen. Stuttgart: J. Engelhorn.
Riccardo, F. English and Italian Dialogues. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof. 60 cents.
Russell, G. W. E. William Ewart Gladstone. Harper & Bros.
Sanborn, Miss Kate. Adopting an Abandoned Farm. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Seawell, Miss M. E. Maid Marian, and Other Stories. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Snider, D. J. Homer in Chios. St. Louis: Sigma Publishing Co.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America. Vol. IX. London: B. F. Stevens.
St. John, Mrs. C. M. Wordsworth for the Young. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Stockton, Frank R. The Late Mrs. Null. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica. By Members of the University of Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Thornton, W. Origin, Purpose and Destiny of Man. Boston: The Author. $1.25.
The Critic. Jan.–June, 1891. The *Critic* Co.
Wight, E. H. Passion Flowers and the Cross. Baltimore: Calendar Publishing Co.
Wilcox, Mrs. Ella W. How Salvator Won, and Other Recitations. New York: Edgar S. Werner. 50 cents.
Wilkinson, W. C. The Epic of Saul. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.50.
Wilson, G. H. The Musical Year-book of the United States. Vol. VIII. Worcester, Mass.: Charles Hamilton. $1.
Wilson, I. McC. The Fate of the Leaf. Baltimore: Cushing & Co. $1.
Wordsworth, Elizabeth. William Wordsworth. London: Percival & Co.
Wright, W. A. The Works of William Shakespeare. Vol. III. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Wulling, F. J. The Evolution of Botany. D. Appleton & Co. 10 cents.
Ziegler, C. C. Drauss un Deheem. Leipzig: Hesse & Becker.

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Schools.

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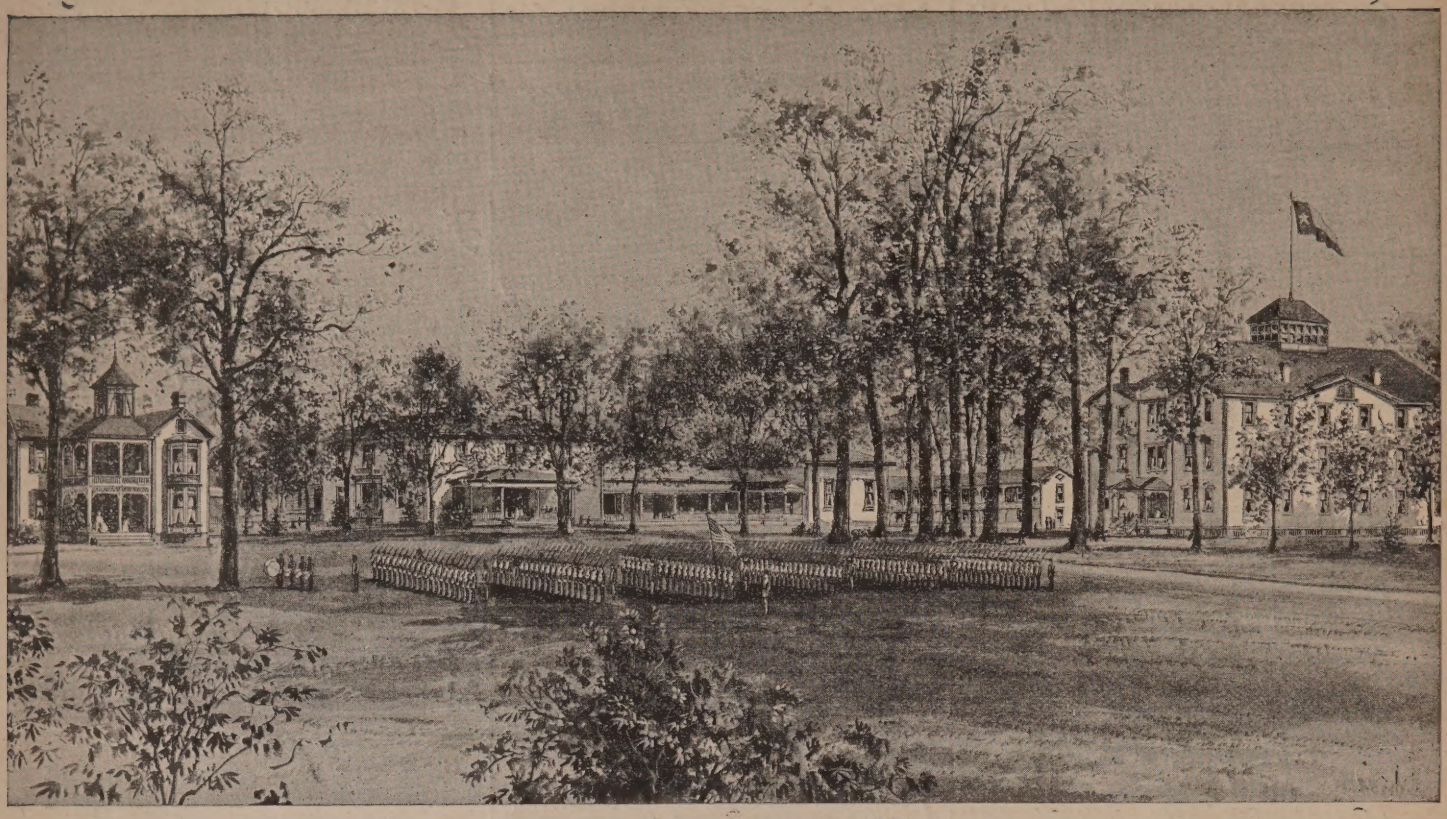
[*Alphabetical List of Schools continued on page vi.*]

Schools. | *Schools.* | *Schools.*



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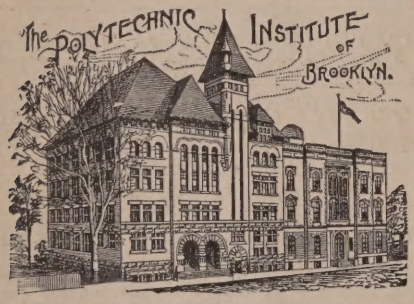

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 13, 1891.

The Week.

SENATOR Sherman is picking his way over the stones in Ohio in his usual circumspect manner. He has written a letter to the Urbana *Citizen* to define his position on the McKinley tariff. We print the essential part of it in juxtaposition with what he said in the Senate concerning a much lower tariff than that of McKinley:

SHERMAN ON THE M'KINLEY TARIFF.

The policy of a nation upon economic questions should be fixed and stable. The McKinley law as now framed, though it may be open to criticism as to details, is a strictly protective measure, fair and just as applied to all industries, with ample provisions to secure reciprocity in the exchange of domestic productions for articles we cannot produce. It ought to be thoroughly tested by the experience of several years. It is not good policy to disturb it or keep the public mind in suspense about it. It will, as I think, demonstrate its wisdom, but if not, with the light of experience, it can be modified. The highest policy and the greatest good to our people lie in the full trial of this effort to establish upon a firm foundation the domestic production of every article essential to American life and independence.

SHERMAN ON THE TARIFF BILL OF 1872.

It must be remembered that the present duties, taken together, are far in excess of what they were before the war, and that they have been three times largely increased since the passage of the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861. . . . The result of such duties is to secure to mechanical industries higher wages than can be earned in other kindred employments. Such excessive protection not only ceases to diversify production, but forces labor into protected employments. If the present rates of duty were high enough during and since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then surely they are now too high when all these taxes are removed.

The falling off in dutiable imports during the first nine months of the operation of the McKinley Bill is given by the Bureau of Statistics as $55,543,692. These figures, while no doubt correct, are yet misleading in one important particular. We refer to the extra amount of tin plate imported in the period in question, in order to anticipate the increased duty going into effect July 1. A high English authority estimates the sales of Welsh tin plate to American purchasers since last October at $10,000,000 above the average sales for a similar length of time in foregoing years. This estimate falls in very well with the Treasury returns of the imports of tin plate for the eleven months ending May 31, as compared with the same part of the preceding year, which show an increase in the former period of $10,100,000. Thus it is perfectly clear that in the future, now that the McKinley tax on tin plate is actually in force, another $10,000,000 should be knocked off our importations, making the total falling off more than $65,600,000. This ought to mean an extra $10,000,000 worth of happiness to the McKinley organs, but it will not. Their chorus of delight at finding the total of imports actually increased under the new tariff shows that they do not really believe in their own professions, and were in great alarm lest the Republican party should have to bear the odium of having contracted the nation's foreign commerce. Moreover, deep down in their hearts they are quaking for fear they will have to enter the next campaign with the burden of a Treasury deficit on their backs, and would secretly be glad to see the dutiable imports mount up to any figure if only the gaps made in the Treasury by extravagant legislation could be filled.

The Republican Club Convention at Syracuse had very little excuse for being, its sum total of achievement having been the passage of a set of resolutions which are in part perfunctory and in part unintelligible. The perfunctory parts are the endorsement of the Administration of President Harrison (no separate mention of Blaine); approval of the doctrine of protection to American labor (no separate mention of the McKinley Bill); approval of "a fair ballot and a fair count" (no separate mention of the Force Bill); approval of judicious and liberal pension laws (no special mention of any bill). The unintelligible part is the demand for "a bimetallic currency based on sound financial principles that will protect the producer and consumer."

An interview with Senator Carlisle is published by the Philadelphia *Ledger* in which he expresses the opinion that the incoming Congress will pass a free-coinage bill, and that President Harrison will be greatly embarrassed by it. The Senator may be right in his conception of the action of Congress, but he is very much "out" if he thinks that President Harrison would be embarrassed by the passage of a free-coinage bill. On the contrary, the opportunity of vetoing such a bill would be welcomed by him with avidity, since it would change the issue upon which the Republicans were so tremendously thrashed last fall. Anything which promises a change is pat to his hand. It does not make much difference what the change is. No political disaster could be worse than that which the McKinley tariff brought upon the party. Therefore any change will be welcomed, especially a change which brings with it some moral character, an element in which the party has been much lacking of late. To veto a bill which looks to depreciation of the currency and to cheating creditors, would be an act of moral elevation that would attract thousands of voters who are not now friendly to Mr. Harrison or to his party. The embarrassment would be very much on the other side.

The *Financial Chronicle* makes an analysis of the Treasury statements for August 1. These show a net gain of $1,986,273 in the Government's holdings of cash in subtreasuries and in national banks during the month. But on the other hand the disbursements for interest in July were about $4,000,000 less than normal, owing to Secretary Windom's prepayment of the same. In other words, if things had run on in the customary way, the August statement would have shown a loss of about $2,000,000 in cash holdings. The *Chronicle* goes on to show that since the 1st of January there has been a shrinkage of $31,000,000 in the public revenues, while the expenditures for the same period have increased $36,385,000. It should be added that the maturing 4½ per cent. bonds are due on the 1st of September, and that there are about $29,000,000 of those bonds still to be accounted for. The holders of that amount have not yet signified their wish for an extension at 2 per cent. There are good reasons to believe that most of these bonds will be presented for payment. One reason for thinking so is that the money can be used at better rates than 2 per cent. Another reason is, that if the holders take their pay now, they will get it in gold, whereas it is just possible that they may get it in silver if they wait. If twenty millions should be called for on the 1st of September, the Secretary's gold balance would perhaps be cut down to the $100,000,000 constituting the greenback-redemption fund. Anticipating this approach to the $100,000,000 fund, the Philadelphia *Press* of August 8 has an editorial article urging Secretary Foster to make a declaration beforehand that he will sell bonds to recoup his gold reserve if necessary. This article derives considerable weight from the paper's semi-official relations to the Administration.

The statements given out by the Treasury officers regarding the effect of the bond-extension policy on national-bank circulation are extremely misleading. It would appear from these interviews that the banks are expanding their circulation rapidly by use of the new 2 per cents; yet the regular official bulletins show nothing of the kind. On the first of July the Treasury circular reported $22,638,450 of the 4½ per cents held as a basis for bank circulation. On the first of August the same account showed $16,772,650 of the 4½s, and $5,942,950 of the 2 per cents; a total of $22,715,600, or less than $80,000 increase for the whole country. Even this small increase, moreover, was offset by a decrease of $375,000 in holdings of the same bonds as security against public deposits, so that the banks now hold $300,000 less of the 4½s and 2s than they held of the 4½s alone a month ago. It is quite true that there has been an increase in total bank circulation during the month, but the new circulation

has been based almost wholly upon the 4 per cents and currency 6s, and most of these bonds were already deposited by the banks as security for Government deposits. The rapid decrease in the public-deposit account left a considerable amount of these bonds free, and, rather than sell them in a dead market, the bankers have simply transferred them to the account of note circulation.

Considering the general condition of our investment market, the readiness of the public to take shares in newly incorporated business houses is the phenomenon of current finance. Within a month, three important firms have advertised their corporate shares for outside subscription, the aggregate amount of stock offered being $4,000,000. In each instance, the shares were promptly subscribed for; in two cases they were "oversubscribed" long before the prescribed time-limit was reached. Yet, in the face of this, it has been found impossible to sell a single new issue of railroad bonds; a new stock issue of an important railway, offered at a heavy discount, had to be taken almost entirely by the company's shareholders; and even cities in excellent credit, such as Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Brooklyn, have sought in vain for a market for their bonds. The phenomenon would be less puzzling if we were to assume, as some authorities are disposed to do, that the former partnership interests in these enterprises have bought up the bulk of the new stock, leaving only an insignificant proportion for outsiders. But this is not easy to prove, and it is rendered improbable by the quick succession of such subscription offers, involving, as each of them does, enormous advertising and commission expenses. If it were known to the projectors that previous public subscriptions of the kind had not been successful, it is safe to suppose that they would wait for a few months, until the investment community had regained its equanimity, before undertaking their own experiment. Moreover, it should be noted that London's investment market presents the same anomaly. The public subscriptions to new loans and shares in that city average nearly 50 per cent. less than in 1890, and the reader will look in vain along the list for railway bonds and shares. The recently reported sale in that city of $5,000,000 bonds of an American railway is much doubted by financiers, and it stands in any case absolutely alone. The falling off in England has affected chiefly the enterprises for colonial and South American development; here, the burden has come upon the enterprises for developing our own West.

Mr. Drew, the National Bank Examiner who was dismissed by the Comptroller of the Currency because of his course in regard to the Keystone Bank of Philadelphia, has sent to the Comptroller a long statement which the latter is likely to find a troublesome document. Let us say, before giving an outline of it, that, early in the investigation of the Keystone Bank scandal, Mr. Drew was put upon the witness-stand and gave testimony which made it of vital importance to have the Comptroller summoned as a witness. It was obvious that such a proceeding was necessary in order that the whole truth in the matter might be disclosed. The Comptroller was invited to appear before the Committee, but the Harrison Administration decided that it would not be advisable for him to do so, and that he must confine himself to a written statement in reply to Drew's testimony. That statement was prepared, but was not allowed to be sent and published until it had been carefully revised at a Cabinet meeting. It did not meet many of the points raised by Drew's testimony and that of other witnesses, and was, of course, far less satisfactory than an oral examination and cross-examination of the Comptroller would have been. Subsequently, Mr. Drew was dismissed because of a failure on his part to include $544,000 of Clearing-house certificates in one of his reports, in a list of the liabilities of the Keystone Bank. This report was dated January 24, 1891, and his dismissal was dated July 2, 1891.

In his statement Mr. Drew says that his report of January 24 was plainly marked on its face "Preliminary," was characterized by him in an accompanying letter as "a sort of an abstract," thus "intimating a fuller and more trustworthy report to follow, and which did in fact soon follow, with the omitted item entered in full." The second report was accompanied by a letter explaining that the omission in the preliminary report had been a "sheer accident." After this explanation, which may be taken for what it is worth, Mr. Drew goes on to make some very serious charges against the Comptroller in reference to his conduct towards the Keystone and Spring Garden National Banks. He declares that "early in 1890" the names of these banks were furnished by him to the Comptroller as "banks whose condition was so unsatisfactory, and whose methods were so objectionable, as in my (Drew's) opinion, to require especial attention on the part of his office"; that his "reports for a long period, particularly of July 3, 1890, showed the Keystone National Bank then to be in a very unsatisfactory condition, requiring an immediate and radical change of management and of method"; that when the Keystone Bank took out Clearing-house certificates in November, 1890, and when in the "run" of December, 1890, such certificates to the large amount of $730,000 were advanced to it, he kept the Comptroller fully informed; that on February 13, 1891, the Comptroller, at Drew's suggestion, visited the Keystone Bank and personally saw its Clearing-house account; that on February 16, and on February 28, 1891, Drew sent to the Comptroller reports giving a full account of the bank's affairs; that in addition to these official reports, he sent to the Comptroller on June 8 and 13 private letters giving him the exact facts about the bank's condition, and that the Comptroller subsequently informed him of the receipt of these letters. The Comptroller closed the Keystone Bank on March 20, 1891, or more than a year after Mr. Drew declares that he informed him of its unsatisfactory condition. Why did he allow it to remain open so long, and, after he had closed it, why did he dismiss the Examiner for an error in a report which was made five months earlier, and which was corrected almost immediately? These are questions which make it more imperative than ever for the Comptroller to take the witness-stand.

Mr. James Russell Lowell died yesterday at his home in Cambridge. We give in another column a critical account of his career and of his place in the world of letters. But no tribute to his memory in the *Nation* would be complete or adequate which failed to mention how much it owed to his sympathy and encouragement from the day of its foundation, and how unstintingly these were given to its conductors. His rare contributions to its columns, though very valuable, were but a very insignificant part of the support it received from him. What was most valuable was his constant and very frequent private expressions of praise and appreciation. These never ceased for any great interval during twenty-five years of good and evil report, and they, we need not say to readers of his works, and still less to those who knew the man himself, came from the hand of a master in politics as well as in literature, and, what was still better, from the hand of one of the warmest and stanchest of friends. Of no American of our time might it be more truly said, "Nec vero ille in luce modo atque in oculis civium magnus, sed intus domique præstantior. Qui sermo, quæ precepta!"

The downfall of prohibition in Kansas appears to be complete. The amendment to the Constitution was adopted in November, 1880, by a vote of 92,302 to 84,304, and provides that "the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors shall be for ever prohibited in this State, except for medical, scientific, and mechanical purposes." A Legislature chosen at the same time passed an act to enforce the amendment the following winter, so that the system has now had a ten years' trial. The results are summarized in a letter just published from E. Leonardson, "State organizer Prohibition party." Mr. Leonardson begins with the frank confession that "there is more liquor sold and drunk to-day in Kansas than at any time since the passage of the amendment. There is a general letting down all over the State." Coming down from generals to particulars, he says that "there are about 150 saloons and four wholesale liquor houses in Leavenworth" (population, by the new census, 19,768); that "there are about 130 in Atchison [population 13,963], also a brewery with a wagon running on the street selling beer"; that "nearly all the large towns are collecting re-

venue from the saloons"; that "many of the small towns are following the example of the larger ones"; and, finally, that "unless something is done to open the eyes of the people to the facts, fair Kansas will soon be under the power of the saloon."

A remarkable contribution to the Presbyterian controversy over Prof. Briggs appears in the *Evangelist* of August 6. It will be remembered that the convincing argument against delay in dealing with the case at the Assembly, last May, was that it was "now or never"; that is, that, under the terms of the compact between the Assembly and Union Seminary, veto of an appointment to a professorship must be exercised within a year, or else the right to use it would lapse. Now comes a Scranton lawyer, Mr. Torrey, pointing to the fact that no such limitation whatever appears in the original compact made with Union in 1870; it was introduced in 1871 in the compact made with Lane and Auburn Seminaries. Coming thus a full year after the closing and execution of the contract with Union, there is no legal ground whatever, so Mr. Torrey convincingly argues, for saying that the Assembly could not defer action in the case of a Union professor without losing the right to act at all later on. Moreover, he goes on to show that, as a matter of fact, the Assembly in 1879 and 1880 actually had deferred action on the election of professors until more than a year after the same, and that, too, in the cases of Lane and Auburn, where the time-limit was specifically set down in the compact. Of course, the case is closed now, as far as the Assembly is concerned, and all this is of no practical avail, but it is of interest as bringing out the amazing fact that amid all the wrestling of the ecclesiastical constitutional lawyers at Detroit, no one actually went to the record to see what the facts were. It is perfectly clear that if Mr. Torrey's presentation of the case could have been laid before the Assembly, the wind would have been completely taken out of the sails of the "now or never" men, and the appointment of Prof. Briggs left over to await the action of the New York Presbytery.

Mr. W. E. Bear, the well-known English writer on agricultural statistics, supplies to *Bradstreet's* a "rough estimate" of the shortage in the wheat harvests of Europe this year, and of the sources of supply from other parts of the world. Mr. Bear's estimate, it should be noted, takes account of the short rye crop as an element in calculating the demand for wheat. He begins with Russia, whose wheat production last year (including Poland) was about 212,000,000 bushels and her exports about 90,000,000 bushels. This year Mr. Bear thinks her crop will not be over 180,000,000 bushels and her exports not above 40,000,000. Austria-Hungary falls short this year 27,000,000 bushels as compared with last year. The country will not be able to spare more than 8,000,000 bushels. Rumania has a good crop and may be able to spare 30,000,000 bushels. Bulgaria and Servia may export 12,000,000 bushels. The power of the exporting countries of Europe to supply the importing countries is thus set down at 90,000,000 bushels as a maximum. The importing countries will have a deficiency of 371,000,000 bushels, so that Europe in the aggregate will be under the necessity of importing 281,000,000 bushels from the other quarters of the world. What countries can supply this amount? Mr. Bear thinks that India may furnish 33,000,000 and the United States 144,000,000, leaving still a shortage of 104,000,000 to be looked for in Australia, South America, Canada, Asia Minor, Egypt, etc. Mr. Kains-Jackson shows that this wheat requirement of Europe will call for ship room of 5,600,000 bushels per week average for the whole year. The editor of *Bradstreet's* considers Mr. Bear's estimate of the European deficiency rather under than over the mark.

The French have evidently had a thorough inoculation with protectionism, and are all the while breaking out with it in unexpected places. The law for the regulation of the practice of medicine which lately passed the Chamber is so purely a domestic concern that one would scarcely look for a blow at the "foreign devil" in it—but there it is. Some of its provisions of purely French application are open to objection, as, for example, its abolition of health officers, and its imposition of a fine of from 100 to 1,000 francs upon a priest or sister of charity who should venture to prescribe remedies of any kind to the sick. Both the clauses aim, of course, to give a monopoly to regular physicians as against unlicensed practitioners, as does also the particularly absurd one prohibiting a pharmacist, even if a graduate in medicine, from prescribing; but the worst of all is that forbidding a foreign doctor to practise in France, even temporarily, without obtaining a degree from a native school. It would seem that the suicidal effect of such a law would be at once apparent in view of the great numbers of foreign invalids who, with their own physicians, seek the health resorts in the south of France every year. Doubtless there was some prevision of this in that clause of the bill which authorizes the Government to make exception of a certain number of cases when asked to do so by foreign ministers; but even this qualification leaves the measure an especially narrow and benighted one. Not even physicians of souls are to escape, it would appear, if they are foreigners. The Minister of Justice and Worship is about to make an investigation of the nationality of priests in the various parishes of the city of Paris. Those who turn out not to be French citizens are to be deprived of their livings, and it is said that some fifteen or sixteen are in that unfortunate plight. Finally, the hated foreigner is to have no place in the system of public education. The Minister of Public Instruction has lately sent a circular to principals of *lycées* and colleges, informing them that foreigners are not to be allowed to act as teachers or assistants in any schools above the primary grade, unless they first secure permission from the Government to take up their domicile in France, this authorization to be valid for five years only, at the end of which period they must become naturalized French citizens or lose their positions. Thus are the blessings of protection extending.

With the characteristic folly of protectionists, the French Chamber has decided that the general tariff which has just been enacted for France shall apply equally to all her colonies. The Chamber refused an adjournment of the debate, which was proposed in order that the representatives of the colonies might prepare their case, and insisted upon the measure in spite of all reason. A deputy from Martinique declared that if it became a law, it would be for the colonies a radical revolution. It would involve not only an abandonment of the existing colonial policy, but would necessitate an entire change of the policy upon which the colonies regulated their interior affairs. The different productions, the different manners, the different needs of the colonies are wholly disregarded by this extraordinary measure, and it is almost amusing to see such a crushing blow dealt to its own colonies by a Power that has been at such great pains to establish and extend them. The French seem to regard their colonies now just as England looked upon hers during the last century, as mere plantations established for the benefit of the traders of the home country, and are going through England's experience that the traders of the home country can be benefited only by a policy that allows free development to its colonies.

The report upon public instruction in France contains some interesting figures. Confining our attention to intermediate schools, it appears that the practical monopoly of education by the Government has nearly extinguished the private schools not supported by religious denominations. They have decreased in number since 1876 from 494, with 30,000 pupils, to 250 in 1891, with only 15,000 pupils. On the other hand, the religious schools, in spite of most oppressive legislation, show a considerable increase. In 1876 they numbered 309, with 46,800 pupils, and in 1891 they had increased to 352, with 51,200 pupils, and the 139 *petits séminaires* had in addition more than twenty thousand pupils. Comparing these numbers with those of the Government schools, it seems that about one-half of the youth of the middle class are still educated outside of the Government institutions. In both classes of schools a marked decrease in the number of pupils boarded in the institutions has taken place. The cry is already heard that the fees now charged for schooling should be remitted, but it cannot be said that any movement in this direction has yet manifested itself.

MR. M'KINLEY'S EXPLANATION OF THE TARIFF.

THOSE of the people of Ohio who were gathered at Lakeside a few days ago, had the privilege of listening to a speech upon the tariff by Mr. McKinley that is described by men who have heard him often as one of the strongest he has ever delivered. As it is desirable to know all that can be said in favor of the measure with which Mr. McKinley's name is associated, we shall try to present the main points of this speech. The first point emphasized was that "the subject of the tariff, stripped of everything else, is simply the subject of taxation." But as we are immediately told that taxation is necessary to every municipality, it is plain that the subject of taxation is not always the same as the subject of the tariff. It is fair to say, therefore, that Mr. McKinley meant that the tariff was a tax, but not the only kind of tax. That this was his meaning is apparent from the subsequent statement that there are two forms of taxation: "The one is the direct system of taxation and the other the indirect system, or a tariff tax."

As to the direct system of taxation, Mr. McKinley dismisses it briefly with the assertion that "there is no considerable sentiment in the United States in favor of raising $360,000,000 by a system of direct taxation. . . . Therefore the Government is remitted to that other form of taxation that is commonly called tariff taxation—that is, taxing somebody else's property rather than our own; taxing the property of other nations seeking a market in the United States." It seems strange that Mr. McKinley should have omitted to mention that system of taxation known as the internal revenue, which cannot be described as either direct or indirect taxation according to his definition. It is almost incredible, considering that he has been a member of Congress for some years, that he has not heard of the existence of the taxes upon liquors and tobacco; and if he knew of such taxes, he should not have made the classification that he did. It is strange, also, that he did not mention the sugar duties. If the tariff is "taxing somebody else's property," why did the McKinley Bill throw away fifty millions of dollars per year that foreigners were paying into our treasury?

Leaving this matter, we would call attention to another error into which Mr. McKinley has evidently fallen, especially as it is an error common among protectionists—the error of supposing that a tariff is a tax "upon somebody else's property rather than our own." This error on Mr. McKinley's part may be explained, if not excused, by his having passed his life in an interior State and having had few educational opportunities. He evidently labors under the impression that foreign governments take the goods produced in their respective jurisdictions, bring them over here and pay the duties imposed by our Government, and then sell them to American citizens for whatever they can get. Some one ought to point out to Mr. McKinley's audiences that such commerce as this exists only in his imagination. As a matter of fact, American citizens generally sell their products to the citizens of foreign countries and buy goods with the proceeds, paying the duties upon the goods to their own Government. The tax is paid in most cases by American citizens; but it is in reality a tax upon commerce, and may affect the price of exports as well as that of imports. There is certainly no evidence that "the property of other nations" ever passes through our custom-houses.

Apparently, Mr. McKinley is not altogether satisfied with this explanation of the incidence of taxation, for he immediately proceeds to abandon the position that the tariff is a tax and nothing else. There is a tariff for revenue, but there is also a tariff for protection, and that is the kind of tariff he favors. If he felt sure that the tariff was a tax only upon the property of foreigners, he would scarcely propose to give up this simple and convenient means of paying our expenses. As he justly says, you cannot have revenue without having importations; and although revenue is a good thing, yet it is better to go without it than to have it at such a price. "Every importation of foreign competing products displaces the purchase of that much domestic products, which ought to be produced by the American people."

At this point in his speech, Mr. McKinley becomes quite incoherent, being excited by the spectacle of a glass tumbler upon which the tariff is 60 per cent., nor does he attempt further argument or return to the subject of taxation. He refers to the period between 1846 and 1861—a period when the census reports show that our material progress was more rapid than at any other—as a period when we had a genuine revenue tariff. "During that time there was the Mexican war, the famine in Ireland, the European war, the Crimean War, and in the meantime there was the great discovery of gold in California; yet with all these helps to American manufactures, commerce, and trade, the revenue-tariff policy of 1846 signally failed to supply the revenue needed for the Government." Possibly if further help had come in the shape of a universal epidemic of smallpox and cholera, together with frequent earthquakes and destructive floods, this result might have been different. As the Government did not then need a revenue of $500,000,000 a year, but a little more than one-tenth of that sum, as its revenues were ample for its purposes, and as American manufactures, commerce, and trade flourished as they never had flourished before and never have since, Mr. McKinley's lamentations are unnecessary. If he had cared to pursue the subject of taxation, he might have added that the taxes per caput during that period were less than half what they are now.

With a degree of confidence in the ignorance of his audience which we trust was unjustifiable, Mr. McKinley argued that a revenue tariff is unwise because at one time under such a tariff the bonds of the Government were at a discount of 12 per cent. As to the discount under a protective tariff, he is silent. As a matter of fact, the protective tariff did operate to depress the value of our bonds, as Mr. Bagehot has shown, while the revenue tariff did not; but it is scarcely worth while to consider the question at length. Mr. McKinley repeats the foolish statement that 99 per cent. of the duty upon raw material imported is refunded by the Government when the material is manufactured and exported. As the expense of collecting the duties is nominally 3 per cent., and really a good deal more, the Government pays a bounty to traders who will furnish goods to foreigners at a cheaper rate than our own people can get them. Mr. McKinley commits himself to tin in the following positive language: "Mark my words: inside of four years you will get cheaper tin than you ever got before, and it will be American tin, made in American mills, from American raw material, by American workingmen, for the American people." This may be worth remembering, and it is at all events a fair specimen of the logic of Mr. McKinley's speech, which we are quite willing to believe is "one of the strongest he has ever delivered."

SOCIOLOGY AND THE CHURCH.

THE customary summer jokes about closed churches and clerical trips to Europe have scarcely had their usual run this year. They were never exactly brilliant, and have had most of their reason for existence in the nervous wincing at them visible in the churches themselves. But that is about gone now, and the practical cessation of church life in the city is accepted as inevitable during the summer time. In other words, the churches have come to perceive and frankly acknowledge that they are but a part of the life of society, by the customs and trend of which they are and must be largely shaped. This has always been an historical fact, as recent investigations of the powerful influence of its environment upon early Christianity have convincingly shown; but the churches themselves are more acutely conscious of it now than ever before.

This change of feeling is leading to still greater changes in practice. When the Church considered itself as in but not of the world, its contact with society at large being mainly for the purpose of rescuing an individual here and there from a corrupt and doomed social order, it inevitably had an air of aloofness and condemnation. But now that it is coming to the conception of Christianity as but an element in the whole movement of civilization, it necessarily feels its solidarity with the social organization in which it exists, and thinks more about bettering and building up society as a whole than of snatching individual brands from the burning. The result is a far kindlier attitude towards projects for social reform, and a measurable recovery of lost enthusiasm through the new interest in sociological studies and experiments. In fact, the quickening of church zeal in that direction has been so marked that church leadership in philanthropic effort, now when it is given so largely a scientific basis, is almost as pronounced as it was in the days of its more strictly religious grounding. The feeling of "social compunction"—the name

a well-known writer gives to the vague sense of obligation to do something for the unfortunate classes in society—is stronger and commoner in no part of the community than in the churches.

And they are allowing it to work great changes in their thought and organization. Sociology is accorded a vastly more important place than formerly, for example, in the preparatory studies of the ministry. The recent founding of a chair of Sociology in a theological seminary is highly suggestive of the new point of view, as is also the fact that the professorship became at once the most popular one in the institution. Before that noteworthy event, practical training in sociological methods had been provided for here and there in the way of sending theological students to investigate certain social and social-religious questions in great cities. The tendency had, perhaps, its most striking emphasis in an address by President Hyde before the Congregational clergy in Boston. According to published reports, he flatly declares for the retiring of dogmatic theology to the extreme background of the seminary curriculum, and its virtual displacement by discipline in sociology. Such displacement is already an accomplished fact in the actual experience of multitudes among the younger clergy, who leave the Church Fathers and the system-makers unopened in order to read the latest monographs of social investigators, and reports on organized charity, prison reform, model coffee-houses, labor organizations, and the like.

We have already said that church people are among the readiest to accept the methods of applied sociology. A good instance of this is their very general willingness to cooperate with associations for organized charity. This willingness was rather slow in appearing. The special charities of the individual church were almost sacred to it, and it seemed little short of an outrage to ask it to merge these in the general charitable work of the community, or at least to allow its own records of names and gifts to be entered in the common register. But it did not take the associations long, after they were fairly at work collecting facts and making investigations, to convince the church authorities that charity by isolated and secret methods was a direct encouragement to professional mendicancy and fraud; and now, we believe, it is seldom that church records are not at their disposal for purposes of comparison. We might adduce other cases of a similar acquiescence on the part of the Church in forms and methods of benevolent work quite inconsistent with the older view that society as such could not be improved outside of its own organization and control. Wholly apart from millenarian views, the improvability of society and the possibility of a kingdom of heaven on earth are now generally accepted articles of belief. They derive largely from sociology.

No account of its influence upon theological conceptions should omit to notice the profound modifications which it has brought about in the whole idea of the economy of redemption. This was long conceived of from an intensely individualistic standpoint. The powers of good and evil were arrayed in deadly struggle for the possession of the individual soul, and Christ came to save not a race or a society, but a number of individuals. All that is rapidly disappearing—has gone, in fact, from the writings and sermons of all who do not take their teaching exclusively from the past. Now the talk is all of a race redemption, and of a salvation which has society in the mass as its objective. Doubtless this has been reflected back into theology from the sociological studies of the time; but that fact is of less importance than the practical effects of the change of view, and it is mainly to them that we have wished to call attention.

CITY BOARDERS AND THE FARM.

How essential it is that the various forces which bear upon a great social or economic question should each have its separate estimate, is brought out vividly in an article by Mr. Edward Hungerford on "Our Summer Migration" in the current number of the *Century*. Mr. Hungerford, with great skill and minuteness, sets forth the present and potential value of the city boarder to the farmer, and shows optimistically the relation of the former to country life in its various branches and especially in relation to rural decadence. Nearly all that Mr. Hungerford says pro and con on the question may be fully conceded, except the too large balance which he strikes in favor of city influence and city dollars in the summer home of the urban "boarder." It is the old experience over again, that a dozen points of reasoning, each good enough in itself, do not countervail the weight of two or three much more important considerations to be set in the opposite scale.

The first suggestion which presents itself in connection with Mr. Hungerford's too rosy views is, that while the city boarder may make the farmer's family more "æsthetic," may transmit a bit of culture, may help in the support of the family, may add somewhat to the local demand for minor farm products, and so on; yet the same boarder works in another way directly against the "farm idea," pure and simple. The whole conception of successful and real farming, both ancestral and present, involves the converging of the owner's full strength upon his land. Now, as in the old days, it is the story of close economies, of the toiling housewife, of the farmer himself battling with and subduing his stubborn soils. This is real farming, and is the farm life which in the old times brought out, in the "strength by struggle" form, the grand old race of yeomen whose passing we so justly deplore. Boarding-house-keeping in the country, with its constant tendency to "add a new wing," to take new boarders, and still more boarders, and finally to let the meadow go, provided only the truck garden "for boarders" can be kept up, is not farming. In fact, precisely as this boarding-house idea expands, that of old-fashioned farming wanes. The former idea may build up a race of truck-farmers, may create a body of rural boarding-house-keepers, may possibly in a few cases prevent an old farm from being abandoned or sold out at 10 per cent. of its former value. But does it positively and directly stimulate the genuine farming spirit and yeoman ambition or hopes? Is it not rather a substituted calling, which takes, or tends to take, the place of genuine agriculture?

Let us consider the subject in a more practical way so as to get a clearer perspective of it. If we exclude the younger children on the farm, who, sad to say, our census shows are decreasing, we may divide in our Eastern States the farm race into three groups. One is the old parental group, made up of the "old folks" fifty years or more of age, who, for manifest reasons, are pretty certain to remain on the farm for the rest of their lives. Next we have the grown-up daughters of the farm-house. Some of these leave the farm for the city or the West, but not, on the whole, many of them, save as they go in the migration of their young husbands. Finally, far more important than the other two groups, we have the "young-farmer" class, whether married or not. This is the class on whom really the whole farm problem centres. They form the great body of the long procession which streams to the cities and westward, subtracting from the farm the bone, sinew, brains, and aspirations of its life. To consider them and the relation to them of motives and influences is to consider almost the whole of the imperative and depressing farm question.

Is the contact of the city boarder with such a class stimulative of home ambitions or not? Whether the city boarder is intellectual, or artistic, or merely wealthy, is his or her example to the young son of the farm such as to make him contented with his lot? We might also refer, as does Mr. Hungerford, to the pernicious influence of a "fast" city element to be found at fashionable country places, but that we do not now put stress upon. The main point is, that the incursion upon him of city life for a certain number of months in the year makes even more visible than before to the young farmer the rise of classes above him, and infects him with the desire to make money and copy them. It is pretty hard, too, to conceive such a young man, spirited and ambitious, even if he have a natal love of the soil, remaining contented in the farm boarding-house, which, on the whole, must seem to him a grade below the independent farmer's position. This pride of his may be false and foolish, yet it is in him just the same as in other persons who by necessity are forced to the expedient of "taking boarders," which *per se* is perfectly honorable and praiseworthy. But even without this factor of pride, is not the mere contact of the young farmer with city culture and wealth a force which unsettles him and makes him restless more than it spurs his local energies?

We might speak of another point raised by Mr. Hungerford, namely, the future reflux of migration to Eastern farms after those at the West have been taken up. That in time it will come is probable, though

it may be seen only by our remote posterity. When it does come, however, will it be an eastward coming of actual farmers, or of the wealthy "fancy-farmer" type? Will it be a new "yeoman" class and actual owners of the soil, or a tenant-farmer group, or merely a plutocratic race of landholders, who, employing many hands, till their fifty acres each more for diversion than profit? The end of another century which may find New England in her rocky parts an English Cornwall or Devon, and in her more level areas an English Warwickshire, may answer the question. Meanwhile, such influences as the city boarder in the farm-house give us little light and less encouragement on the absorbing and pressing enigma, particularly that major part of it which bears upon the matter of making the young Eastern farmer less restless and more willing to abide on the ancestral acres.

THE INDUSTRIAL SITUATION IN FRANCE.

THE French Government having sown the wind by refusing to protect the omnibus-drivers who wished to work, against the assaults of the strikers and the mob that sympathized with them, is now reaping the whirlwind in an epidemic of strikes. The employees of the horse railroads at Marseilles, at Lyons, at Bordeaux, and at Toulouse followed the example of the Paris omnibus-drivers. Then the infection extended to the employees of the steam railroads, nearly all the great roads being affected, and great exertions being made by the members of the labor unions to make the strike universal. The bakers had their turn; the hair-dressers, the grocers, the shoemakers, all manifested discontent; and the workmen in the sewers joined in the demand for improved conditions.

The Municipal Council of Paris, a body as mischievously disposed as the Board of Aldermen in New York, eagerly took advantage of the opportunity to interpose in behalf of the unions. They proceeded to vote pecuniary aid "to the families of workmen who were out of employment," and the unions whose members were on strike very naturally considered that this was a subvention of their cause by the State. They assembled the striking workmen, and it was arranged that the sums to be distributed by the Municipal Council should be paid over by the recipients to their respective unions. The first vote of the Council was for but 2,000 francs, but, as the General Government apparently did not dare to veto it, it was presently followed by a larger vote intended for the benefit of other strikers, whose union in its turn directed its members to hand over their gratuities to the common treasury. This went on until the railroad strikes took place, a disturbance upon a much larger scale than those that preceded, when the Council again undertook, by the same transparent subterfuge, to furnish pecuniary aid to the unions of the strikers.

The situation of the general Government was by this time alarming. The employees of the railroads were engaged in work that affected the public interest very materially, although not directly employed by the Government, while the workers on the sewers were paid directly by the city. These workmen had formed a union, and there were reports of projected unions in the postal and telegraphic services. Certainly the families of the sewer workmen would suffer as much from want as those of other workmen out of employment, and they were therefore entitled to assistance from the Municipal Council. This aid would, of course, have been transferred to the union, and the extraordinary spectacle would have resulted of the city of Paris furnishing pecuniary assistance to an organized body of workmen on strike against the very city that was aiding them. This prospect overcame the timidity of the Government, and the Prefect of the Seine was at last forced to oppose the granting of further subventions of this kind, and, as his opposition was unavailing, to interpose his veto. Since then the French papers have been devoting themselves to explaining why unions of laborers employed by private persons are permissible and laudable and their strikes legitimate, while laborers employed by the State should neither unite nor strike. The distinctions are somewhat finely drawn, but the exigencies of the situation are such as to require that they should be made.

The railroad strike was not so extensive as the strikers hoped to make it, although it excited grave apprehensions for a time, and the present attack of the strike mania is probably over, but the future is by no means unclouded. As one of the members of the Paris Council declared, in reply to the contention of the Prefect that he did not need to treat with his employees through the medium of a union, the unions are bodies recognized by law. The State compelled the omnibus company to recognize the authority of the unions; how can it decline to recognize this authority when its own affairs are involved? As a matter of fact, the French Government has been for some time travelling upon a road that leads to eventual disaster. The compulsory-insurance scheme, upon which we have recently commented, is only one of a number of Socialistic experiments. A project for the establishment of a bureau of labor under the care of the Government has recently been brought forward, and the limitation of the hours of labor for women and children, with the necessary accompaniments of a force of Government inspectors of factories, will beyond question soon be established by law. Such experiments may not be disastrous in a country like England, where the pressure of taxation is light and the general spirit of the people is conservative, but in a society composed of elements so inflammable as those which exist in France, radical changes are perilous. The natural form in which discontent manifests itself there is in attempts to overthrow the Government, and the rapid formation of trade unions is likely to result in their participation in these attempts unless they are placated. To placate them, however, as the recent events have shown, leads directly to assisting them in their strikes, and to the formation of unions among Government employees. Whichever policy is adopted by the Government, it will encounter difficulties, and the difficulties to be encountered in steering a middle course will be even greater. It is easy to begin with a policy of opportunism, but this becomes harder and harder to follow, and ends in collapse.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL was born at the residence called Elmwood in Cambridge, Mass., February 22, 1819. He came of a family which in every generation has rendered public service in some form. His father, the Rev. Charles Lowell, D.D., was prominent in his day as a clergyman, though now best remembered for the wholesome brevity of his sermons; he was one of the conspicuous early Unitarians, although he never would accept that or any other denominational name. Dr. Lowell's father was the Hon. John Lowell, United States Chief Justice for the New England circuit, who has permanent fame as author of that clause in the Massachusetts Constitution which abolished slavery, and it is worth noticing that he was also the author of an English poem in the Harvard "Pietas et Gratulatio" of 1761. Judge Lowell's father was the Rev. John Lowell, a clergyman of Newburyport, Mass., and there now hangs at Elmwood a painted panel representing this worthy divine, with several others, sitting around a table with pipes and tobacco, the motto being appended, "In necessariis unitas, in non necessariis libertas, in omnibus caritas." The father of the Rev. John Lowell was Percival Lowell, a merchant, who came from Bristol, England, in 1639 and settled in Newbury, Mass. James Russell Lowell was thus of the fifth generation from one of the founders of New England. His brother, the Rev. R. T. S. Lowell, is also an author, as is his sister, Mrs. S. R. Putnam; and among his kinsmen, not through direct descent, have been John Lowell, the prolific pamphleteer of Madison's Administration; Francis Cabot Lowell, the founder of the cotton manufactures of New England; John Lowell, the founder of the Lowell Institute in Boston; the present Judge (John) Lowell; and the younger authors, Percival, Abbott Lawrence, and Edward Jackson Lowell. Two of James Russell Lowell's brother's children, Gen. Charles Russell Lowell and Lieut. James Jackson Lowell, were killed during the civil war. It is doubtful whether any family name in New England represents so large a total of conspicuous usefulness.

Prof. Lowell's mother, Harriet (Spence) Lowell, was the daughter of Robert Traill Spence of Portsmouth, N. H., an officer of the United States Navy. She is described by those who knew her as affording the greatest contrast to her gentle and dignified husband, she having a strain of Celtic blood which gave her great vivacity, wit, and impetuosity of manner, all combining to make her very attractive. She lost her intellectual powers with advancing years, and was the subject, under those circumstances, of one of the most powerful and pathetic of her son's poems—"The Darkened Mind."

The house in which Lowell was born was one of several fine old mansions on Brattle Street (Cambridge)—a street bearing the name of a prominent Loyalist of the Revolution—known in the last generation as "Tory Row." The Baroness Riedesel in her Me-

moirs has described these houses as they were during the Restoration, when occupied by a series of families all connected, all rich and prosperous, and all upon the Tory side. Elmwood was built in 1767 by Lieut.-Gen. Thomas Oliver, and was the scene of a popular outbreak in 1774, when the occupant was compelled by a mob to decline office as Mandamus Counsellor in these pithy terms: "My house at Cambridge being surrounded by about 4,000 people, in compliance with their command I sign my name, Thomas Oliver." The house was afterwards occupied by Gov. Elbridge Gerry, from whom the Rev. Dr. Lowell purchased it. The beautiful trees which now adorn it were mostly planted by him. Nearly opposite, across Brattle Street, in another of those large colonial houses, was kept for many years the classical school of William Wells, who then had the reputation of fitting boys better than any one else for Harvard College. This was probably true, but it was nevertheless a rough, old-fashioned school of the English type, upon which none of its boarding pupils look back with much pleasure. Lowell, however, was a day scholar, as was his lifelong friend and fellow-worker, William Story; and among the younger pupils who afterwards developed literary tastes were T. W. Higginson and Charles C. Perkins. The training was mainly classical, Mr. Wells being himself the author of an excellent Latin grammar and editor of the first American edition of Cicero.

From this school Lowell entered Harvard College in 1834, taking his degree of A.B. in 1838, and that of A.M. in 1841. He was a college classmate of his friend Story, of Hon. Charles Devens (of Boston), Hon. Rufus King (of Cincinnati), Dr. G. B. Loring (our recent Minister to Portugal), Gen. H. L. Eustis, the Rev. Drs. E. A. Washburn, Rufus Ellis, and J. I. T. Coolidge. Socially, he was one of the favorites of his class and one of the editors of the College periodical, *Harvardiana;* but he was rather irregular as a student, and was suspended on the eve of graduation for a boyish escapade. This prevented the delivery of his class poem, but it was subsequently published without his name, and partly for this reason has now become so rare that copies of it command a high price. It contains some boyish satire upon the abolitionists and other reformers, but showed the nascent spirit of reform in an eloquent protest against the eviction of the Cherokees, and also in a tribute to the Rev. Dr. Channing. He never reprinted it among his works, but it is very probable that its publication did something to commit him to the career of letters.

A far more powerful influence was, however, brought to bear upon him, in the same direction, soon after. A young poet's love is always a prime factor in his career, but rarely one so altogether controlling as in the case of Lowell. The object of his attachment was Maria White, the sister of one of his classmates. She lived in Watertown, the town adjoining Cambridge, where her father was perhaps the most influential citizen; she had a good deal of beauty, and this of a thoughtful and poetic type, and, under a peculiarly serene and gentle aspect, concealed great strength and fervor of nature. Lowell was, as he has since said of himself, by "temperament and education of a conservative tone." She was, on the other hand, a natural reformer, and, though partly educated in a convent, had already thrown herself with ardent sympathy into the reformatory spirit of the times, and especially the anti-slavery movement; she had also attended Margaret Fuller's classes. That this reformatory spirit was with her a matter of temperament as well as conviction—something in the blood—is indicated by the fact that her brother, only a few years older, gave up all for reform, travelled about the country with Frederick Douglass and others as an anti-slavery apostle, and afterwards gave equal energy to the temperance agitation.

All this reformatory atmosphere determined Lowell's career: his love made him a poet, the object of his love made him a reformer. The same end might have been reached in other ways, but this was the way in which it actually came. For the rest, he and his betrothed became the centre of a circle of very clever and joyous young people, who had several pleasant headquarters in Boston, Cambridge, and Watertown, and who all accepted these two lovers as their natural leaders, or, as the phrase among them was, their "king and queen." Lowell was then studying law, or just essaying his powers in that direction; he could not yet afford to be married, and it was understood that the prospective father-in-law withheld his consent until Pegasus should have learned to work in harness, thus giving the needed flavor of opposition. Meanwhile, the love affair interested the whole circle. It was a composite romance; there was, moreover, a theory of publicity about it—it was too sacred *not* to be spoken of—and the love-letters of the young people were shown freely from hand to hand. Perhaps it was all a little exaggerated, but it was pretty and innocent, and the real genius and earnest purposes of the parties gave it a certain dignity. They meant to lead a life as ideal as that of Dante and Beatrice, and, incidentally, to reform the world.

Lowell's first volume, 'A Year's Life' (1841), shows primarily the influence of Maria White, and secondarily that of Keats and Tennyson; he and his betrothed being among the first readers of the two thin volumes which then imperfectly predicted the well-earned fame of the present Laureate. As the first work of a youth of twenty-one, 'A Year's Life' had doubtless much that was crude and imitative, but it struck a note then new in our literature, and found at once a circle of warm admirers who did not hesitate, with youthful daring, to claim that the most gifted of American poets had appeared. Margaret Fuller, who later criticised him in a more trenchant way, said acutely of the work that its best encomium was to be found in the perhaps exaggerated admiration of these young people; and Lowell has since been his own severest critic by omitting most of it from his published works. Perhaps he has done this too rigidly, but it nevertheless remains in literature as a beautiful example of shaping influence from a pure and devoted love.

Its reception, at any rate, weakened his hold upon the law, his brief experience in which is best recorded in a paper by him entitled "The First Client," and published in the Boston *Miscellany*. This periodical was an outgrowth of the "Brothers and Sisters," as the coterie of young friends called themselves, it being edited by Nathan Hale, one of the leaders of the group, and he being aided by the contributions of Lowell and Story. The two volumes edited by Hale (1842–3) are still worth inspection as a landmark in American literature, exhibiting the first step out of the *Godey's Lady's Book* period towards the magazine of to-day. The fashion-plate was still retained, the type was dingy, the criticisms were conventional, but a step was taken. Lowell himself attempted a still further step in the *Pioneer*, a magazine which he essayed to conduct, in 1843, after Hale had surrendered the *Miscellany*.

The *Pioneer* took at once a higher stand than any previous American magazine. The element of costume was now wholly disregarded, and there were substituted "outlines" from Flaxman, as being better than "a host of tawdry fashion plates." The editors secured the best corps of purely literary contributors to be had in the country—Hawthorne, Poe, John Neal, T. W. Parsons; Elizabeth Barrett sent one poem; Maria White printed two really noble and beautiful sonnets, addressed to her betrothed, but without her name; while Lowell and Story wrote profusely under various names. Whether it was too good to live is now uncertain, but it died after its third number, leaving, however, a promise which gave great encouragement to the later *Putnam's Magazine* and the final *Atlantic Monthly*. After all, the absence of capital may have been the simpler key to its fate. Lowell could have commanded very little, in those days, of this essential requisite, while his associate, Robert Carter, had less. But Lowell's poems were in demand in a moderate way; indeed, it was considered quite a triumph of the muse when he was offered $100 for ten poems to appear in *Graham's Magazine*. The same periodical contained a very eulogistic paper on the new poet, signed "P.," and generally attributed to Poe, but really the work of the late Charles J. Peterson of Philadelphia.

The following year Lowell was married and entered on a wedded life which fortunately did not disappoint its early promise. He and his young wife took up their abode at Elmwood with the Rev. Dr. Lowell; and Fredrika Bremer remarked, on her visit to this country, that it was the only house she had entered where two successive generations had been born. Two children were there given to them, of whom the elder, Blanche, died young, only the younger surviving—now Mrs. Edward Burnett, who still resides with her children at Elmwood.

Lowell's volume called 'Poems' (1844) showed a maturer development of his powers, although, as often happens with young authors, the long poem, "A Legend of Brittany," was one of its least successful portions. More significant was the sonnet to Wendell Phillips, in which he distinctly took sides with the abolitionists, thus predicting the current of many of his coming years. The sonnet on the opposite page, "In Absence," was by Maria Lowell. Next followed the 'Vision of Sir Launfal' (1845), and in a few years his first prose work, 'Conversations on Some of the Old Poets' (1848), his wife contributing to this also, in the form of a graceful illuminated cover which she designed. This volume was based on his papers on the English dramatists in the *Boston Miscellany*. He chose for his book that conversational form which Landor had then made popular, but not permanent; there is very little of dramatic variation in Lowell's two interlocutors, and the form really added nothing. The style was, moreover, somewhat crude, and had a certain cumbrousness from which he did not free himself for many years; but the book was a work of love, represented a great deal of reading, and showed the author's wonted taste in selections and citations. In his preface he makes an apology for the defects of the book, on the ground of haste, but makes no apology for the haste itself, and alludes, rather defiantly, to that introduction of his anti-slavery opinions which was by no

means to his discredit. Another volume, entitled 'Poems: Second Series,' followed in 1848, containing a touching poem by his wife, "The Morning Glory." It included also his ringing verses entitled "The Present Crisis," which had been first published anonymously in the Boston *Courier*, and had attracted more attention, perhaps, than anything he had written, being at first attributed to Whittier. Lowell had now, for some time, been established, in Willis's phrase, as "the best-launched poet of his time."

He had by this date thrown in his lot with the abolitionists, was a vice-president of anti-slavery societies, a corresponding editor of the *Anti-Slavery Standard* (1848), and a frequent attendant at conventions, although he never spoke. Moreover, he had begun in 1846 to write for the Boston *Courier*, under the name of Homer Wilbur, those satirical verses which were to give him perhaps his greatest fame. Such was his personal reputation for wit that no one was surprised at his writing them, but his best friends were hardly prepared for the extraordinary combination of talent which appeared in the collected volume of 'Biglow Papers' (1848)—the learning, the allusion, the Cotton-Mather quality of the whole setting of the book, alloyed only here and there by a visible touch of Carlylism, then so prevalent. Twenty years after, in returning a second time to the 'Papers,' he wrote in his preface a full explanation of the circumstances under which the original book was written.

During the same year appeared his other work of humorous genius, 'The Fable for Critics' (1848). This was begun as a mere squib, to amuse a friend in New York, but grew upon his hands, and was published anonymously, yet with little attempt at concealment. It had an immediate success, and had many brilliant and many graceful passages. It cannot be fully estimated, however, without remembering that it was written at a period more trenchant than now — the Poe period — when literary personalities were still in order, and when it was considered becoming in literature, as now in politics, to "get even" with an opponent, as did Lowell in this case with Margaret Fuller and with Professor Bowen of Harvard University. Having become an associate of the latter in the University, he modified that part of the poem, and it was hoped by some of his friends that he would also modify that in regard to Miss Fuller, whose heroic Italian life and tragic death had meanwhile disarmed personal criticism; but he never did.

In 1851 he visited Europe with his wife, whose health, never strong, became more and more delicate until her death, October 27, 1853, formed another era in his life. It seemed to produce almost a reaction against former scenes and companionships, now painful through bitter association with her; and although he allowed his name to stand in connection with anti-slavery societies, he was generally regarded as having cooled in sympathy. This was unjustly attributed to his becoming, in 1855, a professor in Harvard University, then rightly regarded as very conservative. He visited Europe again, wrote in *Putnam's Magazine*, and became, in 1857, the joint editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*. In this capacity he showed much acumen and ability, with some want of method and systematic industry. Later (1863–1872) he was editor of the *North American Review*, with his life-long friend Norton as co-editor. Soon after his wife's death his brief 'Life of Keats' was published (1854), prefixed to a new edition of that poet; this was, however, probably written earlier, and for nearly ten years after her death he printed nothing important. Even then his 'Fireside Travels' (1864) was almost wholly a reprint of papers written long before, and seemed hardly enough of a harvest to justify so long a fallow period, although it contained the delightful and semi-autobiographical "Cambridge Thirty Years Ago."

In 1855 Mr. Lowell was appointed to the Harvard professorship vacated by his friend Longfellow, his title being that of "Smith Professor of the French and Spanish Languages and Literatures and Professor of Belles-Lettres." In this capacity he gave lectures and had classes; but there was a certain constitutional indolence about him which made academic life not altogether attractive; his pupils sometimes complained that he came into the recitation-room yawning, and their parents that he put a little cynicism into his interpretations of the great historic legends—such as may be seen, for instance, in his poem of "Blondel." He was always personally popular, however, and reflected distinction on the University by his character and attainments. In 1857 he married his second wife, Miss Frances Dunlap, of Portland, Maine, an accomplished and agreeable woman, who had been his daughter's governess. To this marriage no children were born.

Meantime the storm of the Civil War had begun to gather over the land; three of Lowell's nephews—Gen. C. R. Lowell, Lieut. J. J. Lowell, and Lieut. J. J. Putnam—fell in the struggle, and it seemed to give a new impulse to his productiveness. The second series of the 'Biglow Papers' followed (1865), and his magnificent "Ode" was recited at the Harvard commemoration services, July 21, 1865, taking rank at once as the one great poem of the Civil War. A period of new activity followed; there succeeded in quick succession 'Under the Willows, and Other Poems' (1869), 'The Cathedral' (1870), 'Among My Books' (1870, second series, 1876), 'My Study Windows' (1871), and 'Three Memorial Poems' (1876). He was a Presidential elector in this last year, and in the following was appointed by President Hayes (of whose Cabinet his classmate, Gen. Devens, was a member) as United States Minister to Spain. This was the beginning of his diplomatic career.

The Spanish mission had been by tradition, since the days of Irving, a literary distinction rather than a public function. Mr. Lowell found the social duties very agreeable. Without the training of a diplomat, he had many of the essential qualities—cultivation, *bonhomie*, patience, and a ready wit. Even a certain indolence of nature stood him in stead, since a large part of diplomatic duty consists in waiting. On his transfer to the Court of St. James's, he found some duties more complex awaiting him, in the settlement of various questions relating to Irish-American "suspects"; and he encountered some criticisms at home which now seem to have been unreasonable. His social accomplishments made him exceedingly popular in London, and if this popularity seemed to lie rather in the direction of the conservative than of the more progressive English sentiment, this proceeded evidently from circumstances, and not—as was at one time widely reported—from a want of proper American feeling. Any doubts on this subject were at once removed, in all reasonable minds, by his remarkable address on "Democracy," delivered (October 6, 1884) at Birmingham, England, on assuming the Presidency of the Birmingham and Midland Institute. A more admirable statement has never been made of the working, not merely of guarded republican institutions, but of the principle of democracy itself up to the present day, and it will go permanently on record as a broad statement of the very spirit of the age by one of its finest minds.

It was published in a volume, 'Democracy, and Other Addresses' (1885). This contains a variety of admirable addresses, mostly literary, and all delivered in England, except the address at Chelsea, Mass., and that pronounced (November 8, 1886) at the 250th anniversary of the founding of Harvard University. The whole volume shows a very distinct literary advance above all his previous work; there is a mellowness of tone and a judicial quality which were not always visible in his earlier critical writings. The style is terser, and wholly disarms some of the criticisms which had been earlier made upon him, not wholly without reason, for too great accumulation of metaphor and too great prolixity in the structure of his sentences. These defects, all growing in reality from an excess of wealth, were keenly pointed out long since by Prof. W. C. Wilkinson in 'A Free Lance in the Field of Life and Letters,' and by John Foster Kirk in *Lippincott's Magazine;* but their objections certainly do not hold against this his crowning volume.

The second Mrs. Lowell died in London, after a long illness, in February, 1885. His diplomatic life closed in 1885, not abruptly, like Motley's, but with his full consent, and in the most cordial relations with his successor, Mr. E. J. Phelps, for whom Lowell predicted at the outset that successful career which followed. Returning home, Lowell resumed, in a slight way, his connection with the University, being, however, transferred soon after to an "emeritus" position. He delivered lectures before the Lowell Institute on the old English dramatists, and gave various public addresses. For a time he resided with his daughter in Southborough, Mass., but in 1889 returned with her and her children, after prolonged absence, to his birthplace, and occupied himself during a period of broken health in a Life of his old friend Hawthorne, for the "American Men o Letters" Series.

It is too early to anticipate the judgment of posterity on Lowell's position in literature. All will now admit him to have been th author of the finest single poem yet produced in this country, the "Commemoration Ode"; to have reached in his 'Biglow Papers' the high-water mark of American humor; to have been unquestionably, despite all necessary allowances, our foremost critic; and to have done more, probably, than any man to command for our institutions, in all their aspects, the respect of the English-speaking world. His fame was not, like that of his friend Longfellow—or even like that of Cooper, Mrs. Stowe, and Bret Harte—international; few of his writings, if any, were translated into other languages than his own. But this is, after all, a very uncertain test of merit; and it is probable that no American author, unless it be Emerson, has achieved a securer hold upon a lasting fame. In his political aspect, nothing can be more certain than that his reputation will grow with time, and that, to say nothing of the vigor and originality of his thought, his independence, which of late years brought down upon him a shower of partisan abuse hardly to be matched in any country, or in any age, for indecency, will be rated among his crowning glories.

SWITZERLAND, 1291-1891.

BERN, July 30, 1891.

THE Swiss Republic is at the present moment in the fever heat of celebration. On the 1st of August the Confederation commemorates the six hundredth anniversary of its birth; on the 15th, the city of Bern the seven hundredth recurrence of its foundation day. For both of these occasions elaborate preparations have been made, for Bern will celebrate no less magnificently than the Union, which it may, perhaps, surpass in artistic effects. Hence, there is much busy excitement and anticipation, much preparation for strange visitors, and some patriotic reflections.

In the midst of all this, and in the summer season, one might suppose that politics would drop out of sight, and the subject of constitutional reform be left to rest till cold weather. But in this very centennial year, and almost in connection with the celebrations themselves, several constitutional changes have taken place which strongly emphasize the historical reflections which the time and season have already called forth. The Republic has taken the most advanced step towards democracy upon which it has ever ventured, namely, the application of the Initiative, or what may be better called the Imperative Petition, to Federal laws. The institution of the Referendum, or the submission of laws just enacted to popular vote when demanded by 30,000 citizens, was already in existence; but the power to demand that a given project be made law has just this month been assumed by the people. On Sunday, July 7, the necessary constitutional amendment was voted upon in a general election and passed. The vote was very light, but the majority in favor of the law quite decisive. A special session of the Federal Assembly was called for July 27, and yesterday the law which sets the Initiative in operation passed the lower house.

The contrast between the Confederation of 1291 and that of 1891 in the matter of central government could hardly have been more strikingly emphasized. In the former there was the merest figment of a Federal Administration, for rules of common action among the States were but just sufficient to keep peace among themselves and the enemy from the door. Even three hundred years ago, when the semblance of central government had been made much greater by regular diets and the appointment of certain standing officials, there was little in the Confederation beyond the power to recommend law to the cantons, and the latter might do as they pleased about agreeing to the suggestion or even about obeying what the majority agreed to. In fact, it is within the last half century that the real Federal Government has grown up, for before the Constitution of 1848 there was only the shadow of it.

Viewed from one standpoint, this new law is a return to the original state of things, for then everything was purely democratic. Laws, wars, or expeditions were submitted to the assembled folk for approval, and according to their vote only could matters be undertaken. But in those days, and even almost to our own day, the State was everything in the mind of the citizen, and the Confederation as little as possible. The placing of the enactment of law more completely in the hands of the people, while it seems in some sense a degradation of the legislator, or of those whose duty it is to suggest measures, is, nevertheless, at this juncture, an additional bulwark for central government, for the people as a whole are to vote for what interests the whole Confederation, and the voter widens his sympathies every time he exercises such a right. As patriotism is not wanting here, so neither is sectionalism and jealousy of central government; hence a measure which makes the State as a whole stronger may be viewed with toleration.

The substance of the new law is to the effect that when 50,000 voters petition for an amendment to the Constitution, or for the adoption of a statute, the Federal Assembly *must* submit the requested proposition within a given time to popular vote. The Government may at the same time present a project of its own for choice, but in any case there can be no avoidance of the duty of giving the people a chance to say whether they want such a law or not. If a majority of all votes cast, and at the same time a majority of all the States, are in favor of it, the proposition becomes law.

The effect is to take out of the hands of the Federal Legislature the power to delay or postpone the consideration of a law which public sentiment seems to demand. For example, if fifty thousand citizens had demanded the passage of an International Copyright Law, Congress could not have postponed the matter for year after year, but must have formulated a law within six months and then submitted it to the approval of the people. Yet this is only a passive instrument for the introduction of law. It still remains to be seen what use will be made of it, or whether it will be used at all. The Initiative has been in existence in a number of the State constitutions for a considerable time, but has been very little employed. Switzerland has long been acquainted with the theory of the subject, but has used the machinery hardly enough to learn the effect. Some are fearful that radical reformers will spring unripe legislation on the country—for instance, the election of the Cabinet by the people—and will get enough votes to carry it through. There is a little trembling before the labor vote, but all is in the uncertain future, and it will not do to prophesy as yet.

Another matter of political importance, also to be charged to this month of July, was the trial of the Ticino revolutionists. It will be remembered that last October and November the Liberal party in Ticino became tired of waiting for a change of government by regular means, planned a *coup d'état*, and thrust out the Conservative administration by force of arms. The Federal Government was obliged to interfere, restored the previous administration, and indicted a number of the leaders of the insurrection. The trial took place in Zürich, as it was thought that a German jury would be more cool-blooded than one in Ticino or in a Romance canton. Great interest was felt all over Switzerland in the examination of the witnesses, for they represented the ultra-Conservative element in general politics as well as in Ticino. The defence was, that the party in power had got into office and maintained itself there by all sorts of corruption, and had driven the Opposition to desperation; that appeals to the Federal Assembly and the Federal courts had been delayed for years, and that total subordination to bossism and priestcraft was the only alternative. This was the drift of the cross-examination and of the arguments for the defence, and, much to the surprise of everybody, the jury brought in a verdict of acquittal. There was universal sympathy with the revolutionists among Liberals of other States, but the expectation was that they would be found guilty and then pardoned, or only nominally punished. The effect of the verdict is to put a premium on revolution and to injure regular modes of party government—a proceeding which stands quite out of line with the steady legal theories and practice of Switzerland. The Conservative papers set up a perfect howl of objurgation, and prophesied everything evil. The better class of Liberal journals were also surprised and shocked, but did not think the precedent would be followed. The judges of the court in fact rebuked the action of the jury by condemning the man Castione, who was accused of killing a member of the Government in the mêlée, to eight years' servitude with a heavy fine. Castione was *contumax*, and therefore will not serve till caught, but the sentence was for treason and insurrection, in direct contradiction to the verdict of the jury.

I have been much interested in the operations of the Federal Assembly in its sittings of the past few days. I came purposely some distance to take advantage of the extra session, and felt amply repaid in the opportunity it gave for comparison again with our American procedure. The occasion was particularly favorable because the Assembly felt that there was little to do, and one could in a short time follow the whole public history of a measure. The session had been ordered out of the regular time, but the lower house at the outset declared that it was only a continuance, and re-elected the chairman and remaining organization of the previous session. The Senate differed as to the definition, but elected the same organization by ballot. Both houses also agreed to consider other matters than the one named in the call. The bill concerning the introduction of the Initiative was the project of the Federal Cabinet, and had already been for a few days in the hands of a committee of the House, for a favorable vote on the amendment had been anticipated and a contingent committee appointed. According to the usual practice, the Presidents of the Houses had also met beforehand and agreed as to which branch should first consider the bill. It was decided that the House of Representatives should begin the discussion. I have used the term "lower house" in this letter out of regard for American analogies; but that is hardly the proper term here. It is rather strange to an American to find on the general order of the day that the Nationalrath stands at the top and the Ständerath (or Senate) takes second place; but that is really the order of their importance in the public mind.

The sitting opened on Monday afternoon at three o'clock. The most distant member might have left his home the same morning, and reached Bern in time for the roll-call. After the preliminaries of organization, and a few words from the chairman in memory of a deceased Senator, the report of the committee on the Initiative Bill was called for. There were in reality two chairmen of this committee, one to represent the German, the other the French members of the House. Whenever any official statement was made, or explanation of a clause given, the report in German was followed by a statement from the French chairman; so, also, in the case of all announcements by the Speaker of the House and in the reading of motions, there was a double presentation. The discussion of the bill was not particularly animated. No great principle was at stake, for that had been settled in the Constitutional amendment. It was only a question of detail, and though opinions varied a good deal, an agreement was reached with comparative ease. The committee varied somewhat from the project of the Federal Council, and now and then the member of the Cabinet who had the matter in charge rose to explain and

give his opinion. The House, however, generally sustained the committee. Under the favorable conditions of the subject, the bill was taken up, debated, amended, and passed by a large majority, with apparent moderation, in two sessions on Tuesday. J. M. VINCENT.

P. S., July 31.—The Senate has decided, quite unexpectedly, to postpone the consideration of the Initiative question until the December session. So the purpose for which the extraordinary assembly was called, has been defeated; but it is only a question of a few months before the introduction of the law will be accomplished substantially as passed by the Nationalrath.

Correspondence.

THE JEWISH QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If your correspondent "L. N. D." did not think it likely that I had been "hired with Russian rubles" to write my article on the Jewish question in the *North American Review*, he might perhaps as well have refrained from repeating that suggestion. His own hypothesis is, that I "am simply filled with hatred against those whom I think too weak to resist oppression, whether they be Irish rack-rented tenants or Jewish artisans and students in Russia." He may very well be ignorant of my history, and not know that I pleaded to the best of my power the cause of the slave against the slave-owner, of the black peasantry of Jamaica against the tyranny of the whites, of the aborigines in the British colonies against colonial inhumanity, of the Ionian Islanders against imperial aggrandizement, and of the Hindus, after the Sepoy mutiny, against imperial vengeance. More than once I have run a social gauntlet in doing the very reverse of that which your correspondent assumes it is my propensity to do.

As to "the Irish rack-rented tenants," it happens that I was the first, I believe, to present their case in its historical aspect; at all events, I so presented it as to win the approval and friendship of leading Irish patriots in that day. Like John Bright, I was opposed to home rule because, like him, I thought that it meant separation, civil war, and a renewal of the calamities of the past. Like him, also, I have always believed that the malady of Ireland was economical, not political, and that the remedy must be economical also. Events surely have so far justified our course that my motives need not be taken to have been vile.

There appears to be reason to believe that peasants in Russia and other countries where Jewish usury has prevailed, have suffered at the hands of the usurer not less than the rack-rented tenant of Ireland suffered at the hands of his landlord. I do not justify or excuse the deplorable violence of the revolt, but I submit that a revolt was the almost inevitable consequence of the unhappy relations into which the two nationalities had been brought. I think it is clearly proved that the origin of the outbreaks was not religious, as has been generally supposed, but economical and social. I think these facts, if they are facts, ought to be recognized, because otherwise the true solution of this desperate problem cannot be found. Nor do I see why Russian men and women should be allowed to rest under the imputation of hideous and fiendish atrocities when impartial evidence can be adduced to show that the imputation is unfounded.

About the present policy of the Russian Government I have said nothing, because I do not know, nor does any one seem to know, exactly what it is. Mr. Arnold White has been sent by the friends of the Jews to inquire, and the Russian Government seems to oppose no obstacles to his investigations. There was a letter from him the other day in the London *Times*, in which he said that a gang of men who were being led through the street in chains had been pointed out to him as persecuted Jews, but he had afterwards learned that they were convicts. The Czar is called by "L. N. D." a "Nero," but he once had liberal tendencies. It is too likely, however, that he has been goaded to measures of violence by that constant dread of assassination which so few men's nerves or characters withstand. If he has, this seems to be another reason for giving up murder and murder clubs as instruments of political reform. Nobody believes that Russia is ripe for popular government, even if the whole imperial family could be destroyed.

To speak of the Jews collectively as "the weak" is a great mistake. They are not weak, but formidably strong. They are lords of money in a world which bows to it; in a world largely governed by journalism, they have a great and increasing influence over the press. There is a general dread of their power and their resentment. In granting insertion to an independent article on this question, the editor of the *North American Review* has given no ordinary proof of his own independence.

Yours faithfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

P. S.—Let me take the opportunity of mentioning that the title of the article in the *North American*, "New Light on the Jewish Question," is not, as some critics assume, the author's, but editorial.

THE OLIPHANTS AND HARRIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Not having read the Life of Laurence Oliphant reviewed in the *Nation* of the 9th of July, I do not know how much of the conclusions in the review belong to the book and how much to the reviewer; but as I knew both Oliphant and his wife (the latter, indeed, being a distant relative of our family), and as I had talked with them at a period long after their abandonment of the community of Harris, *i. e.*, when they were in Athens after a stay in the East, I can state their contradictions of the popular traditions even then current as to their relations with Harris. I asked Laurence particularly about the story of his having been warned by what you term "a strange superstition," which is an allusion to the story of his having refused to return to America during the siege of Paris at the call of Harris, and having been warned by a discharge of musketry through his window, on which he left at once, considering it a warning from Providence, etc., and he assured me that the whole story was pure fiction, no such incident having ever taken place, no shot having ever been fired through his window, and the call of Harris to America being simply a statement that the business affairs of the community were in need of attention, and, as Harris had no business capacity, it was necessary that he, the only member of the community conversant with them, should be on the spot for the purpose. He declared the compulsion attributed to Harris over the acts of the members of his flock to be purely imaginary, other than that he taught that, to conquer the worldly propensities of human nature, it was necessary to do the things most unpleasing to one's natural tendencies.

He said, in words which struck me then as the expression of his inmost feeling, "They considered me mad because I had determined to sacrifice the world to God," adding that the real madness was in the contrary course. And Alice assured me in the most positive manner that there was no truth whatever in the story that Harris had ever had possession of her dowry, but that she had invested it and had then (*i. e.*, when we were together at Athens, I think, in 1882) the entire capital and the profits of the investment. She, too, denied in the most energetic manner the reported tyrannical interference of Harris in the conduct of the disciples; she herself chose the hard life she entered into at intervals as a means of conquering her self-indulgence, and she declared that these acts of discipline were in all cases voluntary and not enjoined by Harris, who was in an almost complete seclusion, ill, and sometimes not seen by them for a fortnight, devoted to meditation, and rarely interfering with the acts of his disciples. Her visit to California in particular she declared to me to be her own impulse, and in one case she undertook the work of a washerwoman with the same purpose. The expressions of their feelings as to the character of Harris in all that either of them said in our long conversations on the subject, were affectionate, respectful, and inconsistent with the assumption that he was either an impostor or a tyrant, or that the restraints he inculcated, rather than imposed, were anything more than the voluntary putting in practice of what he taught as to the necessity of subduing all the human tendencies to worldliness and self-indulgence; and this Alice repeatedly asserted and Laurence confirmed.

After her death Oliphant became utterly absorbed in the spiritual (as he believed it) intercourse with Alice in her new state; and as all know who have at any length studied this class of phenomena, absorption in the so-called spiritual intercourse leads rapidly to a more or less complete insanity. What may have been Laurence's conclusions in this state, or his opinions of Harris and his doctrines, I cannot conjecture; but when I saw and talked with him and Alice, he was in the perfect enjoyment of his reasoning powers and of the present life, and the testimony of both was directly contradictory of the conclusions of the review in the *Nation*, and, if those are also those of the book, of the book itself.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

PIEVE DI CADORE, July 29, 1891.

BOND OF UNION IN THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot but think you have been doing the community a service in calling its attention to the existence of such a thing as intellectual honesty and to the need of it. To many persons it is as much a surprise to discover that "I believe" implies a direct intellectual process, as it is to discover a distinction between "I think" and "I know." It is a testimony to the higher standard of intellectual honesty demanded by our time, that the question what constitutes unity of belief with others is, so far as I am aware, a modern one. The demand for positiveness and activity in a belief has gone a long way since compulsory baptism by thousands in a river was regarded by the ecclesiastics of Charlemagne's time as sufficient conversion for the Saxons. To insist that the believer shall ask himself wherein lies his bond of unity with the past, is decidedly doing him a service.

But I cannot but think, too, that you, with

many others, miss the point when you make this unity with the past consist chiefly in assent to the result of an intellectual process. To many, a creed is like a business contract, where the terms have one definite meaning, clearly understood by all parties, and where, if any party attempts to vary the meaning, he may properly be arrested for breach of agreement. Any one who should allege in excuse for non-fulfilment of a business contract that by dollars he did not mean dollars but dimes, would be sent out of court with damages and derision. Now, is a creed a contract of this nature? The fundamental condition of a contract is wanting in the case of a creed. The terms have not one definite meaning, but meanings which differ in every age, and this difference cannot be prevented. The attempts of ecclesiastical councils to keep definitions the same, form one of the melancholy chapters of Church history. The term "God" must have a different meaning to every different person. If it is an intellectual result that is to constitute unity among believers, if it is having the same ideas, unity is impossible. And much of the upheaval going on in the various churches to-day arises from the fact that the machinery of a church is framed to secure the holding of the same ideas in common, which is now seen to be impossible, while yet unity is becoming daily more of a fact and more evident. We are puzzled by our success, for we have more unity than our machinery can handle.

I have nothing to say as to the way in which other churches should meet this difficulty, but it seems to me that the Episcopal Church, to which I belong, which has been supposed to be in this respect an especial offender, has in reality guarded herself from misconception on this point. She is supposed to be guilty partly because she retains in her Prayer-Book the Thirty-nine Articles, while it is acknowledged that these do not represent the theological belief of many of her members. But in reality these Articles have no confessional value whatever in the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States. They have never been adopted by that Church as an authoritative standard, as they are in the Church of England. They were placed in the American Prayer-Book as a compromise, with no statement of their legal position. Perhaps it is not wise to have on your premises a door-plate bearing the name of a former occupant; at all events, wise or not, when messages come to you intended for him, you are justified in sending them back.

Now, the Episcopal Church has herself officially declared how it is that she desires her members to hold their faith in common. It is not the having of the same ideas that she aims at. She regards it as a secondary matter whether her members hold their faith in the unity of intellectual apprehension or not. But she bids them all (Morning Prayer: Collect for All Conditions of Men) pray that they may "hold the faith in unity of spirit, in the bond of peace, and in righteousness of life." That is, the unity she seeks to foster among them is not an intellectual, but a spiritual unity, one of common aims rather than common apprehensions. Common apprehensions are indeed desirable for any intimacy of relationship and for work in common. Regarded as secondary, they constitute a rightful ground for the differences among the various churches and among members of the same church. But the bond of unity is primarily spiritual, that is, one in which stress is laid on the nature of the issues and aim rather than on the thought underlying them.

If it were generally understood that the bond binding Christians to the past and to one another is community of aim rather than identity of organization, ritual, or belief, valuable as these are in a secondary way, not only would many misapprehensions be avoided, but a larger unity would result than is possible with the view of a creed as a commercial contract. FREDERIC PALMER.

ANDOVER, MASS., August 6, 1891.

EVASIONS OF THE CONSTITUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is an art, not ranking yet among the fine arts or the familiar arts of industry, which consists in defeating the Constitution without coming into direct collision with its provisions. Adepts in this art have flourished in the State of New York for many years, and in 1877 had carried their skill to such perfection as to elicit the remark from our highest court that "there may be ways for a Legislature to circumvent a constitutional provision without violating it."

One of these ways of circumvention is so to draft an act, or provision of an act, as to make it appear to be general, though it is, to all intents and purposes, local. This artifice has been practised in order to evade those clauses of the State Constitution which ordain that the "Legislature shall not pass a *private or local bill*" for the purpose of granting to corporations any exclusive privilege or franchise; and that "no *private or local bill* which may be passed by the Legislature shall embrace more than one subject, and that shall be expressed in the title." As those clauses of the organic law do not apply to general acts, the ingenuity of the legislative expert is exercised in presenting, with general features, an act which is particular in its purpose and must be local in its application. For example, the 36th section of the Rapid-Transit Act of 1875 was general in its form, because made applicable in general terms to "*any* elevated steam railway now in actual operation"; but, in fact, it was local because it could apply, and was intended to apply, only to the New York Elevated Road, that being the only elevated road at the time in "actual operation." The section conferred an exclusive privilege, and would have been unconstitutional if it had specified a particular corporation as the sole grantee of the privilege.

This legislative finesse in converting local into general laws is also exhibited in so classifying the cities of the State according to population that a particular city may alone constitute a class, and then legislating generally in relation to the class. Take, for example, the laws regulating the price of gas. The act of 1887 restricting the price of gas in Brooklyn to $1.60 per thousand feet, and the act of June 5, 1890, restricting such price to $1.50, treated only of such restriction, and that single subject was fairly indicated by the titles of those acts, as required by the Constitution, so as to give a reasonable notice of what was going on in the Legislature to all concerned.

But on June 7, 1890, another statute was passed under the title of "An Act in relation to transportation corporations," and section 70 of this long and complicated statute of 163 sections restricts the price of gas to $1.25 per thousand feet "*in any city in this State having a population of 800,000 or over.*" It is certain that this section was not intended to apply, and will never apply, to any other than the cities of New York and Brooklyn. Even if it be supposable that Buffalo, the next largest city, will reach a population of 800,000 in the next century, no Legislature should be charged with the supreme folly of now attempting to regulate the price of gas in that city in 1990. But if the said section, though thus local in fact, had been made local in terms by naming New York and Brooklyn as the only cities in which the price of gas was thus restricted, it would have offended against one of the clauses of the Constitution before quoted, because such restriction, which is the subject of the section, is in no wise indicated in the title of the act in which it is concealed. Therefore, in order to evade the Constitution, the trick of city classification was resorted to, and New York and Brooklyn, instead of being designated by name, are merely described in general terms as "any city having a population of 800,000 or over."

To prohibit, as was done by the constitutional amendment of 1874, the creation of a monopoly by a private or local law is obviously of no avail, if local laws can at pleasure be changed into general by the skill of the draughtsman. Under such conditions, the only effect of that amendment of 1874 is to make unscrupulous corporations pay for the trick of evading it in addition to paying for the monopoly. A special charter in the innocent guise of a general law may well command an extra perquisite.

It will occur to the intelligent reader that evasions so simple and transparent must at once be detected by the courts. Detected they are, but not exposed. More than once it has been judicially announced that the Court of Appeals will not look beneath the face of a statute in order to find an *arrière pensée*; that if a law be general in its terms, general that court should declare it to be. In the old English jurisprudence statutes were called *constitutiones*, because deemed so deeply imbued with the spirit of the Constitution. Now, if there is any way to dodge the letter of the Constitution, the Legislature is not concerned about its spirit; and why should it be, when the courts declare that "the spirit of a constitution may be disregarded and yet its letter observed"?

If, as the great Marshall said, "the judicial power is coextensive with the legislative, and capable of deciding every judicial question which grows out of the Constitution and laws," then it was hardly becoming for the Court of Appeals to give a construction to the 36th section of the Rapid-Transit Act before mentioned which Judge Earl admitted "might leave the way open to great abuses of legislative power." Either that court should be able to afford some effective protection against such abuses, or the guardianship of the Constitution should not remain in its nerveless hands. Or perhaps the Constitution should be so amended as to require that court to pass upon the constitutionality of bills affecting substantial rights before they become laws.

Wherever we turn, we see it written and hear it declared that the Constitution, as "the voice of the people speaking in their sovereign capacity," is paramount to all other laws. Such expressions are idle verbiage, and the strongest mandate of the people's voice a mere *brutum fulmen*, if, through an excess of judicial courtesy towards the Legislature, such evasions as have here been noticed are to continue. But the rule just laid down by Judge Andrews, that the question whether a law be local or general "must be determined upon the special circumstances of each case," will check these evasions if firmly applied. On the one hand, in accordance with this rule, a law may be territorially local and yet really general,

because it aims to prevent or abate a public nuisance and danger. Such are the subway acts requiring electric wires to be placed beneath the surface in the city of New York; and such are the acts for the protection of New York harbor, because that protection is essential to the prosperity of the whole State. On the other hand, however general a law may be in its form and terms, it is local if its whole practical effect is confined to the price of a commodity in one or two cities. A restriction of the price of gas in Brooklyn benefits only the householders of that city; that special fact cannot be changed by smothering it with all the general terms in the English language, and that special fact makes the restriction local, according to Judge Andrews's rule and the plainest dictates of justice and good sense. There is no magic in city classification, no jugglery with the words *any* or *all*, that can make a part equal to the whole; and no more flagrant evasion of the Constitution was ever attempted than the subterfuge of concealing a local restriction of the price of gas in that general law of 1890, which, according to its title, relates only to transportation corporations. It is a climax in that art of legislation which has no place among the honest arts.

WM. E. BULLOCK.

BROOKLYN, August 6, 1891.

THE JUDICIARY AND POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Here in Cincinnati an effort is being made on the part of the bar to select able men for judges. To this end some five hundred lawyers balloted for candidates and selected four names which they recommend to the people. It was hoped that the political parties in convention assembled would endorse this Lawyers' Judicial Ticket. The Republicans ignored it—in fact, failed to renominate a gentleman who has been on the bench during the past ten years and who has always been affiliated with that party. The cause assigned for his defeat is unique. Said the great Republican "Boss," "We had nothing against him; he only forgot to have some one in the convention to work for him." This answer alone is sufficient reason for making the judiciary appointive instead of elective. Of late we are having men nominated for judges because they will "catch" the soldier vote, the German vote, the farmer vote, etc.

The recent lawyers' movement has been criticised as an attempt to abridge the authority of the people and as an effort to create a "Lawyers' Trust." When such sentiments as these are abroad, it is well to turn to Chief-Justice Shaw's admirable farewell address to the Massachusetts bar, found in the appendix of 15 Gray's Reports, and read:

> "Above all, let us be careful how we disparage the wisdom of our fathers in providing for the appointment to judicial office, in fixing the tenure of office, and making judges as free, impartial, and independent as the lot of humanity will admit. Let no plausible or delusive hope of obtaining a larger liberty, let not the example of any other State, lead you in this matter to desert your own solid ground until cautious reason, or the well-tried experiment of others, shall have demonstrated the establishment of a judiciary wiser and more solid than our own."

MAX B. MAY.

CINCINNATI, August 6, 1891.

THE PATENT MONOPOLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The people of Keokuk have been favored with an electric street railway for about ten months, and, until about six weeks ago, had a feeling of supreme confidence in its capacity and efficiency as a public server. Since then, however, that confidence has been rudely shaken. A thunderstorm or two about the middle of June was the cause of the change. Lightning struck the trolley wire, ran into the power-house, despite the lightning arrester, and disabled all the armatures. Since then, let a thunder cloud appear, and the street-car service stops; and if you are down town, you either walk, hire a carriage, or wait until the elements expend themselves.

The management, on being interviewed, says there is a remedy for the inconvenience, but it cannot get it. The Thomson-Houston Electric Company have a lightning-arrester which will arrest lightning, but they refuse to sell it to a company not using their system, and its device is so well patented that no other device equally efficient can be made without infringing its rights. Our company uses the Sprague system, and therefore suffers from the boycott.

This state of affairs suggests a defect in the patent laws. While ordinarily a sense of justice supports the rule that no man should be compelled to sell his property, yet there would be no injustice in compelling the patentee of an article to sell such article to all who may desire it, if he sells it to one. He is granted a valuable monopoly by the Government, and in return therefor should be compelled to deal impartially with the general public.

W. J. ROBERTS.

KEOKUK, IOWA, August 3, 1891.

THE TARIFF ON IDEAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One Bagster's Bible and one 'Bohn's Classical Quotations' mailed to me from London, in two sealed packages, and invoiced to me at $2.60. Packages cut open at New York Custom-house, invoice raised to $3.60; packages rewrapped and mailed to Chicago Post-office, C. O. D., ninety cents duties.

I have preserved the mutilated packages as an object-lesson. ***

CHICAGO, August 7, 1891.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO. will issue in the autumn Mr. John Fiske's work on 'The Discovery and Spanish Conquest of America.'

Macmillan & Co. will shortly begin publication of a series of copyright novels by English and American authors at the uniform price of a dollar. 'The Witch of Prague,' by F. Marion Crawford, 'Blanche Lady Falaise,' by Mr. Shorthouse, 'Life's Handicap,' by R. Kipling, and 'David,' by Mrs. Humphry Ward, are some of the titles already announced.

Ginn & Co. are about to bring out 'The Story of Our Continent: A Reading Book in the Geography of North America,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler of Harvard University.

Benjamin Drew, 48 Summer Street, Plymouth, Mass., has copied all the inscriptions and epitaphs which are legible on the headstones of Burial Hill, and proposes to print them in a volume if the necessary number of subscribers can be obtained at two dollars each. An alphabetical register and a numbered map will accompany the transcriptions.

The British Museum will soon publish the poems of Herodas, together with other texts deciphered from recently acquired papyri. They are to be edited by Dr. Rutherford, and it is hoped not to repeat the unfortunate experience with the 'Constitution of Athens.'

A new edition of Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations' is to be issued in six volumes by J. M. Dent & Co., London, with bibliographical and explanatory notes by Charles G. Crump. Volume i. is before us, and we learn from the Introduction that Forster's edition of 1876 is to be followed, with the addition of but one Conversation, that between Don Pedro and Inez di Castro, which has never been reprinted in its original prose form. The notes are largely devoted to pointing out Landor's successive alterations and omissions; a "collected bibliography," showing the date of each Conversation and the forms in which it has appeared, is promised for the last volume. The typography is very handsome.

Having so lately reviewed the first three parts of the fifth edition of Prof. Foster's 'Text-book of Physiology' (Macmillan), we need not enlarge upon the fourth and concluding part just to hand. It finishes book iii., on the central nervous system and its instruments, and adds book iv., on the tissues and mechanisms of reproduction. In this last book one can but be struck by the beautiful English style of the author, as well as by his other merits, which we have already pointed out. Prof. Foster gives notice of a sixth carefully revised edition, which he hopes to produce early in the autumn.

We need but mention the issue of the third of the nine volumes of Shakspere's Works as reëdited by William Aldis Wright (Macmillan). It contains "The Taming of the Shrew," "All's Well That Ends Well," "Twelfth Night," and "The Winter's Tale." No other edition surpasses this for readers who ask no more than a scrupulous text in clear and elegant type, with notes and footnotes given up wholly to various readings.

The latest volume to appear in the "Adventure Series" is 'The Story of the Filibusters,' by James Jeffrey Roche (Macmillan). It is not confined to the filibusters *par excellence*—the Walker bands of freebooters in Nicaragua—but goes back for a brief notice of the various piratical attempts made upon Spanish possessions in America, and comes down to the *Virginius* affair as the vanishing-point of filibusterism. The narrative takes on a melodramatic tone at times, but is well written on the whole, and appears to be based upon adequate investigation. Spanish phrases and proper names are curiously spelled here and there—perhaps in order to show the author's sympathy with David Crockett (whose abridged autobiography fills the last half of the volume), who said: "I despise this way of spelling contrary to nature."

Kinglake's 'Eothen' is the latest addition to the Messrs. Putnam's series of "Knickerbocker Nuggets," and none of its predecessors can be judged more suitable to this handy and entertaining collection.

Any good list of idioms is a decided help in acquiring conversational facility in a foreign tongue, and one is not surprised to find August Koop's recent 'German Idioms' issued in an enlarged second edition under the changed title 'Dictionary of English Idioms, with their German Equivalents' (Boston: Carl Schoenhof). The English portion alone is arranged alphabetically according to the leading word of each idiom. Some of the examples are not idiomatic, as, "Whereby does he get his living?" "To be in queer streets"; some are vulgarisms, as, "She is great on the piano"; and some have anything but a colloquial stamp, as "A goshawk beats not a bunting,"

"Gray hairs are death's blossoms," "Do not prepare thyself to die before thou seest the sea." These lapses, however, are not numerous.

A text-book to be recommended is 'Readings from French History,' edited by Prof. O. B. Super of Dickinson College (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). It consists of extracts from Thierry, Barante, Louis Blanc, Michelet, Lamartine, Mignet, Lanfrey, Ségur, Thiers, and Guizot. The arrangement is chronological. Obviously, apart from the historical information it imparts, this little book affords a capital comparison of French styles. The notes are for the most part explicatory, and not critical either of style or of fact. To this extent the teacher may need to intervene. In connection with the foregoing we may mention a second volume of 'Extraits Historiques de Jules Michelet' (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Carl Schoenhof). It covers the period from the beginning of the reign of Louis XIV. to the battle of Waterloo, and is a useful complement to Prof. Super's selections. Each chapter is preceded by a summary in English, and besides the notes there is a biographical and geographical index; and besides two maps there are a number of portrait illustrations of a rather poor order.

Sir Alfred Lyall's Rede Lecture on 'Natural Religion in India' is issued by Macmillan & Co. in a pamphlet of sixty-four pages. He regards India as the most favorable country on earth for an investigation of religion in the making; all grades of it, from the lowest animism up to the most philosophic Brahmanism, being present, with many transition stages clearly marked. This state of things he regards as due to India's remarkable exemption from the domination of the State in religious matters for many centuries, and also to the absence of a regularly organized hierarchy; the result being to preserve the ancient polytheism in a sort of arrested development, or, better, to leave the natural flux and growth of religious ideas to run their own course.

In the current number of his monthly catalogue of United States Government Publications (Washington), Mr. J. H. Hickcox expresses his thanks for the additional support given to his invaluable enterprise by librarians and others. On p. 125 will be found an interesting list, by States, of the sheets of the great atlas of the United States which the Geological Survey is making, completed during the year ending June 30, 1891. The sheets are designated by the most prominent feature. Colorado, Iowa, and Kansas have received most attention.

The French correspondent of the *Athenæum* reports an observant bookseller as declaring that the historians are gaining on the novelists in popular appreciation; and confirmation of the statement, so far at least as declining sales of novels are concerned, is given in the current *Publishers' Circular*. Reference is made by the *Circular* to some late statistics which show a remarkable falling off in the demand for novels — one "highly popular [French] writer" lately having had 45,000 copies of a single work thrown back on his publisher's hands.

In the second *livraison* for this year of the *Journal du Droit International Privé*, appears an article by Thorvald Solberg on "La nouvelle loi des États-Unis sur la propriété littéraire et artistique au point de vue national et international."

Edmond Plauchut has an article "d'une grande actualité" in the *Revue Bleue* of July 25, on the massacre of French residents in Tientsin, particularly of the members of a religious sisterhood, June 22, 1870. The hired murderers were led to their task by a Chinese General who was afterwards chosen as special envoy to France to make amends for the outrages. In the critical situation of the country at the time, the affair received little notice.

In the *Revista Ilustrada* (New York), for July, we find a valuable descriptive and statistical article on Venezuela, printed in parallel columns in Spanish, French, and English.

Among the new periodicals which have reached our table, two deserve a word of mention. The second number of the *Journal of Comparative Neurology* was published in June at Cincinnati by Robert Clarke & Co. This journal is under the editorial direction of Prof. C. L. Herrick. Its especial aim is, by suitable investigation of the anatomy and physiology of the lower animals, to throw light on the evolution of human consciousness with its concomitants. It is illustrated and prints a list of current neurological literature. A series of articles constituting a laboratory guide to the study of the nervous system is contemplated. The other periodical is the *Architectural Record*, published at No. 14 Vesey Street in this city. Its form (octavo) is unusual for this class of magazines. The typography falls short of being elegant or taking, but the illustrations are very good if arbitrarily inserted, and the table of contents is interesting. A novel at the end is a decided innovation.

—The contrast between the opportunities for higher education afforded women in Germany and in this country is well brought out by two publications that reach us together. One is the sixth issue in the "Bibliothek der Frauenfrage," being a vigorous address on "Like Education for Man and Woman," delivered by Frau J. Kettler before the Berlin branch of the "Deutsche Frauenverein Reform." An appendix gives an account of the aims and methods of this society, founded March 30, 1888, and of the petition laid in its name before the Reichstag on April 18 of the present year. The latter asks, in brief, for the right of women to study in at least one gymnasium and university in each State of the Empire, and particularly for the admission into German universities, without separate examination, of women who have been students of medicine in the Swiss universities. While their German sisters are thus battling for the right to enter institutions of higher learning, American women graduates are conducting a quarterly journal—the *Outlook*—in the interest of post-graduate and professional studies. The second number, that for July, is admirable in the quiet way in which it avoids anything like a "plea" or a "demand," and dwells, in its contributed articles, upon the work which women have done and are doing at Zürich, Boston, and Bryn Mawr. An editorial miscellany of notes and gleanings rounds off a periodical that evidently means to waste no strength in prolonging a battle already decided, but to do its best to make the most of the victory.

—Visitors to the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, will hereafter miss the great cylindrical structure which has for a quarter-century and more covered the largest telescope possessed by the Observatory. Notwithstanding its size, the Astronomer Royal has now procured through the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty a telescope more than twice as large as the old one. This step, long delayed at Greenwich, was absolutely required in the recent advances of astronomical science; and the optical peculiarities which the Astronomer Royal has embodied in the new instrument will render it one of the three most powerful telescopes at present in existence. The glass itself has a diameter of twenty-eight inches, and is figured by Sir Howard Grubb to a focal length of twenty-eight feet. This relatively short distance of the focal plane specially adapts the objective to photographic requirements. The peculiar architectural feature of the building which is to shelter the new telescope is that its dome, of thirty-six feet diameter, will surmount a tower having a diameter of only thirty-one feet. Technically, the form adopted is the surface generated by the revolution of an involute of a circle. The general exterior effect will be not unlike that of the cupola of a Turkish mosque, and the requirements of the astronomer are easily met mechanically, the necessary lightness and rigidity being secured by a framework of iron and steel. At the annual visitation of the Observatory in June, the Astronomer Royal, Mr. Christie, pressed upon the Board of Visitors the need, already severely felt, of providing accommodations for the increasing staff and the accumulating material. He recommends a comprehensive scheme, which the Board will doubtless accept, and which will provide for the expansion that has taken place in late years and may be expected to continue in the future. This comprises computing quarters for the magnetic, meteorologic, and astrophotographic branches of the establishment, fire proof houses for permanent storage of the books of calculation and photographic records, and a laboratory and dark galleries for spectroscopy and photography. In view of the advantage resulting from the use of electric lighting for the photographic, equatorial, and other instruments, it is very desirable that an electric-light installation should be provided for the observatory. This method of lighting is specially adapted to the requirements of an observatory, and might then be applied to the instruments generally, as has been done with marked success at the Royal Observatory, Cape Town, the Leipzig Observatory, and elsewhere. The new thirteen-inch photographic refractor has been brought into working shape, and is found to be very satisfactory and admirably adapted to its purpose. In particular, as its electrically controlled driving-clock proves to be very efficient, the great work of photographic star-charting to which the instrument is to be applied, will be thoroughly well done.

—For details of the spectroscopic, magnetic, and meteorologic work, reference must be had to the Astronomer Royal's report. The year 1890, however, presents some meteorologic peculiarities worth a note in passing. The aggregate number of hours during which the sun was above the horizon was 4,454. The ingenious Campbell-Stokes sunshine-recorder shows that there was bright sunshine for only 1,255 hours, or 35 hours below the average of the preceding 13 years. If constant sunshine is represented by unity, the mean proportion of sunshine for the year was thus only 0.282. The rainfall of 1890 was 21.9 inches, being 2.7 inches below the average of the preceding 49 years. The winter of 1890-91 was remarkable for a long period of exceptionally cold weather, which began November 25. From this day till the 22d of January the mean temperature on every day except January 13 was below the average. The temperature was continuously below 32 on November 27, 28, December 10 to 19, 22, 23, 25, 28 to 30, January 2, 6 to 8, 10, 11, 17 to 1

The mean temperature of December, 1890, was 10° below the average of the preceding forty-nine years. In this same month only 2.4 hours of sunshine were recorded. It is to be observed that the Board of Visitors of the Royal Observatory includes many of the leading and most eminent men of science in Great Britain. The names of Prof. Sir William Thomson, Sir George Airy, Lord Rayleigh, the Earl of Rosse, Sir George Stokes, Profs. Adams and Cayley, Dr. Huggins, and Prof. Darwin are sufficient guarantee that the work of its Government observatory, maintained at the public charges, is in every way worthy of the nation. Similar control of the affairs of our own national observatory must be urged with strenuous insistence for the attainment of similar ends.

HARDY'S CALCULUS.—I.

Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. Method of Rates. By Arthur Sherburne Hardy, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics in Dartmouth College. Boston: Ginn & Co. 8vo, pp. xi, 239.

THE stock example given in most treatises on the Differential Calculus in order to illustrate the nature of the quantities with which it deals and the processes it employs, is that of a body falling freely from a point above the surface of the earth. Suppose, in order to give precision to our conceptions, that a bullet is dropped from the top of the Washington Monument. Every one knows that as the bullet descends it moves "faster and faster." Briefly, in 1 second it falls 16 feet; in 2 seconds, 4 times as far, or 64 feet; in 3 seconds, 9 times 16, or 144 feet; in 4 seconds, 16 times 16, or 256 feet. The rule for finding the whole distance from "start to finish" for any given time is this: Multiply the square of the number of seconds by 16. Taking the seconds separately, the bullet falls 16 feet in the first, 48 feet in the next, 80 feet in the third, and 112 feet in the fourth second. All this will be found in any, the most elementary, text-book of natural philosophy. As the bullet goes "faster and faster" as it descends, the question seems very naturally to arise, How fast is it moving at any given instant, say the end of the third second? Put the question in the form of a problem, and it reads: How fast is the bullet moving at the end of the third second from the time it was dropped? The answer which the Differential Calculus gives is: At the rate of 96 feet per second. The rule for finding the answer for any given instant is: Multiply twice the number of seconds by 16. This also will be found in any common-school text-book of natural philosophy.

All this seems very simple, and even those who do not know how to go to work to solve the problem think they understand perfectly well what it means, and what the answer means. They will, perhaps, be surprised to learn that the real meaning of the problem and its answer, and the explanation and justification of the method by which that answer is obtained in the Differential Calculus—a method in principle as simple as the old-fashioned arithmetical rule for reducing fractions to a common denominator—are matters about which the profoundest mathematicians and philosophers, from the invention of the Calculus down to the present time, about two centuries, have differed and still differ. From the vast number who have written on the subject we select two or three examples. Augustus De Morgan—of whom Mr. Ball, in his 'History of Mathematics,' has truly said, "He was perhaps more deeply read in the philosophy and history of mathematics than any of his contemporaries"—in a work specially devoted to this subject, says: "It is matter of common observation that every one who commences this study, even with the best elementary works, finds himself in the dark until some accidental combination of his own ideas throws light upon the subject." To this the present writer may be permitted to add that it is matter of individual observation on his part that persons who had acquired facility in using the Calculus in the solution of problems, acknowledged their inability to give any explanation of its processes which was satisfactory to others, or even to themselves. De Morgan returns to the subject in various places in his works, and the general conclusion to be derived from all he has written is, that the manner in which the subject is treated by Leibnitz, though false in logic and absurd in language, is superior to every other in practice, and is, in fact, the method which almost everybody uses in practice even when, like himself, they adopt another method of explaining the philosophy of the subject.

The late Mr. Todhunter, one of the ablest English mathematicians of the present century, tells the student to submit to his teacher's guidance, keep to work, and he will come out all right. August Comte in the sixth *leçon* of his 'Philosophie Positive,' after a masterly summary of the different theories, comes to the conclusion that the Differential Calculus (*Calcul des Fonctions Indirectes*) is in a "veritably provisory state," and that no one can hope to understand it, "above all in its applications," without becoming acquainted with all the fundamentally different modes of explanation. This was in 1830. Thirteen years afterwards, in 1843, he published his 'Géometrie Analytique,' the only special mathematical treatise he ever wrote. Appended to it was a "Programme du Cours de Calcul Differentiel," etc., from which it appears that he was still of the same opinion. After another thirteen years, in 1856, he published the first volume of his 'Synthèse Subjective: Traité de Philosophie Mathématique,' the only volume he lived to complete. In it he pronounces an "irrevocable condemnation" of every attempt to demonstrate deductively the fundamental law of the Calculus, as alike "irrational and useless." In his opinion, the elementary principles of the Calculus were to be expounded, not proved, to be believed because they are always in accordance with the facts of experience.

We have no room for further citations. The present state of the Differential Calculus may be briefly described. By far the greater number of text-books adopt what is called the "Method of Limits." In our opinion its only advantage is that it enables the authors to cover up to a certain extent the real difficulties of the subject under a cloud of seeming analogies, a multitude of words, and a multiplicity of algebraical formulæ. Let us return to our problem and its answer: At what rate is a falling bullet moving at the end of the third second? Answer: At the rate of ninety-six feet per second. The *rate* of a moving body is the ratio of the number denoting the distance passed over in any portion of time to the number denoting the time occupied in passing over that distance. Thus, if a train of cars runs 10 miles in 20 minutes, or one-third of an hour, it is said to run the 10 miles at the rate of 30 miles an hour, because the ratio of 10 to one-third is 30. The rate is always found by dividing the number denoting the distance by the number denoting the time; more concisely, the ordinary way of stating it is: Divide the distance by the time. When the whole distance passed over divided by the whole time occupied in passing over it, and any distance taken anywhere within the whole divided by the time occupied in passing over it, give the same quotient, the motion is said to be uniform, or, in mathematical form, the distances are proportional to the times. Uniform motion is in almost, perhaps quite, all cases a mere mental conception, an intellectual assumption, never realized in fact. Assuming that the distance from New York to Philadelphia is 90 miles, and that a train of cars goes over it in 3 hours, we say it ran at the rate of 30 miles an hour. But the chances are infinitely great that it did not run any one mile in exactly two minutes. All numerical statements of a rate are statements of an average or mean rate. It is always so much space passed over in so much time. How the space was passed over, whether uniformly or otherwise, is another matter. In various departments of practical life the statement of a rate is reversed: instead of so many units of space in one unit of time, it is so many units of time occupied in passing over one unit of space. The one method is always easily convertible into the other. Tell a patron of the race-course that a certain horse trotted a certain distance at the rate of 25 miles an hour, and the statement does not at once convey any definite notion to his mind. Tell him the horse "trotted in 2:24," meaning 1 mile in 2 minutes 24 seconds, and all seems clear. Both statements mean the same thing; 2 minutes 24 seconds is the twenty-fifth part of one hour.

When we attempt to apply these very simple considerations to our problem and its answer, we are at once plunged in a maze of the most glaring absurdities. How long is the end of the third second? How much space did the bullet pass over *at* the end of the third second? How long was it after the third second ended before the fourth second began? The bullet, *at* the end of the third second, was in a certain definite position relatively to everything else in the universe, and after any interval, however small, it was in a different position. State any interval of time, though it be but the ten-thousand-millionth of a second, and, without going beyond the ground rules of arithmetic, we can show how far it went in that interval, what was its *mean* or *average* rate for that interval, and further that it did not move over that interval at any one rate. Stated in the language of logic and mathematics, "*at* an instant" and "*at* a point" are neither of them predicable of the subjects "motion" or "continuous change" of any kind. This is as true of uniform as of continuously varying motion. By an excusable and almost unavoidable license of language, we say that *at* a given instant a train of cars is running at a certain rate; but this is only to avoid the long circumlocution of saying: Taking any interval of time, great or small, within which the given instant lies, and dividing by it the distance passed over in that interval, you will get a certain rate. In popular language and in popular thought, what Kant would call the "pure intuition" (*reine Anschauung*) of motion is mixed up and confounded with a number of phenomena which always accompany it, but do not constitute it. But there is even in the minds of the uneducated a consciousness of the truth. Whoever first conceived the idea of taking instantaneous photographs, we presume, was a person who had never studied the Differential Calculus, or bothered himself about the metaphysics

of "pure intuitions *à priori*." But he certainly had a conception of the fact that just in proportion to the instantaneousness of the action of his camera, his photograph would resemble one of the same object in the same position at rest. It is needless to multiply illustrations. It may be asked, Is there not some difference, even at a given instant, between a body in motion and one at rest? There certainly is, but it is not to be ascertained by dividing a point in space by an instant in time, nor is it necessary to our purpose to investigate what that difference is. One thing is certain: there is no such condition or conception, no such thing or thought, as instantaneous motion. When we ask, At what rate is the bullet moving at the end of the third second? we are inquiring about some interval of time and some distance in space at the beginning or end of which or within which that instant occurs, or else the problem is meaningless and the answer absurd.

FOUR NOVELS.

Tales of Two Countries. By Alexander Kielland. Translated by William Archer. Harper & Bros.

Dally. By Maria Louise Pool. Harper & Bros.

Iduna, and Other Stories. By George A. Hibbard. Harper & Bros.

Main-Travelled Roads. By Hamlin Garland. *Arena* Publishing Company.

THE half-score of studies in imaginative prose which have just found such an admirable translator are, as may be learned from the short biography by Prof. Boyesen which serves as an introduction to them, the work of the Norwegian author's 'prentice hand. But it was none the less a hand which had already gained the skill to draw with firm and broad strokes. Tentative as they are, both in subject and treatment, no signs of hesitation appear in the execution of these small but boldly outlined sketches. What first strikes the reader after turning them over, one by one, is the range and variety of the themes on which they touch. The most unlike among them differ almost as widely in form and thought as a poem may from a prose tale. Before the collection was finished, the author had already made himself as familiar with the outward aspect, and with at least some phases of the life, of the Parisian boulevard as he was with the wild natural scenery of the peat-moor and heath and the paralyzing monotony of existence in a "stagnant little town" in his own country. "Romance and Reality," a brief history of matrimonial shipwreck, shows the dreary details of this provincial stagnation. Though told with humor and feeling, it is a trifle didactic in tone, and is, perhaps for this reason, less successful in general effect than its companion pieces. In "Pharaoh," a little spiritual drama, as strong as it is brief, the voice of the Parisian mob is heard, though only in a "long, withdrawing roar." A high order of talent was needed to produce within the compass of so few pages, and by means so simple as the chance visit of a commonplace young couple from Lyons to the fête of Saint-Germain, so large a perspective of life as is disclosed in the little episode called "At the Fair." Conspicuous amid the scenes which the painted curtains hide from the eyes of the holiday-makers is the hauntingly pathetic figure of the tiny mountebank, in green and red tights, who sobs, under his sorry fool's-cap, the refrain of his grief, "Maman m'a pris mon sou!" A happier picture of boyhood is drawn in "The Parsonage," where the opening of spring on the Norway coast is charmingly described, and where the rudely interrupted happiness is not restored, only because the good pastor, so wise in the ways of Providence, "could not understand his children." However slight in motive they may seem individually, these novelettes, as they were called in the original, have the qualities that put them in the ranks of the literature that has more than a day to live.

In spite of the somewhat confusing effect of the contrasted dialects in which it is largely written, 'Dally' contains some very entertaining pages. The half-savage little Carolina waif, brought by the whim of a fine lady, on a tour in the South, into the orderly New England home of the widow Abijah Jacobs, speedily wins her way into the affections of the simple-hearted woman, whose ideas of domestic economy she so sadly sets at defiance. An arch enemy, however, she does not fail to find. With some of her methods of avenging herself on the tormentor it will be difficult for other "professors" than the self-reproaching widow Jacobs not to sympathize, but the author's hardly concealed satisfaction in the "Nemesis" (paralytic in character) which overtakes "her that was a Jones," would surely put to blush the Ransom code of morals. Dally, in constant need of soap and water and of discipline, or in a softened mood "reckoning 'tis better to pray nor 'tis to cuss," is always attractive and possible; but Dally grown up, "almost iridescent" in face, and in a "clinging" gown of the New York lady's ordering, with even her adopted idioms smoothed from her speech, savors too much of the conventional type of heroine. Altogether, the rather melodramatic key to which the story is wound up towards the end does not form as happy a termination as was promised by the earlier quiet and recognizable descriptions of the good people of Ransom.

"Iduna," the first of the stories in the volume to which it gives its name, is chiefly noticeable as the failure of an ambitious attempt at originality. The young girl who has been kept in ignorance of death until, in a thunderstorm, "when there came a crash as if the world itself were shattered," she finds herself alone with it, can only be rivalled in unreality by the persons who surround her. The other stories reach merely a crude sensationalism. As specimens of style they offer some amusement, if not instruction. "We cackled a fusillade of cachinnations in salute to new ones [jokes], as if those of which we had been fond for years were as nothing in comparison." "The pellet of the pistol ball shall physic my present pain—characteristic cure—life true to itself to the last." In this last delicate fancy allowance must be made for the heated brain of the intending suicide to whom it is attributed. The following is a bit of the author's narrative: "The countenance . . . of a connoisseur, aglow as the banquet and flavor of some rare, age-thinned ichor of some royal vine melt along two senses for the instant seemingly made exquisitely one—were but blanks to the child's face as she finished the quick feat of swallowing the first mouthful."

If the title of 'Main-Travelled Roads' contains a suggestion of sentimental journeying, the suggestion is a delusion. Mr. Garland writes with the pen of uncompromising realism. The atmosphere to which he confines himself is that of farm life in the Mississippi Valley. Throughout his six short stories the point of view, as well as the literary manner, is consistently American. But this does not prevent the conclusion of the first one of the group from showing an indifference to the question of morality worthy of an advanced disciple of Flaubert or Daudet. It must be added, however, that the sundering of family ties resolved upon in "Ed" Kinney's neglected kitchen offers no dangerous illusions to the imagination. The note of "modernity" is nowhere more fully struck than when the Western tempter proposes that in the future they shall go "maybe to Europe" and to "the theatre and concerts." Life as seen through these pages does not present a buoyant face. The mortgage, the grasshopper, "the injustice of his fellow-men" combine to make the battle a losing one to the settler who "rises into a magnificent type" in the "dusk of that far-off valley." There is no doubt that power of observation and of rendering the results with exactness is disclosed in these stories; but they lose by a successive reading. Descriptions of the same uninviting interiors, the same birds and insects, the same hot corn-rows and wheat fields, finally produce an impression of monotony and of mannerism. "Under the Lion's Paw" and "Mrs. Ripley's Trip" make strong and successful appeals to the emotions, while "Among the Corn-Rows" looks into a future of brighter prospects than are realized by Mr. Garland's travellers on the main road.

The Battle of Seven Pines. By Gustavus W. Smith, formerly Major-General Confederate States Army. New York: C. G. Crawford. 8vo, pp. 202.

THE fighting at Seven Pines and Fair Oaks, near Richmond, on May 31 and June 1, 1862, gave rise to controversy on both National and Confederate sides. On the National side, Generals Keyes and Casey contended that the despatches and reports of McClellan did great injustice to Keyes's corps, and especially to Casey's division, by assuming that their being dislodged by the enemy was due to bad handling and lack of bravery, instead of its being the result of McClellan's own fault in putting them over the Chickahominy and leaving them unsupported against a crushing concentration of the Confederates upon them. On the Confederate side, Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, who was in command, was disabled by a severe wound late in the afternoon of May 31, and Gen. Smith, as second in rank, succeeded him. In the fighting of June 1 the National troops repulsed the attacks of the Confederates on the new lines to which Keyes's Corps had retreated, and in which it was supported by Sumner and Heintzelman. On June 2 President Davis put Gen. Lee in command of the Confederate Army, relieving Gen. Smith. The latter was taken ill just afterwards, and continued much broken in health, so that he did little active field service again. To this illness he attributes his failure to secure reports from subordinates, and thus to prevent erroneous accounts of the engagement from getting a rooted place in current history. He now makes a review of the events, collating reports on both sides, and adding much original material from his own papers and correspondence.

The drift of opinion has been in favor of the theory that Johnston's plan of attack had failed of full effect by reason of tardiness on the part of General Smith's troops (Whiting's and A. P. Hill's divisions) and those of General Huger in coöperating with Longstreet's troops on May 31, and that Smith failed in giving purpose and force to the Confederate movements on June 1. General Smith contends that this inverts the truth: that his troops and those of Huger were prompt in reaching the positions assigned them on the 31st, and that

the only error was that of Longstreet, who wholly missed the road upon which he was to march his own division, and took that upon which D. H. Hill had advanced, instead of moving parallel to Hill. He insists that Longstreet thus blocked the way against Huger's continued movement and became responsible for the disjointed attack which occurred, instead of the concentrated and overwhelming one which had been intended. As to the 1st of June, he argues that Longstreet failed to send reinforcements to the left wing of the Confederates as ordered, and represented himself as fighting at desperate odds so as to need help himself instead of sending it to others; that, in fact, Longstreet was not seriously engaged or seriously threatened, and that the purpose of the commandant (Smith himself) was thus defeated.

It is only fair to say that the array of evidence which Gen. Smith presents is strong enough to command attention, and must modify the received reports of this episode in the civil war unless it can be rebutted by superior weight of proof. His documents (of some of the more important of which he gives facsimiles) are from the chief actors themselves, and seem to be of unquestionable authenticity. His tone is dignified and self-respecting, and he strikes manfully at the real points in dispute without indulging in pettiness or wrangling. His book, therefore, must be regarded as a worthy treatment of an historic question of real doubt. Gen. Longstreet is still living, though it is reported that his work upon his military memoirs has been suspended by reason of his delicate health; and it is to be hoped that he may not fail to give the world a full explanation of the facts so strongly marshalled by Gen. Smith.

Notes on American Schools and Training Colleges. By J. G. Fitch, M.A., LL.D. Macmillan & Co. Pp. 133.

THESE notes, although reprinted from an English educational blue-book, have a special value for Americans, inasmuch as they show how our public-school system appears to one of the most eminent of English educators; and, although in the main encouraging, they intensify our consciousness of the defects of this system. The author, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Training Colleges, during a recent visit to this country saw some of our best schools; and in this report to Parliament he embodies the results of his investigation.

Naturally, one of the first things mentioned by Mr. Fitch is the diversity of organization and of administration in American schools, due to the autonomy of the local authorities in educational matters; and he rightly says that the one prerogative of an independent and autonomous government with which the States are not likely to part is the absolute control of public education. Perhaps the most serious evil in our public-school system mentioned by Mr. Fitch is the one growing out of this autonomy of the local authorities, namely, the influence of local politics in school administration. This influence he notes especially in relation to the school superintendent. Of this peculiarly American officer he says:

"Within his own domain, whether a State, a county, or a city, he combines in himself the characters of a minister of public instruction, an inspector of schools, a licenser of teachers, and a professor of pedagogy. . . . The main drawback to the usefulness of the school superintendent is his precarious tenure of office. He is appointed by a local school committee, which is itself directly or indirectly the product of popular election, and which is liable to frequent changes. He is himself subject to biennial or even to annual reëlection, and cannot count on that reëlection unless he is *persona grata* to the local authority of the day. . . . Every school superintendent has, therefore, a personal interest in local elections, which sometimes necessarily identifies him with party controversies, and which must in any case tend to withdraw his attention from his proper duties."

The remedy suggested by Mr. Fitch is the application of the principles of civil-service reform in the sphere of education. He adds:

"A body of public officers like the members of the permanent Civil Service in England, bound by the traditional etiquette of their profession to hold themselves aloof from all party politics, and to place their best services at the disposal of chiefs of different administrations, yet, at the same time, secure in their position *quamdiu se bene gesserint*, does not exist in America. Until it exists, the nation will not induce the ablest men to take up departmental duty as a life's profession, nor will it obtain, even from those who now undertake it, the fullest and highest service which they are capable of rendering."

Mr. Fitch has spared us the disgrace of an extended report on the way teachers are appointed in many of our cities, and on their liability to displacement because of partisan intrigue, nepotism, and prejudices of sex and nationality. He might have added that, until the principles of civil-service reform are extended to the appointment and tenure of office of teachers, the nation will not secure the most efficient service in the school-room.

Noting the evil influence of local politics, the disorganized condition of our educational "system," and the inadequate provision for education in some States—Alabama, for example, according to official report, providing free public schools only seventy and one-half days in the year—Mr. Fitch seems to regret that there is no central authority that has any influence. The one important point that he has failed to notice, however, is that, in a republic like ours, the autonomy of the local authorities is the great safeguard of education. It is this which gives every good citizen a feeling of personal interest and responsibility in the schools of his own municipality or township. Any form of national or State aid to education—land-grants, Blair Bill, or the like—or any scheme of centralization, is likely to be opposed by thoughtful educators, unless some guarantee can be given that a wholesome measure of local responsibility will be retained. A distinguishing merit (and not the only one) of the old "district-school" system was that it intensified this feeling of local responsibility. Probably such a general interest in the public schools, and sense of individual responsibility for their welfare, as prevailed in New England towns under this system, has never existed elsewhere in this country or in England. Elaborate educational machinery will not atone for lack of popular interest in the schools. As Spencer has attempted to show, we must not educate our children at the cost of uneducating the community. Mr. Fitch himself says that "the one great safeguard for the continued and rapid improvement of education in America is the universal interest shown in it by the community"; but this interest is in great degree due to the autonomy of the local authorities in educational matters.

Among the other evils noticed by Mr. Fitch are the following: small playgrounds and too limited air-space for pupils in some schools, subterraneous influences in the introduction of school-books, too much memorizing, idolatry of text-books, method-cramming and slavery to pedagogical formulæ, the crushing out of individuality and originality by the custom of judging schools by methods and machinery adopted rather than by results achieved. Among the things that he commends are the continuous blackboards on the walls of our school-rooms, the practice of oral composition, the adoption of the Grube method and the custom of giving original problems in arithmetic, the excellence of the discipline, the lessons in patriotism, platform exercises, teachers' institutes and associations, the Chautauqua movement, Teachers' Reading Circles, the popular interest in education, and the attention given by teachers to the philosophy of education and to psychology. Many points of similarity and of contrast between English and American schools and teachers are also presented, an account of our normal schools and means of educating teachers is given, and some attention is devoted to Canadian schools.

The book as a whole is well written and interesting. The author, already favorably known to Americans by his 'Lectures on Teaching,' will increase their gratitude and esteem by the appreciative spirit in which he has made this brief but valuable survey of American education.

Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America. 1773–1783. Vol. VIII. Nos. 754 to 849. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE eighth volume of these facsimiles is more interesting than those which immediately preceded it. We are not obliged, in reading it, to climb again the treadmill of the petty intrigues and small conspiracies of 1777. The end of that year brought to Paris the news of Burgoyne's surrender, and thus opened a new period in the dealings of the French Court with the American Commissioners. This may, indeed, be considered the beginning of the diplomatic history of the United States. Franklin, Deane, and Lee ceased to be the agents of a band of insurgents to whom unacknowledged aid was to be given through secret channels, and became the representatives of an independent nation, dealing openly, if not quite on equal terms, with French Ministers of State. In the first half of January, 1778, we find the Commissioners answering two questions. The papers are preserved in the French Foreign Office. In each case question and answer are in the same handwriting, yet there can be little doubt that the questions were really asked on the part of the French Government and answered by the American envoys. One document is in the handwriting of Dr. Franklin. It runs as follows:

"Question. What is necessary to be done to give such Satisfaction to the American Commissioners, as to engage them not to listen to any Propositions from England for a new Connection with that Country?

"Answer. The Commissioners have long since proposed a Treaty of Amity and Commerce, which is not yet concluded: the immediate Conclusion of that Treaty will remove the Uncertainty they are under with regard to it, and give them such a Reliance on the Friendship of France, as to reject firmly all Propositions made to them of Peace from England, which have not for their Basis the entire Freedom and Independence of America, both in Matters of Government and Commerce." (774.)

The date, 8th January, 1778, has been added by another hand. The second paper, written out by Silas Deane, appears to have been presented three days later:

"Question. What is necessary to be done immediately so to satisfy the Congress and the People of America with the Utility and Certainty of the Friendship of France and Spain,

in securing their Independence that they also will reject all Propositions from England for Peace inconsistent with that Independence.

"Answer. The Commissioners think, that an immediate engagement on the Part of these Kingdoms to guarantee the present Possessions of the Congress in America, with such others as they may acquire on the Continent during the War; and either to enter into a War against England, or to furnish the Congress with Money (if they do not) to carry on the War, untill a safe Peace can be obtained, and untill, all that the English now possess on the Continent shall be conquered, which will be necessary both for the weakening of their Power, and for securing the Fisheries to the United States and their allies. And that the Treaty containing Engagements to this Effect be directly communicated to the Congress.

"If France and Spain, or either of them as Auxiliary, would furnish us with a Fleet of Six or Eight Sail of the Line or more, this would give the Congress and the People of America the most certain Prospect, of a favorable, and speedy End of the War, to their full Satisfaction, and prevent their listening to any Accommodation or Terms, short of absolute Independency." (776.)

It was less than a month from the time that these questions were answered that two treaties, one of amity and commerce, the other of alliance, were signed between the Most Christian King and the United States of America.

The eighth volume of the facsimiles is not entirely given up to diplomacy. It contains several letters from French officers in America, and especially from the adventurer known as Baron de Kalb. The claim to gratitude on the part of Americans, set up by some lovers of Germany in behalf of that country on account of the services of Kalb and Steuben, is one of the comic things in our history. John Kalb, whose title of Baron would appear to have been assumed without authority, was a thoroughgoing soldier of fortune. Although born in Germany, he never in his life held a German commission. He was employed in the French service, and in that of Poland in the French interest, and rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He came to America with the connivance of the French Ministry, but principally as an agent of the Comte de Broglie. This nobleman had held a position of power and influence in the reign of Louis XV. Through him the secret correspondence which that monarch kept up in foreign courts, behind the backs of his acknowledged advisers, had been carried on. The accession of Louis XVI. had put an end to these intrigues and left the Comte de Broglie without occupation. His active mind conceived a bold project for a new rise to importance. He would go to America, with sufficient guarantees as to salary and honors, supersede Washington, become generalissimo, protector, or what not, and return to Europe crowned with laurels and clothed in glory. That this scheme, long suspected, was actually entertained, there is now no doubt. Friedrich Kapp explained the whole matter in his Life of Kalb. The latter was to prepare Broglie's path in America, and was sent out with Lafayette for that purpose. The Marquis, who was only nineteen years old, was probably ignorant of the scheme. Whether Silas Deane knew of it when he gave Kalb his commission as Major-General in the army of the United States, is uncertain. Nor will it ever be known what Kalb himself thought of the plan, in his own heart, at the time when he left France with instructions to see about carrying it out. He had already been in America, in 1768, to collect information concerning the state of the country and the condition of public feeling, for the use of the French Ministers. He may be supposed to have known from the beginning, better than Broglie, how futile were the latter's hopes. In any case, he had not been long in America, in 1777, before he sent word to his employer that the great project which he had taken up with so much pleasure, could not possibly succeed. The proposed plan was not feasible. It would be considered a crying injustice to Washington and an act of violence towards the country (755).

The volume before us contains several of Kalb's letters, full of dissatisfaction and of the desire to get back to France. But he looked on Broglie as his patron, and awaited the latter's permission for his return, doing good military service meanwhile to the United States, whose pay he was taking, but constantly writing long reports in cipher for the use of the French Ministers and nobles, in whom his chief hopes of future advancement were centred. These reports were probably the chief cause of his being retained in America by his patrons in Europe. He complains frequently of not receiving letters. Once only, as we know from Kapp, did Broglie vouchsafe him a reply. By it Kalb was instructed to send his despatches in cipher thenceforth direct to the French Minister of War. Thus is the double part which he played the more clearly exposed.

Crime and Its Causes. By William Douglas Morrison, of H. M. Prison, Wandsworth. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1891.

It is not often the case that public opinion is so confuted as it is by this little book. There is probably no proposition that would command more general assent than the statement that crime is caused by poverty. A recent writer upon socialism, and one of rather noticeably moderate views, has declared that a community where no one was hungry would be the veritable celestial city, and a similar belief colors deeply the philanthropy of the day. Upon this assumption Mr. Morrison forcibly remarks:

"It has been reserved for this generation to propagate the absurdity that the want of money is the root of all evil; all the wisest teachers of mankind have hitherto been disposed to think differently, and criminal statistics are far from demonstrating that they are wrong. . . . A mere increase of material prosperity generates as many evils as it destroys; it may diminish offences against property, but it augments offences against the person, and multiplies drunkenness to an alarming extent. While it is an undoubted fact that material wretchedness has a debasing effect both morally and physically, it is also equally true that the same results are sometimes found to flow from an increase of economic well-being."

These paradoxical statements would perhaps be dismissed by many persons as mere expressions of opinion, but Mr. Morrison remorselessly proceeds to adduce overwhelming proofs of his position. In the first place, he explodes the common theory that crime is most rife during the winter months, when work is hard to obtain. From the last sextennial diagram of the Prison Commissioners, it appears that the number of prisoners in the local prisons of England and Wales is lowest in February, and increases until October, when it begins to decline and continues to lessen until February is again reached. This phenomenon has been explained as due to the habits of the tramps, who leave the workhouses in spring and roam about in a predatory manner during the warm weather. Unfortunately for this theory, Mr. Morrison is provided with some figures as to the arrests for vagrancy, which indicate that far more persons are imprisoned on this charge in winter than in summer. What is even more contrary to our prepossessions as to the effects of the English climate, the number of suicides in London during the months of May and June is to the number in November and December as 10 to 7.

Mr. Morrison next proceeds to fortify his position by figures concerning crimes committed by destitute persons. He defines a destitute person as one who is homeless and out of work, and points out that the offences most likely to be committed by such persons are begging and theft. Cases of this kind are about 15 per cent. of those tried in England and Wales, 8 per cent. being offences against property, and the remainder offences against the vagrancy acts. But it appears that one-half of the offenders against property, so far from being destitute, were actually at work and earning wages at the time of their arrest. Of the remaining 4 per cent., one-half belong to the class of habitual criminals. Only 2 per cent., therefore, are driven to crime by destitution.

Of the offenders against the vagrancy acts less than half were charged with begging, and of these many were professional beggars. By a careful process of exclusion, Mr. Morrison reaches the result that of these also not more than 2 per cent. are made criminals by destitution. He quotes as additional evidence in support of his conclusion a fact referred to by M. Monod of the Ministry of the Interior in France. It seems that a benevolent citizen determined to offer work at four francs a day to every sturdy beggar who presented himself. In the course of eight months he was favored with calls from 727 persons of this class, all complaining of lack of work. Every one was asked to come the following day to receive a letter that would insure him employment at the wages above specified. More than half (415) never came for the letter; 138 returned for the letter, but never presented it; only 18 worked more than three days.

Upon the whole, Mr. Morrison concludes that not 5 per cent. of the persons tried for crime in England are driven to offend by absolute want, and he observes that the practice of attributing crime to this cause tends to encourage it. "It creates a false sentiment of compassion for the utterly worthless; it prevents them from being dealt with according to their deserts, and, worst of all, it is apt to make the working population imagine that there is a community of interests between them and the criminal classes which does not in reality exist." Mr. Morrison adds that his personal experience has satisfied him that real workingmen seldom beg when out of work, and that those who do are to a large extent elderly and enfeebled men deprived of employment by trade-union rules, which require the payment of equal wages to all members. When men become unable to do a full day's work at their trade, these rules prevent them from working at their trade at all. It is significant that in spite of the economic disadvantages under which women labor, only one woman becomes a beggar to every four men, or, excluding fallen women, to every eight men. If we proceed to examine the figures showing the number of offences which from their character must be committed by comparatively well-to-do persons, we shall find no reason to modify these conclusions. In spite of the fact that this class has many facilities for escaping the penalty of imprisonment, they probably furnish quite their full quota to the jails. It is said that in Prussia the liberal professions contribute twice their proper share to the criminal population, and a like state of affairs seems to exist in other countries. Speaking generally, the number of offences against

property is greater among rich than among poor nations. Twice as many persons are tried for theft in England as in Ireland; thrice as many in England as in Spain. In England one person in forty-two is proceeded against criminally; in India one in one hundred and ninety-five.

Another misconception corrected by Mr. Morrison relates to the volume of crime in England, which is popularly supposed to be decreasing. This belief is based upon the fact that there was a daily average of over 20,000 persons in prison in 1878, and of about 15,000 in 1888. This average, however, depends upon the length of sentence prisoners receive, as well as upon the number of prisoners committed. As a matter of fact, this number is greater than before, from which it follows that there are more short sentences now pronounced, although there is no material diminution in the number of grave offences. This increase of crime is due partly to changes in legislation. In 1888–'89 more than 80,000 persons were tried for violating the Elementary Education Act, and Mr. Morrison comments in a passage of extreme importance upon the tendency of modern legislatures to pass penal laws affecting the daily lives of large classes in the community. The effect of these laws is to fill the jails, and put the prison taint upon a greater number of the population. A man may be sent to prison for violating a municipal by-law, and emerge with criminal associations that will make him a greater menace to society than a hundred offenders against municipal regulations. Wise laws will keep the people out of jail rather than drive them into it.

We cannot consider the evidence that leads Mr. Morrison to think that crime is increasing in other countries, and we are not unwilling to pass over the subject, because he has been misled concerning the United States. We believe that no satisfactory statistics are in existence concerning the amount of crime in this country. Mr. Morrison is excusable for stating, upon the authority of Mr. D. A. Wells and Mr. H. Wines, that it is increasing, but we do not understand that Mr. Wines establishes this proposition by unimpeachable figures, and Mr. Wells is himself misled by a comparison of the census returns of 1850 and 1880. These returns were not made upon the same principle, and are useless for purposes of comparison. As to the influence of climate upon crime, Mr. Morrison's reasoning is extremely ingenious, although not to our mind altogether satisfactory, but our space does not allow us to state his conclusions. For the same reason we must pass over the valuable observations upon the relations of sex and age to crime, the punishment of crime, and the physical and mental peculiarities of criminals. The illustrations that we have given of Mr. Morrison's method will indicate the importance of his conclusions. We shall only add that we have seldom met with a sociological investigation more distinguished for its thoroughly scientific spirit, or for the elegance of its statistical inductions.

Francis Wayland. By James O. Murray, Dean and Professor of English Literature in Princeton College. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

Prof. Murray's book is a great improvement on the sketches of Dr. Muhlenberg and Wilbur Fisk in the same series, while still far below the level of Dr. Allen's 'Jonathan Edwards.' The sketch of Wayland is too little of a study, too much of a eulogy, but at least the author has a genuine admiration for his character and work, and does not damn him with faint praise after the manner of Prof. Prentice in his sketch of Fisk, nor bang-whang the glory of his sect into our ears; having, perhaps, taken warning from his predecessor's terrible example. The division of his matter has led to some redundancy, the last chapters, on Dr. Wayland as an educator, author, preacher, philanthropist, and citizen, going over a good deal of ground that had been traversed in the first part. It is not clear why the substance of these chapters should not all have been interwoven with the chapters that repeat—for it is mainly repetition and abridgment of a more elaborate biography—the story of his busy life.

The personal influences that shaped Wayland's earlier manhood were those of Moses Stuart of Andover and Dr. Nott of Union College, two very different men, the first a genuine scholar, the second an ecclesiastico-political educator. Dr. Wayland's first and only regular pastorate was in Boston, and, while his biographer appeals from his own mournful depreciation of it, it is evident that it was a failure in all concrete particulars. Dr. Wayland's strength was in occasional sermons, and these did more for his reputation than for his parish, which had no prosperity with him. The most famous occasional sermon of his life was that preached on Sunday evening, October 26, 1823, when he was twenty-seven years old, "The Moral Dignity of the Missionary Enterprise." It had a great currency in many languages, and did more, perhaps, than any sermon of the century to incite the churches to missionary activities; yet, as preached, it seems to have fallen flat enough on the little company that heard it, chilled by the nor'easter which obliged the preacher to wear his great coat while uttering his majestic periods.

His presidency of Brown University from 1827 to 1855 was the best work of his life. The institution was in a very feeble state when he took charge of it, and in almost comical disorder. It was a characteristic feature that "a barrel of ale was always kept on tap in the cellar, to which all undergraduates had free access." But, notwithstanding his reforms of administration, the improvement of the library and the introduction of scientific studies, the number of students steadily decreased. In 1840 he went to Europe, where he had slight appreciation of anything beautiful, and was not a little nettled to find in England "all the talk about abolition," with some candid expressions about the attitude of the American churches and about a recent volume of his own, in which his interpretation of the Constitution had got the better of his moral sense. Notwithstanding these discouragements, he studied carefully the English universities, and carried back with him many ideas that, coalescing with his original tendencies, produced, a few years later, a policy of reform which his struggling and decadent college accepted to prevent his resignation. It was a day of small things: a total endowment of $34,000 had not been increased a cent for forty years. Prof. Murray gives a good analysis of Dr. Wayland's project of reform, which is too elaborate to reproduce, but it places Dr. Wayland in the front rank of college reformers, among the first in his demand for wider scientific studies and the elective system. Some of his ideas have not stood the test of time, but the most central have done so, and their general adoption by the college was the beginning of its better days, though an endowment of $125,000 which he asked for, and got, did perhaps as much. His plea for a longer course of study must be taken in connection with the preparation then demanded, and other features of his scheme, to be understood. It was not essentially contradictory of President Eliot's recommendation of a three-years course.

When Dr. Wayland resigned his office in 1855, he had ten years more to live, for several of which he supplied the pulpit of the church in Providence which Roger Williams founded, and did much literary work. His three text-books have now reached a sale of 200,000 copies. His 'Political Economy' had the merit of advocating free trade in an intensely protectionist community. His 'Intellectual Philosophy' never had the currency of his 'Moral Science.' The latter, published in 1835, pronounced for immediate emancipation, but with limitations that drew the abolitionists' fire. In 1838 his 'Limitations of Human Responsibility' argued the inability of the general Government to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia, a position from which he receded before long. His biographer has given, though not without regret and in an apologetic fashion, evidence of Wayland's distrust of the abolitionists' methods, and his criticism of their perfervid speech. There is something touching in the innocence of Prof. Murray's suggestion that if he had lived to see the work of emancipation fully accomplished by the war, "no man would have sooner recognized the merits of these abolitionists." In 1844 he voted for Henry Clay, but in 1848 he was a Free-Soiler, and in the fifties a stern opponent of the Slave Power's arrogant aggressions. In religious liberality, combined with an unbending orthodoxy with the edges of its Calvinism somewhat smoothed away, he was distinctly in advance of the majority of Christians in his generation. What was dearest to him in the Baptist polity of his life-long devotion was its assertion of the rights of free thought and the independence of the local congregation.

State and Federal Government in Switzerland. By John Martin Vincent, Ph.D., Librarian and Instructor in the Department of History and Politics, Johns Hopkins University. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. 1891.

The historian of a hundred years hence may well remark that, at the close of the nineteenth century, there was a general dissatisfaction throughout the United States with the working of our political institutions, and, as a consequence, there sprang up on all sides societies for the study of political science with the object of finding out the cause of the prevailing troubles; that chairs of political science were established in most of the leading universities for the same purpose, the occupants vying with each other in publishing studies of the different governments of the world. Among the foremost in this work is the Johns Hopkins University, and in its publications the work of Mr. Vincent needs to take no second place. There is no Government which deserves more attention in the United States than that of Switzerland, and this little book furnishes a statement of the facts so clear and exhaustive as to call for unqualified admiration and praise. In fact, it bristles all over with points for discussion having an electric force of attraction. We must confine ourselves to two, and those very briefly, the relation of the executive to the legislative, and the much-talked-of *referendum*.

The Federal Executive consists of seven

members, chosen by the two houses in joint session for three years, from all Swiss citizens eligible to either branch of the Legislature, though the candidates not only need not but must not be members of the Legislature. One of the seven members is chosen each year, also by the houses in joint session, to be the President for that year. By the Constitution, the Federal Council introduces bills or resolutions into the Federal Assembly, and gives its opinion upon the proposals submitted to it by the councils or the cantons. It administers the finances of the Confederation, introduces the budget, and submits accounts of receipts and expenses. The members of the Federal Council have the right to speak, but not to vote, in either house of the Federal Assembly, and also the right to make motions on the subject under consideration. Yet the members of the Council do not resign when the Assembly votes against them, but keep quietly on for the term of three years, which is all the more remarkable as they owe their election in the first place to the Assembly, and not to the people, as our Executive does.

As to the *referendum*, according to which, upon the demand of a certain number of citizens, any law must be submitted to a vote of the people, though Mr. Vincent advocates its introduction into this country, we do not believe it could be made to work successfully even in the States. It is quite alien to the habits of our people, and with the number of large cities, and the increasing proportion of the foreign element, the experiment, cumbrous as it is, would be too hazardous. But, on the other hand, we already have the *referendum*, only it applies to persons instead of particular laws. If the Swiss Executive had after three years to go back to the people for approval, having in the meantime been constantly held to public cross-examination and accountability, it is pretty safe to assume that no laws would be passed which the people would seriously disapprove.

There is a curious resemblance between the *Landesgemeinde*, as here described, and our New England town meeting; every item of business to be discussed has to be printed in a "memorial," precisely as in our town "warrant." As a reminder that Switzerland cannot be quoted as a rule for other countries, there is an elective judiciary which seems to work well.

Vorlesungen über die Algebra der Logik. Von Dr. Ernst Schröder. Leipzig: Teubner. 1890. Vol. I. Pp. 717.

THE Algebra of Logic has here received an admirable setting forth at the hands of Dr. Schröder. The book is doubtless too large and too diffuse, but it is chiefly intended for a German audience (the subject has been hitherto neglected in that country), and Germans are not frightened away by voluminous reading. The doctrine is almost uniformly sound, and, what is of chief consequence, the arguments in favor of admitting the subject among the branches of human learning are well calculated to convey conviction. The arguments which have been advanced on the other side have sometimes been of a very curious nature. For instance, Mr. Bradley, in his 'Principles of Logic,' scouts it because it does nothing for reasoning that is not syllogistic—for example, for such reasoning as this: A is north of B, B=C, therefore A is north of C. In the first place, it is not true that reasoning of this kind is not included in an Algebra of Logic. The formal definition of the primary copula is simply that it is transitive—that is, that it is subject to the single condition that when A stands in a certain relation to B, and B stands in that same relation (or a limiting case of it) to C, then A stands in that same relation to C. Any relation whatever which fulfils this condition is already included in the Algebra of the primary copula—the copula, that is, which represents, in the first instance, the words "all . . . are . . ."

But in the second place, even if the Algebra of Logic covered syllogism only, no one could doubt its value who had tried to perform without it the extremely complicated pieces of syllogistic reasoning which it can work out by purely mechanical processes. The fact that not many instances of reasoning of this sort can be got from real life shows nothing. As Dr. Schröder points out, it is not strange that this kind of reasoning was seldom attempted at a time when it was almost impossible of accomplishment. Mr. McColl has already made a useful application of the theory to the determination of the new limits of several integrals upon a change in the order of integration.

Dr. Schröder makes constant acknowledgment, in very graceful terms, to the work of Mr. Charles S. Peirce and his school. He rightly considers that Boole's contributions to the subject possess, at present, only an historical interest. He seems to us to attribute rather less value than is due to the method of Mr. O. H. Mitchell as described in the 'Studies in Logic by Members of the Johns Hopkins University.'

Dr. Schröder's book is the only one, in any language, in which the subject can be properly approached by one who takes it up for the first time. We learn that a Spanish logician has undertaken a translation of it. For an English-speaking public, a somewhat different presentation of the subject would be preferable.

Choses d'Amérique; Les Crises Économique et Religieuse aux États-Unis en 1890. Par Max Leclerc. Paris: Plon. 1891.

M. LECLERC has collected into a book a number of articles which he contributed last summer and autumn to the *Revue Bleue* and the *Journal des Débats*, of which he is one of the editors. They are superior in many respects to the current newspaper correspondence and to the usual productions of French travellers in this country, being written with greater intelligence, and being notably free from the ridiculous blunders in the spelling of English words and proper names which one expects as a matter of course in French books. The only exception to be noted is that McKinley is uniformly called MacKinley—a pardonable concession to the inability of Frenchmen to make head or tail of the abbreviated form.

Of course, it is not possible, during a sojourn of three or four months, mostly spent in hurried travelling, to obtain a thorough knowledge of any country, and it is not surprising that a book written under such circumstances should contain statements that Americans cannot endorse. It is to be said, in the author's favor, that he is accurate when he speaks of subjects concerning which correct information can be obtained from newspapers and from conversation with public men, and that if he falls into error, it is mainly when he treats of national traits, manners, and customs, and generally of matters which no one can safely generalize upon except after years of intimate intercourse with various classes of the people.

He writes very intelligently and discriminately concerning the election of 1890, although he seems to consider it a victory of the Farmers' Alliance, and attributes to that movement an exaggerated importance—an overestimate which was more excusable at the time he wrote than it would be now. On the other hand, when he treats of our domestic manners he passes his brush over the time-worn stencil-plate for which we are indebted to the combined imaginations of our foreign critics and our native humorists. To cite a single instance, he appears to regard the so-called personal column in certain newspapers as a tolerated method of obtaining acquaintances of the opposite sex among respectable people. Another misconception is the great influence which he attributes to the Catholic Church. To this he is no doubt led by a combination of the patriotic with the religious bias, to use the terminology of Herbert Spencer.

Perhaps the most interesting passages to American readers are those in which M. Leclerc suggests, with some detail, a method by which France might retaliate the vexatious provisions of the McKinley Administrative Bill, and, by touching the pockets of American farmers, bring about a repeal or modification of the offensive sections. He proposes that all exporters of American products, such as pork, lard, etc., should be required to go before French consuls to procure certificates of inspection, etc, for which a fee should be charged, and the same burdensome formalities should be imposed that we require of a French manufacturer who sells his wares to us. He argues that if some such course were pursued in the case of our cattle, petroleum, and other exports, our farmers and producers would receive an object-lesson in international comity which would open their eyes to the unfairness of our recent legislation, and bring about a change of policy.

Essays, Reviews, and Addresses. By James Martineau. Selected and revised by the author. II.—Ecclesiastical, Historical. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE second volume of Martineau's collected essays has an interest more personal to himself than the first. It brings out very clearly his unsectarian spirit, as marked as that of Channing, and which, like that of Channing, has often made him an object of suspicion and distrust to the sectarians of the Unitarian body. His grounds of sympathy with and distrust of this body come out clearest in two letters, "The Unitarian Position" and "Church Life or Sect Life?" He believes in no dogmatic basis of church union whatsoever, and would not be the minister of a church having a doctrinal name, nor belong to an association having any doctrinal limitation, though his private opinion is of the clearest Unitarian stamp. A very interesting and suggestive essay is that on "A Way Out of the Trinitarian Controversy." It is through the recognition that what Trinitarians worship as the Son, Unitarians worship as the Father. Several of the papers deal with the Established Church and its relations with the dissenting churches, and bring out the author's noble but impracticable dream of the National Church as a federal union of all the sects, independent of doctrinal agreement. In the preface there is a deep-drawn sigh that his "life-long conviction and intense aspiration has ceased to meet with any response, beyond a little unmeaning lip-homage of those who practically contradict it." It is evident that the trend of things is quite another way, towards no establishment whatever. Martineau's scheme, to which he has frequently returned, is extremely academic, and that of an

idealist who quite underrates the organic vitality of religious bodies.

There are two admirable studies of Charles Kingsley's writings, and that on his 'Alexandria and her Schools' will, let us hope, send some to it who did not know it in its day. There is incidental treatment of John Henry Newman's writings in several of the papers, while one is devoted entirely to his 'Difficulties of Anglicans.' That assault on Protestantism is fairly met, and the wide intelligence and knowledge of Martineau afford a striking contrast to the brilliant polemic of Newman, then whistling loud to keep his courage up in untried scenes.

A Dictionary of Classical Antiquities, Mythology, Religion, Literature, and Art. From the German of Dr. Oskar Seyffert. Revised and edited with additions by Henry Nettleship, A. M., and J. E. Sandys, Litt. D. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891.

THIS is a work well fitted to do for schools and the lower classes in colleges what Smith's Dictionary of Antiquities does for more advanced students. The original is already in wide use in Germany, although it appeared only in 1882. Its particular merit is that, besides supplying articles on the subjects usually treated in a Dictionary of Antiquities, it contains also information on matters of Mythology and Literature, for which one generally goes to a Classical Dictionary. Thus the student finds all these topics treated in one easily handled volume of some 700 pages, excellently printed in large clear type on fine paper.

The English editors have not rested content with a mere translation into real English free from every trace of Germanisms. They have corrected (with the help of Dr. Seyffert) and enlarged the original as well. Among the entirely new or largely rewritten articles are those on Mosaics, Pigments, Vases (admirably treated, with seventeen illustrations), the Edict of Diocletian, the Law of Gortyna, and notices of artists and architects. It is in the direction of art that the book especially excels. This is seen also in the number and beauty of the illustrations, in which there is a great advance over the original. Together with the plans, they are generally selected from the best modern works, and in execution surpass anything which we have seen in an English book of this nature. The summaries of the history of Greek and Latin literature, as well as articles on the different authors and on religious matters, will be of particular usefulness.

In fact, teachers and students are nowadays getting to be so well supplied with manuals for the study of *Realien* that there is a danger that the reading of the ancient authors themselves will be restricted in the too great particularity of study bestowed upon some few of them. This would be a real misfortune; yet we see signs of it all about us in many "special researches" made by so-called advanced students in the regular college course and in graduate departments. With their reading confined to parts of certain authors that are ordinarily required for the A. B. degree, they set forth gayly upon some quest, as ignorant of the wide fields of literature that lie unvisited about them as was the Rev. Mr. Casaubon of the German investigations along the lines which he fondly deemed all his own. The work of individual research should not be discouraged, for nothing can sooner arouse the ambition of the young student, nor better train him in exactness and in critical acumen; but the vision must be broadened and the scope of the mind increased by the widest possible reading of the authors. The true way to scholarship was surely pointed out in the fifth of Ritschl's ten commandments—"*Du sollst lesen lernen.*"

But to return to our dictionary. The errors in such a work, as we lately remarked upon a similar occasion, will disclose themselves only slowly and in the course of use. In this book, besides the inexcusable lack of an index, that which will, perhaps, be most deplored by teachers is the omission to state with exactness the sources from which many of the pictures are taken. In the preface we read that as far as possible the original authority on which they rest has been stated in every case. But "Vase-painting" or "Pompeii" (*sic*) will not satisfy the teacher who wishes to get for himself or his pupil a more complete account of the subject treated than this book affords. It would have been easy to give the page of the work from which the illustration was actually taken, yet this is done in extremely few instances. In one of these, however, the statement of the source would throw doubt upon the value of the whole book, had we not ample evidence that generally modern works had supplied the illustrations. This is the plan of the temple enclosure at Eleusis (not in Seyffert's original), which is taken from the 'Unedited Antiquities of Attica,' a work published in 1817. Of course the plan is almost useless now. Baedeker's 'Greece' had supplied a better. But the editors are not often caught napping in this fashion, and even Aristotle's newly found treatise has been put into service. It is unfortunate that in this dictionary, as well as in the new Smith, the statement in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* about the theatre of Megalopolis (already acknowledged to have been premature) has been accepted as gospel. The debate between the Old Stagers and the No Stagers, too, is not left open, as it certainly might have been with safety, but the No Stagers get small comfort in a footnote. Under "Drama," in the account of the costume of comedy, not a word is said about the σωμάτιον. A still stranger omission, in a somewhat full account of the law courts, is that of the ἀνάκρισις, that special peculiarity of Attic judicial procedure. Here also the description of the method of voting in court is defective. Under Persius, it is said that the so-called prŏlogue is omitted by Jahn in his latest edition. It stands in its ordinary place in the edition of 1868; in the revision by Bücheler since Jahn's death it is placed after the satires. For the lighting of the vestal fire by a burning *glass* there is no evidence whatever. A welcome feature and a task well performed is the marking of the quantities in Greek and Latin words throughout the book.

Popular Lectures and Addresses. By Sir William Thomson. Vol. III. Navigational Affairs. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 12mo.

THE first volume of this collection was noticed in this paper some time since, and is now followed by the third instead of the second, which is yet to appear. Though the subjects treated are not usually considered interesting, the work will be found very attractive to the educated general public, to yachtsmen on long voyages, and even to professional navigators. The first lecture embraces the general subject of navigation and the methods employed, both old and new. Of these last, the most important is what is known as Sumner's method of determining the place of a ship at sea, which we owe to the late Capt. Thomas B. Sumner of Boston, and which is now, we believe, in general use. Many interesting and valuable special contrivances for signalling are described, and the whole chapter is eminently readable and suggestive. This is followed by a chapter on the tides, giving a very clear account of the theories and methods of observation, and including an account of the machine known as the tide-predicter, contrived by Prof. James Thomson and Sir William Thomson, his brother. Five valuable appendices follow this lecture. The third lecture, with two appendices, embraces terrestrial magnetism. A paper on deep-sea soundings follows. Sir William Thomson gives in this the history of his invention of the steel-wire sounding apparatus which was rejected by the British Admiralty, but which has been brought in this country by Lieutenant-Commander Sigsbee to a great degree of perfection, and, in the form devised by him, was used in the voyage of the *Blake*. The curious reader will do well to peruse the chapter on this subject in Mr. Agassiz's beautiful work. Very interesting and instructive papers on Light-house Characteristics and on laying deep-sea cables follow. For yachtsmen and shipbuilders the chief attraction of the volume will probably be the lecture on Ship Waves, with which the work ends. Some parts of the book are too abstruse for readers not versed in the higher mathematics, who will probably say,

—"les mathématiques
Donnent des coliques";

but even these will find the greater part of the work well worthy study.

Elementary Text-Book of Botany, for the use of schools. By Edith Aitken, late scholar of Girton College, and certificated student in first-class honors of the University of Cambridge. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xi., 248.

THIS little book was written by a lady teacher who had sought in vain for a botanical text-book suited to the needs of her class. Professedly proceeding from the familiar to the unfamiliar, she has succeeded in developing the subject in a very attractive way—a way that will fairly entice the student to a closer and closer observation of nature as seen in common plants, and will lead the young disciple along a pleasant path to a very considerable knowledge of the science. After a few pages concerning the root, the stem, the leaf, the flower, and the fruit, she takes up the Scotch fir, and, with it as text, disposes of Gymnosperms in three pages. The wild hyacinth, the daffodil, an iris, an orchid, and meadow grass sufficiently explain the Monocotyledons. A buttercup, a poppy, a violet, and a few other common plants do the same for the Dicotyledons. Part second is a similar "description of some typical non-flowering plants, or cryptogams," leading the way from *Protococcus* and the yeast plant through several algæ up to a moss and a fern. Part third is a more minute description of the structure and physiology of flowering plants, beginning with fertilization and ending with the curious behavior of climbing, sensitive, or insectivorous plants, the whole interspersed with sufficiently explicit directions for practical work. A good teacher, with a small class of bright and willing students, would find not only profit but much pleasure in pursuing Miss Aitken's system for a season. The floral formulas which are given, such as K (5), C 5, A (5+5), G^1 for a pea-blossom, look rather mysterious, and do not seem to be explained in the book. But any good teacher could tell what they mean, and, once

understood, the pupil would try to find the formula for each new flower. The figures are mostly very good, though many of them are old acquaintances, as they needs must be, since the author modestly disclaims any pretensions to originality. The real originality is in the charming treatment of the whole subject, and in omitting much non-essential matter which one usually finds in so called elementary text-books.

Homes of Family Names in Great Britain. By Henry Brougham Guppy. London. 1890. 8vo, pp. 601.

NOTWITHSTANDING that this book has been moderately praised by the *Athenæum*, we cannot advise any American genealogist to buy it in the hope of deriving assistance from its pages. Mr. Guppy desired to investigate the local distribution of British surnames, and sought a short-cut to his end. Assuming that the farmers were the least migratory class of the population, he examined the Post-office Directory for the names of all farmers. Every name which was borne by more than 7-10 of 1 per cent. of the whole was taken into account. He then found that while each county possessed some special surnames, others were common to more counties, so that he made five classes of names—general names found in 30-40 counties; common names, 20–29 counties; regional names, 10–29 counties; district names, 4–9 counties; county names, 2–3 counties. But to a genealogist it is no news to be told that Smith is a common name in 40 counties, or Hobbs in 9; and of little assistance to find that Smiths abound in Gloucestershire more than in Devonshire. All the valuable results of this examination of the records of farmers could have been summed up in a magazine article, and would have even then been valuable simply as confirming what every one felt was the truth, without minute researches.

In respect to names peculiar to each county, this book is vague and misleading. The author tries to check off his "farmer" statistics by the well-known data concerning "gentle" families. He sprinkles in extracts from county histories without regard to date, and gives analogies which are absurd. The whole of this part of his performance is beneath criticism; and the fact that such work receives even moderate praise in London shows how much the study of local history there has declined since the death of John Gough Nichols.

Noctes Manilianae. Scripsit R. Ellis. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891.

IT is only in the past two years that really scientific criticism of the author of the 'Astronomica' has been made possible by Thomas's collation of the oldest MS., the Gembloux, with Jacobi's edition. Jacobi believed that Vossianus 2 was the chief authority, while Bechert has endeavored to show that it is full of interpolations. Dr. Ellis takes issue with both, contending that the Vossianus is singularly free from corruption, but holding it inferior to the Gembloux, which he rates above all others. The 'Noctes' comprise some two hundred pages of emendations and notes, written in Latin, and everywhere marked by that soundness of reasoning and power of critical acumen which scholars have learned to expect from the English editor of Catullus. Some few of the notes have already appeared in the *Journal of Philology* and the *Classical Review*, but by far the greater part is new matter, of a most welcome kind, in a comparatively novel field. The volume, which is beautifully printed, contains also an essay on the much vexed question of the name of the author of the 'Astronomica,' and some notes on the 'Aratea' of Germanicus. Dr. Ellis believes in the traditional Manilius, and expresses the opinion that neither Cicero nor Avienus was as happy as Germanicus in rendering Aratus's poem.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. What's Bred in the Bone. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
A Sketch in the Ideal. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Atherton, Gertrude F. A Question of Time. John W. Lovell Co. $1.
Bovet, Madame de. Three Months' Tour in Ireland. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.25.
Campbell, Rev. J. G. The Fians; or Stories, Poems, and Traditions of Fionn and his Warrior Band. London: David Nutt.
Cooke, F. H. The Law of Life Insurance. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $4.
Daniel, J. W. Negotiable Instruments. 2 vols. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $12.
Duruy, Victor. History of the Middle Ages. Henry Holt & Co. $1.60.
Énault, Louis. Carine, a Story of Sweden. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.25.
Frémont, Mrs. Jessie B. The Will and the Way Stories. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Flaubert, Gustave. Madame Bovary. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Garnett, Miss L. J. M. The Women of Turkey and their Folk-lore. Parts II. and III.: Jewish and Moslem Women. London: David Nutt.
Hancock, A. U. John Auburntop. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Malot, Hector. Romain Kalbris. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Newhall, Charles S. The Leaf-Collector's Handbook and Herbarium. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Oahspe: A New Bible. Boston: Oahspe Publishing Association.
Pendleton, Edmund. One Woman's Way. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Roche, J. J. The Story of the Filibusters. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Savage, Col. R. H. My Official Wife. New York: The Home Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Spencer, Herbert. Justice. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Stephenson, Prof. A. Public Lands and Agrarian Laws of the Roman Republic. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.

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THE ELDERAGE.—Family School for Young Ladies, pleasantly located in the suburbs of the city. The Misses BANGS, Principals.

CONNECTICUT, Norwalk.

MISS BAIRD'S INSTITUTE.—A Home School for Girls and Young Ladies. Primary, Intermediate, and College Preparatory Courses, the Languages, Music, and Art. Careful attention to morals and manners. Healthful location; gymnasium. Terms moderate.

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CONNECTICUT, Stamford.

MISS AIKEN'S SCHOOL FOR YOUNG Ladies.—Thirty-sixth year begins Oct. 7, 1891. For circulars address. MISS CATHERINE AIKEN.

DELAWARE, Wilmington, Franklin Street.

THE MISSES HEBB'S ENGLISH, French and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and girls reopens September 22, 1891.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

HOWARD UNIVERSITY OPENS ON September 18, when students will be received to its Industrial, Normal, Preparatory, and College Departments. The Theological, Medical, and Law Departments open on October 1. No distinction of race or sex. Students competent to enter the College course will receive special aid if necessary.
Rev. J. E. RANKIN, D.D., LL.D., President.
J. B. JOHNSON, Secretary.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

THE COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY.—College, Medical School, Dental School, Law School, Scientific School. For catalogues, address Dr. JAMES C. WELLING, President.

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THE SCHOOL, ST. AUGUSTINE.—Term opens Oct. 5. Primary and Preparatory Departments for boys and girls. For particulars, apply to W. HEWETSON.

ILLINOIS, Highland Park, 23 miles north of Chicago.

*NORTHWESTERN MILITARY ACA*demy. Col. H. P. DAVIDSON, Superintendent. Four courses of study and full corps of experienced instructors. Graduates commissioned in the State Militia. Send for Catalogue.

ILLINOIS, Morgan Park, 13 miles from Chicago.

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ILLINOIS, Woodstock.

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LOUISIANA, New Orleans, 247 Prytania Street.

MRS. F. D. BLAKE AND MRS. L. Polk Chapman's French and English Boarding and Day School for Girls reopens Oct. 1, 1891. Students prepared for college. Ample grounds for outdoor exercise.

MARYLAND, Annapolis.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—103d Session commences Sept. 16. Eight Departments. Buildings heated by steam. Excellent Preparatory School attached. Terms moderate. Special rates and scholarships for sons of the clergy. For Catalogue address the President, THOMAS FELL, LL.D., Ph.D.

Schools.

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MARYLAND, Baltimore, 16 Mount Vernon Place East.

MOUNT VERNON INSTITUTE.—Mrs. JULIA R. TUTWILER and Mrs. ANNE CABELL RUST, Principals. Boarding and Day School for Young Ladies and Little Girls.
Boarding Pupils limited to twenty. Students prepared for college.

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*MISS RANDOLPH'S SCHOOL, LO*cated in the most beautiful part of the city, opens Sept. 17, with a very able corps of teachers. Students prepared for college. Principals—Miss S. N. Randolph, Miss A. L. Armstrong.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 122-124 West Franklin St.

THE EDGEWORTH SCHOOL FOR Girls, Mrs. H. P. LEFEBVRE, Principal, will reopen September 24, 1891.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 915 and 917 N. Charles St.

SOUTHERN HOME SCHOOL for Girls. Mrs. W. M. CARY, Miss CARY.
Fiftieth year. Summer address, Bar Harbor, Me.

MARYLAND, Catonsville.

ST. TIMOTHY'S ENGLISH, FRENCH and German School for Girls and Young Ladies reopens September 21, 1891.
Principals: Miss M. C. CARTER, Miss S. R. CARTER.

MARYLAND, St. Mary's County, Charlotte Hall.

1774-1891.—*CHARLOTTE HALL* School.—Situation unsurpassed for health. English, Classical, Mathematical, Commercial, and Military Courses. Board and tuition, $160 for 10 months. For particulars, address
R. W. SILVESTER.

MARYLAND, St. George's Hall, St. George's, Balto. Co.

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*OAK GROVE HOME SCHOOL REO*pens September 24, 1891. Pupils received at Smith and Wellesley on our certificate.
Miss VRYLING W. BUFFUM, A.B., Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Amherst.

MRS. W. F. STEARNS'S HOME School for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 22, 1891.

MASSACHUSETTS, Andover.

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CHAUNCY-HALL SCHOOL (64th Year). For boys and girls.—Preparation for the Mass. Institute of Technology is a specialty. Reference is made to the Institute Faculty. The location of the school building, on Copley Square, is especially attractive and is very near the Institute.
Preparation also for college (with or without Greek) and for business. Special students received.

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ROXBURY LATIN SCHOOL.—247TH year. Five vacancies in the first class. Boys will be received without examination who have passed the Harvard Preliminaries. Others will be examined Sept. 19 at 9 o'clock. Address for particulars.
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Schools.

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BROWNE & NICHOLS'S SCHOOL FOR Boys will reopen Wednesday, September 30, 1891. Entrance and condition examinations September 29. A Preparatory Department for boys between the ages of 9 and 12. Provision made for a home for six boys.

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HOME FOR BOYS.—DR. ABBOT AD mits not more than four boys into his family, to fit for college or educate privately. Separate tuition, with best of care in all respects. Charming location, with fine tennis-court. F. E. ABBOT, Ph.D

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MISS INGOLS'S SCHOOL FOR GIRLS will reopen October 1, 1891. Application may be made at 12 Concord Avenue.

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THE CAMBRIDGE SCHOOL (FOR Girls). Application should be made to Mr. ARTHUR GILMAN, Director.

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*CONCORD HOME SCHOOL.—TWEN-*ty-five boys prepared for college, scientific school, or business. All the advantages of family life combined with best mental and physical training. Buildings new and constructed according to latest models. Seventy-five acres of land. JAMES S. GARLAND, Master.

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POWDER POINT SCHOOL, Duxbury. —22 boys. Laboratories. FREDERICK B. KNAPP, S.B. (M.I.T.), Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Quincy.

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MASSACHUSETTS, South Braintree.

THE THAYER ACADEMY.—FIRST term, fifteenth year, will begin Wednesday, September 16. For information address J. B. SEWALL.

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WEST NEWTON ENGLISH AND Classical School.—A family school for girls and boys. Preparation for all high educational institutions and for a useful life. For catalogue, address ALLEN BROTHERS.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

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Schools.

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References—The Hon. Seth Low, Pres. Columbia College; the Rev. L. Clark Seelye, D.D., President Smith College, Northampton, Mass.; Truman J. Backus, LL.D., Principal of Packer Institute, Brooklyn; James G. Croswell, Head Master of the Brearley School for Girls, N. Y.

NEW YORK CITY, 423 Madison Avenue.

J. H. MORSE'S SCHOOL FOR BOYS opens October 1. For circulars and information, address the Principal at Cotuit, Mass.

NEW YORK CITY, 55 West 47th Street.

MISS GIBBONS' SCHOOL FOR GIRLS will reopen Sept. 30. Three boarding pupils will be received into the family.

Schools.

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*RAVENSCROFT SCHOOL.—PREPAR-*atory Boarding and Day School for Boys. Head Master, Ronald McDonald, B.A., Oxford.

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Schools.

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Miss FLORENCE BALDWIN

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PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1350 Pine St.

MISS ANABLE'S BOARDING AND Day School for Young Ladies will reopen Sept. 28.

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SWARTHMORE COLLEGE OPENS 9th month, 8th, 1891. Thirty minutes from Broad Street Station, Phila. Under care of Friends. Full College Courses for both sexes leading to Classical, Engineering, Scientific, and Literary degrees. Healthful location, extensive grounds, buildings, machine-shops, laboratories, and libraries. For particulars and Catalogue, address
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Schools.

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COMFORTABLE HOME OFFERED IN a German family to young gentlemen. Lessons in music, singing, and German if desired. Terms moderate. Reference, G. W. Gail & Ax, Baltimore.
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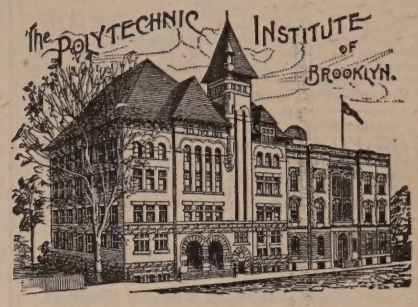

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[*List of Schools continued on page v.*]

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 20, 1891.

The Week.

THE multiplying evidence of good crops at home and of a large foreign demand has at last made itself felt in the Stock Exchange. The principal, if not the only, cloud on the market during the past two or three months has been the apprehension of a change in the standard of value. Even that apprehension cannot overbalance the favorable outlook in the material world. It is never safe to make predictions as to the general course of the stock market or as to special parts of it. But it is as certain that the bulls will have their innings after a long depression as that the bears will have theirs after a protracted "boom." The "boom" in the grain market seems to have come very suddenly, like the outburst of a Yellowstone geyser, yet it ought not to surprise anybody. All the facts that are now known had been known weeks before. It only needed something unexpected to "touch off" the geyser. This was found in the Russian ukase against the exportation of rye. The ukase will not make the difference of one grain in the amount of food raised this year for human consumption, although it may prevent the most useful and economical distribution of what has been raised. But its effect upon the imaginations of men both here and abroad has been very great, and we may expect great fluctuations from this time onward, in which the stock market will share. It should be borne in mind, however, that there is a limit to the price that the Old World can pay for our surplus. Europe is far from being prosperous at the present time. The crisis of last autumn has not yet spent its force. Therefore the grain speculators who are jostling each other so fiercely in the wheat pits of New York, Chicago, and St. Louis, should beware lest they get loaded with grain which foreign countries cannot take off their hands at a profit to them.

The Secretary of the Treasury, in the numerous interviews that he allows to newspaper reporters, sometimes tells more than he ought to. He told a *Herald* reporter the other day that, in case a large amount of 4½ per cent. bonds should be presented for payment, he had more resources for meeting them than the public were aware of. Among these he mentioned the 5 per cent. redemption fund of the national banks, and the balances in the hands of disbursing officers. The 5 per cent. fund must not be confounded with the fund deposited by national banks going into liquidation, or retiring their circulation. It is a separate fund for the daily redemption of national bank notes, in gold or in greenbacks. It amounts to about $10,000,000. It is at least doubtful whether the Secretary has the right to use this money for any purpose except that for which it has been deposited. The law says that the amount so deposited by each bank "shall be counted as a part of its lawful reserve." The Secretary would have no right to lay his hands on any other part of a bank's lawful reserve; it is not easy to see how his rights in this particular are enhanced by the fact that one part of the bank's lawful reserve happens to be situated within his reach. Disbursing officers' balances are, however, quite within his discretion, and there is no doubt that, by curtailing and postponing here and there, the Secretary can meet these maturing bonds without much difficulty.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt's report to the President upon the Civil-Service Commission's investigation of the doings of Republican Federal office-holders in primaries in Baltimore is a very valuable document, marked by its author's characteristic candor. There are several passages in it which will serve as definitions for those peculiar proceedings which are carried on under the general name of "politics" by the professionals of both parties in all parts of the country. The quarrel which he was investigating was between two factions of the Republican party, both claiming to be "loyal to the Administration," it being made plain by their testimony that "both sides use the term 'Administration' as merely synonymous with office-holders." On this point Mr. Roosevelt says:

> "As far as I could find out from the witnesses, there seemed to be no question of principle at stake at all, but one of offices merely. Seemingly, many regarded victory in the primaries as of more importance than victory at the polls, because the former gave control of the party machinery, and would, therefore, in their own language, entitle them to recognition in the distribution of patronage. Apparently they cared primarily for the offices, party success being purely a secondary consideration, important only because it facilitated getting them. It seems to me that this fact alone furnishes a tolerably accurate measure of the much-vaunted usefulness to any party of the office-mongering, office-seeking, and office-holding variety of ward worker."

That is a very accurate description of what is going on in this State at present, and fits the "Tom" Platt style of politics perfectly. Mr. Roosevelt says there was a "general feeling that whatever side had the majority of judges of election had the election," and that cheating in primaries was spoken of as being too universal and common to excite remark.

The comment which Mr. Roosevelt makes upon these frank confessions well deserves the prayerful consideration of President Harrison, and we hope will not fail to receive it:

> "This testimony has a certain value aside from its relation to the case in question, for undoubtedly the witnesses simply expressed in naked form what the average politician of the spoils variety believes. No greater service can be rendered the cause of decent government than to impress on the mind of the average citizen that such views as those expressed are those which are held by the great bulk of the people actively interested in opposing the cause of civil-service reform. Politics cannot possibly be put upon a healthy basis until this idea is absolutely eradicated. The ward worker who is simply in politics for the offices, is a curse to the community."

We agree with all that most sincerely, but we suggest that there is another way by which greater service can be rendered to the cause of decent government than by impressing the facts mentioned on the mind of the average citizen, and that is by so impressing them upon the mind of the average President that, after entering upon the duties of his office, he will keep the civil-service-reform pledges which he made before election. Mr. Roosevelt's report goes on to show that the spoilsmen have complete control of the Baltimore Post-office, and that the Postmaster makes no secret of managing his office in their interest. All that he says is true, and furnishes the most startling picture yet presented to the President of the fruits of his policy in violating his civil-service-reform pledges. What he has accomplished in Baltimore he is now seeking to accomplish in New York. Mr. Roosevelt has already done some service here in letting the light of publicity in upon the doings of our spoilsmen, and if Collector Fassett goes on as he has begun, the Commissioner will have abundant field for further usefulness in the near future.

It is clearly the intention of Mr. Fassett to leave no doubt in the public mind as to why he has been put by "Tom" Platt into the office of Collector. He had scarcely taken the oath of office before he left the city to take the leadership of the Platt faction in a party quarrel in Chemung County. He appeared there on Saturday, took the lead of the Platt forces in person, presided over their convention to elect delegates to the Republican State Convention, and had himself chosen to head the delegation. As the anti-Platt faction held a separate convention at the same time, and chose an anti-Platt delegation, Chemung County will present rival delegations, thus precipitating a factional wrangle in the State Convention with the Collector of the Port of New York as one of the leaders of the fray. On the other side the leaders are two Republican postmasters, one of Elmira and the other of Horseheads, so that the Republican State Convention is likely to have the edifying spectacle of a lively fight over spoils between two factions each under the leadership of Harrison appointees. We trust that in view of this singular proceeding the usual humbug about devotion to civil-service-reform principles will be omitted.

Last week the letter-carriers held a national convention at Detroit, Mich., and adopted a resolution calling for the extension of the Civil-Service Law to all free-delivery

cities of the country, instead of its being confined, as now, to the comparatively few offices which have fifty employees. This week the chiefs of fire departments throughout the country have been holding a national convention at Springfield, Mass., and the sentiment against the spoils system was equally pronounced. The President of the Association laid great stress upon the importance of keeping the fire department out of politics. "A politician," he said, "has no right in a fire department. To bring politics into a department is to destroy its usefulness. A man worthy to be a fireman must be educated in his business, and can't be a ward heeler at the same time." He mentioned the names of a number of worthy chiefs hanging by a thread on account of politics, and expressed his belief that such a condition of affairs was entirely unjust. These remarks were delivered with great earnestness, and were received with rounds of applause by his hearers.

The Attorney-General of Pennsylvania, Mr. Hensel, has served notice upon the Philadelphia newspapers which paid Bardsley a 40 per cent. commission on city advertising, that they must refund the amount to the State before September 1, or he will bring suit to recover it. One of the newspapers concerned, the *Inquirer*, is very indignant at the Attorney-General's conduct, calling it "bluff" and "buncombe," declaring that it is "nobody's business" what became of the money which the newspapers chose to pay as a bonus to Bardsley for the advertising, and expressing its belief that Mr. Hensel can never recover a cent of it. After this impressive deliverance the *Inquirer* goes on to say:

> "It seems that the commission paid found its way back to Bardsley without the knowledge of the papers. The incident only shows what a grasping individual this particular scoundrel was. He stopped at nothing to make a penny. But, for the benefit of all future Treasurers, the *Inquirer* wishes to remark right here that it proposes to halt this sort of business. It is not dependent upon official 'ads.' It will publish them like any other advertisements, but no commissions will be paid from this office, and it will make it pretty lively for any official or agent that seeks them from any newspaper in the future."

The pretence herein advanced that the newspapers in question had no suspicion that the 40 per cent. commission they were paying went to Bardsley is put forward, of course, in the hope of concealing from the public the fact that they were dividing with "this particular scoundrel" the profits of a raid on the city treasury.

Writing about Mr. Lowell's Americanism, in a cable message published in Sunday's *Tribune*, Mr. G. W. Smalley takes occasion to denounce in fitting terms the attacks which the *Tribune* made upon it a few years ago. These attacks, it will be remembered, were made at a time when the *Tribune* was courting the support of the Pat Ford or dynamite faction of the Irish voters for Mr. Blaine's candidacy. They began in January, 1888, and ran on through the summer. While they were in progress, Pat Ford was held up to public admiration as a man who was "essentially American in his views of all questions relating to his adopted country." One of the bitterest attacks was published on January 5, 1888, under the title of "Americanism," and another on April 15, after Mr. Lowell had delivered his address before the Reform Club on the subject of "The Independent in Politics." In order to show how perfectly Mr. Smalley's rebuke fits the *Tribune's* crime, we place it side by side with a passage from the article of the first-named date:

[G. W. Smalley in the *Tribune*, Aug. 16, 1891.]

His Americanism was the dominant passion of his life; that, and not poetry, nor letters, nor even those friendships and affections which were to him as the air he breathed.

There is no need of any private testimony to it, mine or another's. It is writ large throughout the record of the years he spent in England. It is stamped on every act he did as Minister, and was the warp on which was woven the web of all his English associations and sympathies. We all know how often, while he was Minister, the contrary was said. It was said sometimes ignorantly, often dishonestly, always either with some personal ill-will or with some political end to be compassed by the sayer. If I refer to those splenetic criticisms, it is mainly in order to express the hope that now, when they can no longer serve a selfish purpose, they may be forgotten, as he tried to forget them. Undoubtedly they gave him pain. So far the object of those who uttered them was accomplished. But none of them, nor all of them, ever caused him to swerve from the path he had traced for himself, the path of strict duty, which, while he was Minister, he followed patiently and loyally to the end.

[Editorial Article in the *Tribune*, Jan. 5, 1888.]

Americanism has remained unchanged since "Jonathan to John" and "Commemoration Ode" were written. Mr. Lowell, who was once saturated with its spirit, has gradually got out of touch with it. His protracted residence in England, the social attentions showered upon him there, his intimacy with titled people, the lavish compliments paid to his after-dinner speeches, and the prestige he has won in London as an Englishman who was accidentally born in the United States, but never really belonged there, has wrought a complete transformation of his Americanism. Even when he was Minister at the Court of St. James's he had shown indifference to the rights of Americans imprisoned abroad; and since the appointment of his successor he has become more and more English and less and less American in his opinions and tastes. So complete is the estrangement that he no longer feels at home in America. . . . What Americanism was in Mr. Lowell's best days it has remained. . . . This is Americanism of the highest type. Mr. Lowell no longer represents it; he has no faith in it, and has almost ceased to understand it.

A decision of much importance has just been rendered at Memphis by Judge Hammond of the United States Circuit Court, Judge Jackson concurring, the principal point involved being the interpretation of the phrase "due process of law" in the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. As is well known, this phrase and the equivalent expression, "the law of the land," got into our constitutions owing to a popular misconception of their importance, but they have not been disregarded, although their interpretation has greatly perplexed the courts. The case decided by Judge Hammond was that of a Seventh-Day Adventist who was found guilty of committing a nuisance at common law by ploughing on Sunday. He sued out a writ of habeas corpus upon the ground that there was no law in Tennessee to justify his conviction, and that therefore he was deprived of his liberty without due process of law. In some very interesting *obiter dicta* Judge Hammond expresses the opinion that the prisoner was wrongfully convicted, reviewing Sunday legislation and the question of religious liberty at length; but he finds that the courts of the United States have no power to interfere in the matter. These courts, he says, are not tribunals that can review and reverse convictions in the State courts "that may be illegal in the sense that they are founded on an erroneous judgment as to what the statute or the common law of the State may be. If so, every conviction in the State courts would be reversible in the Federal courts where errors of law could be assigned." The principal ground, however, upon which Judge Hammond bases his decision is that the judges of a State are the depositaries of the common law of that State, just as the statute-book is the depository of the statute law; "and when they speak, the law is established and none can gainsay it." In this case, the verdict of the jury and the judgment of the court established by "due process of law" two things: one, that to work on Sunday was a nuisance according to the common law of Tennessee; the other, that the prisoner had worked on Sunday. The prisoner was therefore remanded, although Judge Hammond is entirely satisfied that there is no such common law as the Tennessee court declared. The opinion is carefully considered, and perhaps goes no further than the slaughter-house cases, but we should have been glad to have Judge Hammond state just what rights are secured by the Fourteenth Amendment, if it does not protect a citizen against being punished for violating a law which has no existence. As the case will be taken to the Supreme Court by the Seventh-Day Adventists, it is unnecessary to comment on it further at present, but the decision there will be awaited with much interest.

The confidential agent in this country of the Chilian Congressional party has just published an "Exposition" of the cause which he represents. We should think it well adapted to its object of securing sympathy from Americans for men who are struggling for what they sincerely believe are their rights and liberties. Quite unlike the frothy manifesto recently issued in Washington as the justification of Balmaceda, this pamphlet is remarkably restrained and dignified in tone, and vigorous in logic and fact more than in rhetoric. If it glides over the constitutional difficulties which undoubtedly exist in its own case, it sets forth with unsparing hand the utterly illegal and outrageous procedure of Balmaceda. Especially does it make clear, by the citation of documents proving his high-handed overriding of the election laws, how impossible it is for the Congressionalists to recognize for a moment the farcical elections of the so-called new Congress and the new President. The latter is but a weak tool in the hands of the Dictator, and there is no

prospect that the beginning of his term of office, September 18, will bring any relief to the unhappy country. This appeal of the Congressional party to the American love of liberty and legality ought to meet with a hearty response in private and in the press, even if it cannot do so, for the present, officially.

The speech of Sir William Harcourt at the dinner given by the National Liberal Club to Mr. Brand, the winner of the great victory at the Wisbech election, was naturally of a triumphant character. He was able, however, to demonstrate to his audience that exultation was thoroughly justifiable. He pointed out that since 1886 there had been 88 bye-elections of members of Parliament in Great Britain, exclusive of duplicates, the latest of which only were considered. So large a number is certainly sufficient to give a fair indication of popular feeling; moreover, its fairness could not be complained of by the Government, for they had deliberately made many of the vacancies. In 1886 the Unionists had 63 of these seats and the Liberals 25, a Unionist majority of 38. Of the 88 vacancies, the Liberals have won 20 seats and the Unionists 1, a net loss of 19 for the Unionists. Their majority has thus disappeared, and each party has 44 seats out of the 88. Sir W. Harcourt ironically asks if the Liberals win 19 seats out of 88 vacated, how many they will win out of the 479 which have not been vacated. He makes his calculations even more conclusive by comparing the seats contested in 1886 and at the bye-elections, which number 53. Of these in 1886, the Unionists held 35 and the Liberals 18. Now the Liberals hold 35 and the Unionists 18. In 1886 the Unionist votes numbered 167,000 and the Liberal 158,000. At the bye-elections the Unionists polled 179,000 votes and the Liberals polled 196,000—a change from a Unionist majority of 9,000 to a Liberal majority of 15,000. The conclusion is unavoidable that at the next general election the Liberal party will probably win a majority of the seats in Parliament.

Although there is some controversy as to the real amount of the French budget, it is admitted that it shows an improvement over previous years. The chief source of confusion is the "extra-budgetary" expenditure for various public works, which amounted in 1883 to the frightful sum of 834,000,000 francs. Some of the debt incurred in this way has been paid off, and the charges for the remainder have been to a great extent merged in the estimates for ordinary expenditure. The policy of large expenditure for public works has been perforce abandoned during the last two or three years, and the official reporter of the budget admits that a policy which, during profound peace, resulted in an increase of debt of nearly 650,000,000 francs in a single year, was manifestly dangerous. It is calculated that the debt will increase during 1892 by 180,000,000 francs, but it will at the same time be reduced through redemption by 68,000,000, leaving a net increase of only 112,000,000. This is a great gain, but it is to be remembered that it has been attained in part by increased taxation. The statement does not include the debts of the departments and communes, but, without computing them, the public debt amounts to 31½ milliards of francs. Within a few years some of this can be refunded at a lower rate of interest, which will diminish the burden, but, on the other hand, new expenses are continually arising. Thus, the law providing pensions for members of the civil service contemplated that the sums withheld from their salaries for this purpose should be accumulated as a reserve. But this has not been done, and, these officers now attaining in increased numbers the age when they can claim pensions, the charge upon the revenue is becoming serious. In 1868 this charge was only 14,000,000 francs more than what was retained from salaries, but in 1878 it was 23,000,000, in 1888 it was 30,000,000; and when the maximum is reached it will probably be 86,000,000. The insurance of workmen, if carried out, would be a terrible additional burden. With such a financial record, after twenty years of peace, it would seem impossible for France to go to war and remain solvent.

A St. Petersburg correspondent of the Berlin *Nation* calls attention to a new phase of Russian policy in respect to the building of railroads. The first railroad built in the empire—the Moscow and St. Petersburg Line—was constructed on the strictest principles of State ownership and control, as was also, in the beginning, the line to Warsaw and the Austrian frontier. But the enormous cost and unscientific nature of the railroad-building of the State led, in 1857, to the creation of a private corporation—the "Great Russian Railroad Company"—to which the State lines were leased, the Moscow road not until 1867, however. But this new system was not prosperous, for one reason and another, and the company's arrears of indebtedness to the Government swelled year by year. This state of things brought about a fresh attempt to solve the problem—namely, a sort of combination of the principles of State and private ownership. The returns to the Imperial Treasury from leased roads were set aside as a special fund for railroad purposes, and out of it the Government bought a certain amount of the stock of all new roads authorized to be built. This stock was retained by the Government, but upon the basis of it a special issue of "consolidated railroad bonds" was made, thus allying the financial interests of the Treasury with those of the companies. This plan was followed until about 1884, and under it a rapid expansion of the Russian railroad system was attained. Still, the credit of the Government was all the while being more and more involved, without a proportionate direction of the affairs of the roads being accorded it, and this fact, together with the general and increasing influence of State socialism in Europe, brought about a return to the old method of State control. The special fund for the purchase of railroad stock was abolished, the policy of granting charters to private corporations was abruptly checked, and the building of new lines strictly reserved to the Government. Thus the circle had been rounded to the starting-point. But things have not moved as expected during the last half-a-dozen years; more effort has been expended upon the "nationalization" of the existing private lines than upon the opening of new roads. Meanwhile, the great project of a Siberian line to the Pacific has been pressing upon the Government as a commercial and military necessity; the question was how to get the funds to build it. Rumors began to circulate that private capital would be called in; but it turns out, according to the correspondent mentioned, that the principle of State ownership is to be dropped in quite another way. The Government has decided to build the Siberian line, putting into it all available railroad funds in sight for ten years ahead; but, in order not to block entirely the building of other contemplated and needed roads, it has determined to turn them over to private corporations, to many of which charters have already been granted.

Germany is experiencing the depopulation of country districts for the building up of cities that is now so common a phenomenon in civilized nations. In her case, the process was longer delayed, but has made up for that by an accelerated speed. The returns of the census taken on the first of December, 1890, show that the great cities have gone on drawing into their maw the increase of the rural population. The cities above 100,000 inhabitants now number 27 in the whole empire—a greater number than that of any other country in Europe; and the entire gain in population during the past five years, 2,500,000, is accounted for in the growth of the cities, the country population having remained stationary or retrograded. According to the census of 1885, agricultural laborers formed 48 per cent. of the total population; in five years they fell to 42 per cent. This is not because of lack of work; German farmers, like American, are short-handed and eager to give employment—they are, in fact, importing laborers from Russia and Sweden, and a project for introducing Chinese labor has been seriously entertained by the landed proprietors of Mecklenburg. The attractive power of the city in Germany is due to about the same causes as those operative everywhere else; the unusually rapid industrial expansion of the empire has helped to make the movement to the cities unusually rapid. Something is undoubtedly to be attributed, also, to a cause not mentioned by German authorities—the influence of State Socialism. Of this the workingmen in the cities have reaped the greatest benefits, at the same time that they have escaped a good part of the weight of taxation resting upon agriculturists; naturally, therefore, the country laborer hastens to put himself in the way of enjoying city advantages.

PUBLICITY AND THE LOBBY.

THE first year's trial of the new anti-lobby law in Massachusetts has resulted in a larger measure of success than many of its well-wishers believed to be possible. It has demonstrated the value of publicity as a restraining and regulating force upon lobby evils, and this was the main purpose which its designers had in view. The law was the outcome of the scandals which were revealed in 1890, when the lobby's services in securing the passage of the West End Railway franchise were investigated. As it is the first effort made in this country to restrict lobby evils on lines somewhat similar to those which have been followed with such success in the British Parliament, the provisions of the law are worth recalling at this time.

The Sergeant-at-Arms of the Legislature is required to keep two legislative docket-books, one for the names of all persons employed as counsel before committees, and the other for the names of all agents employed in connection with any legislation affecting the pecuniary interests of any individual, association, or private or public corporation. Upon these books the names of each counsel or agent must be registered within one week of the date of his employment, together with his residence and occupation, the date of his employment and the length of time it is to continue, the special subject or subjects of legislation to which his employment relates, and the name and business address of his employer. Whenever additional subjects of legislation are assigned to an agent or counsel, they must be entered on the books in such manner that the entries opposite the name of each employer will show all the subjects of legislation in relation to which any counsel or agent is employed by him, and that entries opposite the names of each agent or counsel will show all the subjects of legislation with reference to which he is employed.

No person whose name is not registered is allowed to appear as counsel before any committee, or to act in any manner as agent in respect to any legislation, and no person, private or public corporation or association is permitted to employ any person as counsel or agent who is not so registered. Each register is closed at the end of the session, and new ones must be opened at the ensuing session. Within thirty days after adjournment, every person, private or public corporation or association, whose name appears on the register as having employed any counsel or agent, must render to the Secretary of the Commonwealth a "full, complete, and detailed statement, sworn to before a justice of the peace, . . . of all expenses paid or incurred . . . in connection with promoting or opposing in any manner, directly or indirectly," the passage of legislation defined in the act. Violation of any provision of the act is punishable by a fine of not less than $100 nor more than $1,000 for each offence, and any person seeking to act as counsel or agent contrary to its provisions is liable to the same penalties, and in addition will be disbarred from acting in such capacity for a period of three years from the date of conviction.

When the law was first put in operation, at the opening of the late session of the Legislature, the first effect noted was an unwillingness on the part of many professional lobbyists to have their names registered. The regular counsel of the railway companies and other corporations appeared as usual, but many of the agents of long standing, who represented nobody in particular, but were always ready to take a hand in any good job that offered, kept away from the State-house. This was an obvious reform, of no slight importance. Undoubtedly many of the agents thus driven from the State-house plied their trade in other localities, and invented new methods of corrupting legislation; nevertheless, they were put under great disadvantages, and were consequently less potent for evil than they were before.

The effect of enforced publicity upon the regularly employed and registered counsel was, as might have been anticipated, greatly to restrict expenditure and to moderate perceptibly the size of the fees paid. When the West End scandal was investigated, it was shown that something like $118,000 was spent in getting the franchise to the point at which a vote upon it was to be taken, and that by far the larger part of this sum was paid as counsel fees to eminent lawyers, some of which ran as high as $10,000 each. No fees of this size appear in the returns thus far filed. The lawyers receive the highest fees. These range from $1,000 to $8,500 for the best legal talent of Boston, and show that the legislative business is a very profitable one for many members of the Massachusetts bar. The regular agents, or professional lobbyists, do not appear by the returns to have had a very profitable session, the highest sum earned by any one of them being $2,050. Undoubtedly many of them evaded the law in one way or another, but the natural effect of the fear of publicity would be to restrict expenditures all along the line, employers no less than agents being afraid of compulsory exposure of all their operations.

Now that the first step has been taken successfully, it is not unlikely that the law may be amended in such a way as to make it more effective. The objective point should be the secret work of the lobbyists outside the precincts of the State-house. Everybody at all familiar with legislative methods knows that the most corrupting work of the lobby agents is in the hotels and other places over which the present law has no jurisdiction. There can be no radical reform till these now secret operations are made liable to publicity. Gov. Russell made a valuable suggestion on this point in his message to the Legislature in January last, when, in speaking of the law, he said:

> "Prevention by publicity is possible, and I would suggest for your consideration whether a remedy may not be found in this direction, by making it easier than it now is publicly to investigate the methods used and money spent on pending legislation, and also by giving power to some proper officer, before a measure finally becomes law, to demand under oath a full and detailed statement as to these matters. The fear of publicity, and through it of defeat, may stop improper practices by making them worse than useless."

The present law, by requiring publication after the adjournment of the Legislature, postpones the publicity till after the legislation has either been secured or defeated. Gov. Russell's proposal is, that it should be made possible to compel this publicity while legislation is pending, and thus have the wholesome fear of exposure hanging over every employer, agent, and legislator at every stage of a bill's progress. There can be no doubt that if it were known that, at any time during the consideration of a measure, every person interested in its success or defeat—counsel, agent, employer, or legislator—could be compelled to state under oath everything that he knew concerning efforts which had been made for or against it, this knowledge would have a most beneficial effect in checking corruption.

LOWELL THE PATRIOT.

To many of our readers the news of the death of James Russell Lowell has come like a physical blow. There was in his social speech and writing such an exuberance of personality, such a suggestion of treasures of wit and humor undrawn upon, as those who knew the man find it hard to connect with the thought of annihilation. But for the public his works remain. Had he lived, they might have been added to, but we are not deprived of them by his death. They have taken their place, perhaps among the classics of our race, certainly among the classics of our nation. They were among the first to answer the question, Who reads an American book? and their author's name will be among those repeated by posterity in answer to the question, What has America given to the world?

The present is not the time, nor is this the place, for a discriminating estimate of Mr. Lowell as a poet or as a man of letters. As we have said, his works in those capacities will be as much the possession of future generations as of our own. But we cannot forbear dwelling upon an aspect of his character that was to a certain extent independent of his literary gifts, and which was, therefore, peculiarly impressive to the men of his own day. He was in the loftiest sense of the word a patriot. The expression "the Father of his Country" is perhaps commonly used without any very clear apprehension of its meaning, but it is evident that the emotions of a Washington in looking upon the future of the nation whose leader he has been, are not unlike those felt by a father in contemplating the future of his son. Mr. Lowell's patriotism was imbued with a similar feeling. He loved his country; he rejoiced in her strength, in her greatness, in her progress, and in her promise. But it was in her strength when rightly used, in her greatness and progress in spiritual as well as in material things, in her promise of noble and honorable attainment, that he rejoiced. The maxim, "My country, right or wrong," was not to him a patriotic maxim, but the appeal of the dema-

gogue to that contemptible travesty of patriotism, the chauvinism of the mob.

Hence we find him at the time of the Mexican war—the time of that other maxim, "My country, however bounded"—putting forth all his wonderful powers in opposition to the policy of our Government. We were playing the part of a bully towards Mexico, and that, too, not for the aggrandizement of the nation, but for that of the slave power. That it was the duty of a patriot to support his country in such enterprises was not a part of Mr. Lowell's creed, and the "Biglow Papers," with their unrivalled wealth of sarcasm and common sense, of caustic contempt and playful humor, of appeals to reason and to conscience, were produced. It is a beautiful and honorable thing to die for one's country in a good cause; but it is not less noble to withstand her if the cause is bad. To do this is the part of the highest courage and of the purest patriotism.

The civil war showed that Mr. Lowell could guide and stimulate true patriotism with words as lofty and strong and wise as those with which he had repressed the false. Had the secession of the Southern States been peaceable, it might not have been easy to determine the duty of a patriot. But the wanton attack upon the flag of the Union left no room for doubt, and the righteousness of the cause stirred the profoundest depths of Mr. Lowell's heart and called forth the noblest efforts of his genius. There was no falseness or impurity in the notes of his song; it was always the spiritual, the ideal, that he exalted in patriotism. He cried "with clenched hands and passionate pain," but it was Truth that he exalted, in strife and bloodshed and death, Truth that our brothers found

> Where all may hope to find,
> Not in the ashes of the burnt-out mind,
> But beautiful, with danger's sweetness round her.
> Where faith made whole with deed
> Breathes its awakening breath
> Into the lifeless creed,
> They saw her, plumed and mailed,
> With sweet, stern face unveiled,
> And all-repaying eyes, look proud on them in death.

Thus he taught

> That death within the sulphurous hostile lines,
> In the mere wreck of nobly pitched designs,
> Plucks heart's-ease, and not rue.

Thus he sang, in words addressed to a brother poet,

> of faith to things unseen,
> Of freedom's birthright given to us in trust;
> And words of doughty cheer he spoke between,
> That made all earthly fortune seem as dust,
> Matched with that duty, old as Time and new,
> Of being brave and true.

And when it was all over, and the victory gloriously won, he expressed the mingled joy and sorrow of his countrymen, their chastened grief and grave exultation, in a triumphal hymn that was a very concentration of patriotism:

> Bow down, dear Land, for thou hast found release!
> Thy God, in these distempered days,
> Hath taught thee the sure wisdom of His ways,
> And through thine enemies hath wrought thy peace!
> Bow down in prayer and praise!
> No poorest in thy borders but may now
> Lift to the juster skies a man's enfranchised brow.
> O Beautiful! my Country! ours once more!
> Smoothing thy gold of war-dishevelled hair
> O'er such sweet brows as never other wore,
> And letting thy set lips,
> Freed from wrath's pale eclipse,
> The rosy edges of their smile lay bare,
> What words divine of lover or of poet
> Could tell our love and make thee know it,
> Among the Nations bright beyond compare?
> What were our lives without thee?
> What all our lives to save thee?
> We reck not what we gave thee;
> We will not dare to doubt thee,
> But ask whatever else, and we will dare!

It would be but a half-recognition of Mr. Lowell's patriotism did we connect it only with our wars. There came a time when the leaders of the nation that had poured forth its blood so generously for an idea fell to doubting if it would keep its promises to pay money, and when they were ready to drag the honor that had been so nobly exalted, through the mire of repudiation. Then again Mr. Lowell's voice rang out in scornful rebuke of this ignoble weakness:

> Poured our young martyrs their high-hearted blood
> That we might trample to congenial mud
> The soil with such a legacy sublimed?

And when his country once more turned from the path of dishonor, none of her children rejoiced more in her virtue. It was not from any love for controversy or captious criticism that his heart was fed with wrath, and that he felt that he must twist his

> little gift of words
> Into a scourge of rough and knotted cords
> Unmusical, that whistle as they swing
> To leave on shameless backs their purple sting.

He loved the pleasures of retreat, to dream "in happy commune with the untainted brooks," or by the fire that "whispered its domestic joy," where, "walled with books," he heard not "the world's unmeaning noise." Nor must it be denied that he loved "to sit, well-dined," with those in other lands as well as this that were congenial. But the "Puritan drop" would not be quiet in his veins when his country was threatened with disgrace, and he turned from no duty towards her because it was distasteful to himself. He could not love his country did he not loathe her shame;

> For never land long lease of empire won
> Whose sons sate silent when base deeds were done.

Once more Mr. Lowell was called upon to give proof of his patriotism, when the corrupt leaders of a degenerate party made the insolent claim that those who had acted with them for noble ends must follow them in their dirty struggle for the gains of office. To break with associations that had a sacredness far above that of ordinary party ties was a cruel requirement of duty; but the course of a patriot was clear, and Mr. Lowell did not falter. And as he had honored his country at home, so he brought honor to her abroad, for he could go nowhere that men did not think better of a country that could produce such men. It seems now as if our loss were irreparable. As we listen to the tawdry rant of pension-seeking mercenaries, and as the shadow of financial dishonor once more darkens our future, a feeling of despair comes over us at the dearth of counsels that are at once good and strong, at the loss of that "wider and wiser humanity" that was so finely compounded with enthusiasm into patriotism.

But such patriotism is not sterile, and he himself would have told us that in the time of our need the providence of God would raise us up leaders. In his own uplifting words—

> Why make we moan
> For loss that doth enrich us yet
> With upward yearnings of regret?
> Bleaker than unmossed stone
> Our lives were but for this immortal gain
> Of unstilled longing and inspiring pain!
> As thrills of long-hushed tone
> Live in the viol, so our souls grow fine
> With keen vibrations from the touch divine
> Of noble natures gone.

THE PRECAUTIONS AGAINST FAMINE IN RUSSIA AND INDIA.

The two great countries of Asia that are governed to some extent in accordance with European principles have both accepted a certain responsibility for the lives of their subjects. The native dynasties of India never undertook to provide for their people during times of famine. Such visitations were accepted as the act of God and as beyond human control. Nor was any different view of their duty at first accepted by their English successors. It was not until 1838 that the East India Company made the attempt to deal with famine on a great scale, and this attempt was not very successful. Another failure took place on the occasion of the famine in Orissa in 1866. It was in consequence of this failure that Lord Lawrence took the position that provision against such catastrophes should be thenceforth a part of the regular duties of the Government of India, and in 1877-78 the suffering from famine was at least mitigated by Government aid, although in Madras and Bombay this assistance was inadequate. Since then the problem has been more carefully studied, and it seems to be generally agreed that the regular cause of famine, the failure of the monsoon, may be foretold six months before it occurs, by ascertaining the amount of the snowfall in the Himalayas and Central Asia. With this the Government need no longer be taken by surprise, and can take its measures with such deliberation as to render them effective.

As to another difficulty in dealing with famine, the isolation of the affected districts, progress has also been made. In the famine of 1866, Orissa was, it was said, in the position of a ship at sea without provisions. It was reached by no railway, its rivers were unbridged, and its seaboard was almost unapproachable during the monsoon. The supplies of rice that the Government had bought for the suffering inhabitants could not be conveyed to them in time, and half a million of them are supposed to have perished from starvation. Since that time the necessity of constructing lines of railway as a safeguard against famine has been insisted upon as firmly as the necessity of protective lines for the military frontier. Much has been done in this direction, and much, too, in the construction of irrigation-works, with the result of bringing the problem into more manage able shape, although it is by no means yet solved. A famine fund has been gradually accumulated, and a famine code adopted, by which every officer knows what duties

he is expected to discharge in these emergencies. This year the Government, by prompt action in establishing relief works and distributing food, has prevented the outbreak of panic that in former years has been so disastrous by causing the drifting of population into congested masses, among which cholera and other epidemic diseases were sure to prevail.

But in no way has the Government of India done more to justify its control than in resisting the demand of the native papers that the exportation of grain should be stopped. As the correspondent of the *Times* says:

"In Oriental countries the first demand of the people on the outbreak of a famine is to put a stop to the exportation of grain. Each native State struggles to keep its store of food for itself. Each district, each town and village down to the pettiest hamlet, tries to retain its own hoard within its own boundary. An immediate dislocation of trade takes place, the natural distribution of the whole available food supply of the country is stopped, and when the distress waxes sore the granaries of the grain-merchants are broken open and plundered, or even burnt by the populace. The total food supply which, if equally distributed under the impulses of unrestricted trade, might have sufficed to keep the scarcity below the starvation point, ceases to be available for this purpose. Traffic in grain becomes dangerous, sometimes illicit; and while parts of the country go on consuming almost at their ordinary scale, in others prices leap at once to starvation rates, or food absolutely ceases to be procurable at any price whatsoever."

The outcry against exportation has this year been intensified by the high price attained by wheat in the European markets, which led to the shipping of an increased quantity from India. With a view to allaying the alarm that these exports had created, the Government published a statement showing that they amounted probably to not more than one-half of one per cent. of the food-grain produced in British India, including Burmah. This statement further shows that wheat is not an article that enters into the diet of the poor in India, and that by exporting it other articles of greater importance to their sustenance may be obtained in increased amounts. It is to be added that, secure from interference by Government, merchants may now make their arrangements to supply food in the places where they consider it will be most in demand, which they would not venture to do if they had to anticipate decrees that might result in their ruin.

If we turn to Russia, the contrast is not a favorable one. The prohibition of the export of rye can scarcely fail to do more harm indirectly than any enforced cheapness of that grain can do good. There are other measures, however, taken by the Government, for an account of which we are indebted to the *Économiste Français*, that are more beneficent. Legislation has long since been in effect looking towards the supply of grain during a famine, both for the support of the population and for seed. This legislation contemplates the establishment of magazines of grain, as well as the accumulation of money to be devoted to the purchase of grain. The former policy is preferred by the Government, and is exclusively adopted in certain regions. In villages, it is required to accumulate in a special repository for every male inhabitant one chetvert (about six bushels) of rye or wheat, and one-half a chetvert of oats or barley. Several villages are allowed to unite in providing a common granary on these terms. When the accumulation is allowed to be in money, it must be sufficient to purchase the prescribed amount of grain. In this way every village becomes a mutual-assurance society against famine.

Provision is also made for special taxation by provinces, to the extent of 0.48 kopecks for every male peasant, but this provision is not of an obligatory character. In addition there is a special fund at the disposal of the Minister of the Interior for the purchase of grain when the resources of the villages and provinces have been exhausted. Advances made from this fund bear interest at 3 per cent. only after three years. In some regions, as Siberia and Archangel, the Imperial Government itself establishes granaries. With a view to meeting the present emergency, the rates charged by the railways upon grain have been reduced by the Government, and the use of Government buildings for storage purposes has been permitted. It must be said that the reports from the governors of the provinces and the zemstvos do not indicate a very alarming dearth. Deficient harvests are anticipated in the provinces of the basin of the Volga, of the centre, of the East, and of Little Russia; but of the seventeen provinces affected the deficiency is serious in only seven, and these are surrounded by more fortunate regions. Still, these reports were rendered some time since, and the situation may have become more grave.

THE GERMAN GRAIN DUTIES.

Secretary Rusk is by no means the only statesman who appreciates the benefits of protection to the farmer. His predecessor is none other than Bismarck. From 1865 to 1879 Germany levied no duties on imported grain. In the latter year, however, the Chancellor, declaring that "a man cannot eat himself more than full," maintained, upon the basis of statistics which he has never consented to publish, that the German farmer, if properly protected, could produce enough grain for home consumption. A duty of one mark on a hundred kilogrammes of wheat or rye, and one-half mark on a hundred kilogrammes of barley, corn, or buckwheat, was settled upon as the proper degree of protection. In spite of the duty, the importation of each of these grains showed, from year to year, a large and steady increase. On February 20, 1885, the existing duties were accordingly multiplied by three. For a short time the imports decreased, but, before the middle of 1889, things settled back into their old way again; men were eating more than their fill, according to the Bismarckian statistics. The German legislators hit upon the same remedy which has since made the name of the Hon. William McKinley, jr., under various orthographic disguises, famous in all civilized languages. The way to prevent Fritz from overeating himself was simple—put the price of food out of his reach. On December 21, 1889, all the grain duties were again raised, and the rates on wheat and rye were screwed up to five marks per hundred kilogrammes, or thirty-three cents per bushel.

About the success of this policy from the point of view of the Imperial Treasury, there can be no doubt. In 1880 the grain duties yielded 14,450,000 marks, or 8.7 per cent. of the customs receipts; in 1889 they yielded 98,740,000 marks, or 27.4 per cent. Nor can there be any doubt as to the burden these taxes laid upon some one. But, of course, the champions of the tariff insist that the duties are paid by the foreigner, who is anxious to get possession of the German market. Are they? The most natural comparison for the wheat prices is between London and Berlin. In the years 1874-79, that is, while Germany had free trade in wheat, the average price in England was 2.6 cents per bushel higher than in Prussia. From 1880 to 1885, the Prussian price was 5.6 cents higher than the English. After the first advance in the duty, the Prussian price was in 1885-87, 15 cents; in 1888, 20.1 cents higher; after the second advance it was, in 1890, 30.2 cents higher. Wheat was, to be sure, cheaper in both countries in 1890 than in 1875–79; but in England the price had fallen 29.8 per cent., in Prussia but 6.9 per cent. For rye, the other chief bread grain, the fairest comparison is offered by the markets of Austria, where, as in Germany, rye is of far greater relative importance than in England. In the years 1880–84 rye was 10.9 cents per bushel higher in Prussia than in Budapest, in 1890 it was 30.6 cents higher. In Budapest the price had fallen 19.9 per cent., in Prussia it had risen 8.2 per cent. Evidently the German pays his own taxes. We are more fortunate—the British pay ours.

One effect of the grain duties has scarcely received the attention it deserves. Before they were imposed, Eastern Prussia exported its surplus grain by sea from Danzig and Stettin to Scandinavia and England, while the industrial districts of Westphalia and South Germany supplied their needs from Russia and Austria. But the relatively high domestic prices caused by the German tariff prevented London from buying in Stettin, just as effectually as the tariff itself prevented Munich from buying in Budapest, and the East Prussian producers were forced to send their surplus by rail to the West and South. One result was that while the railway tonnage in foreign trade rose between 1884 and 1889 but 7 per cent. (from 1,151,000 to 1,232,000 tons), the tonnage in inland trade rose nearly 22 per cent. (from 4,312,000 to 5,420,000 tons)—a fact which at once both accounts for the recent financial surplus of the Prussian State railways, and shows that the finance minister cannot reckon on the permanency of that income. A second result was, that while the price of wheat in Stettin has sunk, since 1874–79, some 2.5 per cent., the price in Munich has risen more than 3 per cent.—a fact which shows that the railway surplus is due to needless hauling of freight which would naturally have gone elsewhere by water.

But the German protectionist has more than one (short) string to his bow. Granted

that the German laborer pays more for black bread than the English laborer for white, still the German farmer has the benefit of protection. The complaints from the farms are, to be sure, as loud as ever, but, says the German protectionist, "if it were not for the grain tariff they would be louder still." What would be is difficult to determine. Let us turn our attention to what is. The number of hectares devoted to wheat, rye, oats, and barley in Germany has increased less than 1.2 per cent. under ten years of protection (from 13,508,000 hectares in 1878 to 13,688,000 hectares in 1888). Rent outside the cities has fallen decidedly. When the tariff was imposed, the agricultural classes expected great results, and promptly discounted their rosy future by bidding up the rents. Although they soon discovered their mistake, still they indulged themselves again, when the tariff was first raised (1885), in the same unfounded hopes. The relation of the new rents offered for Prussian public lands in the seven eastern provinces, *i. e.*, in the chief agricultural district, to the expiring rents of the same parcels was, to 100, in the year 1878 as 138, in 1879 as 155.5, in 1882 as 105.9, in 1885 as 122.9, in 1886 as 107.8, in 1887 as 89.6, in 1888 as 82, in 1889 as 78.9. As might have been expected under such circumstances, the indebtedness of farm-owners has increased and foreclosures have become frequent.

Such are the advantages to agriculture which, in Chancellor Caprivi's opinion, warrant the retention of a tax of 30 per cent. on bread. In his speech of June 1 he prophesied that Germany and Austria would have average crops, central and southern Russia a better harvest than had been hitherto expected, India and America a large surplus. He, like his predecessor, had statistics which he did not make public, and these statistics proved that there was no distress, or prospect of distress, in Germany. The Government accordingly declined to move the desired suspension of the grain duties. Suspension, however, is not what is needed, but repeal. Since the adjournment of the Reichstag it has become clear that Chancellor Caprivi's private statistics must have contained some mistakes. The prices of grain and of bread have risen. A bushel of potatoes costs three times as much as it did a year ago. Germany has not an average harvest. Complaints have grown louder. The Socialists and the Freisinnige have always opposed the grain duties, but other classes are being aroused. Especially are manufacturers for the export trade alarmed at the prospect of wages as high, on account of the bread prices, as are paid in England; for the individual superiority of the English workman is undisputed. The comic papers are full of cartoons directed against the grain duties. In the cities, the agitation for their repeal is undoubtedly popular, and has been powerfully reinforced by the imminent distress growing out of Russia's prohibition of the export of rye. Russia is the principal source of German imports, having furnished last year 53 per cent. of the wheat and 81 per cent. of the rye.

OUR FEDERAL JUDICIAL ESTABLISHMENT.—I.

THE Department of Justice has just issued a new Register (the ninth edition), corrected to January 1, 1891. From it may be gathered information about the Federal Judiciary that is generally interesting, and of some especial value at this time, when there is about to be organized a new Court of Appeals in each of the nine judicial circuits into which the forty-four States are grouped. The Circuit is not the unit of organization, as is sometimes erroneously supposed, but the District. These circuits are not groups of States, each making, territorially or otherwise, a jurisdictional unit, but a merely convenient association of States which will, for the first time, when the new act of Congress goes into effect, have a territorial unity of jurisdiction; but this only in respect of appeals from the several districts. As to all original cognizance, the unit of organization and jurisdiction remains, as before, the District, which is, perhaps, indispensable under the Constitution. There is still, and always must be, in each District a court of original cognizance having no wider territorial expansion than the District itself, whether it includes the whole State or only a part of a State. It would, in this relation, be impossible to overleap the State lines in the construction of "districts" or "circuits"—absolutely so as to some branches of the Federal judicial power, and practically so, perhaps, as to all.

Now, quite absurdly, some may think, there are two such courts in each of these "districts"; but it is probable, since the ice has been once broken and the fixity of organization which has so long resisted all efforts for reform has been somewhat disturbed by the new act, that this absurdity will, at no distant date, be corrected by a consolidation of the two unnecessary courts (the Circuit and District courts) into one; this one court of original cognizance to be held by a single judge whose judgment shall be, in all things, reviewable on appeal in the new Court of Appeals, in place of the present two courts, either of which may be held by any one of four judges sitting in one or the other, and one of which, it may happen, by any two of these four judges—all reviewable, according to circumstances, in one or another of two courts of appeal. This duality of courts, with its intermixture of judges of varying rank and sometimes ill-considered and unimportant differences of judicial power, is a strange outgrowth, historically interesting, but too complex for treatment here. Not more than one in a hundred of our lawyers, even, comprehends the exact technical relation of these courts, and the judges who may hold them, to each other; and the new act complicates their relation to the ordinary understanding.

There are sixty-seven of these integral districts in the forty-four States, very unevenly distributed, as can be seen by looking over the new Register. Four States (Alabama, New York, Tennessee, and Texas) have three each; fifteen States (Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Wisconsin) have two each; all the others have one each, there being twenty-five of these. Taken by population, the distribution of these units of judicial organization would seem to be quite arbitrary and without any system at all, unlike the more evenly distributed representation in Congress; but if we consider the States as necessary units of political territory, the distribution appears more reasonable, though it will still be found that the apportionment of districts is without any system or much symmetry of construction. Massachusetts, with over two and a quarter millions of population, has only one district, while Alabama, with a little more than one and one-half millions, has three. Indiana, with over two millions, and Kentucky, with nearly two millions, have only one district each, while Texas, with over two millions, and Tennessee, with nearly two millions, have three districts each. Kansas, Minnesota, New Jersey, Nebraska, Maryland, and South Carolina all get along with one district for more than a million of population each, but Arkansas, California, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Virginia, and Wisconsin, with a substantially equal population, must have two each, and Florida, with less than half a million, must also have two districts; and yet Georgia and Iowa, with about two millions each, Michigan and Missouri, with over two millions each, Illinois and Ohio, with nearly four millions each, and Pennsylvania, with over five millions, have only two districts each. The scantily peopled States, like Colorado, Delaware, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, Washington, and Wyoming, could not have less than one each, although each of them is far below the average of population for the districts as now constituted.

This great irregularity of distribution of judicial districts shows how the subject would fare if Congress were left so to distribute our representation in Congress, instead of being bound by the rule of equality prescribed by the Constitution; and it may be worth considering whether a similar Constitutional requirement of equality would not have been as wise in the one case as the other. However, the territorial conformation and size of the States may, in some measure, account for the inequality. Again, although there are sixty-seven districts, there are only sixty-four judges, because in Alabama and Tennessee, each, there are three districts, but only two judges, and in Mississippi there are two districts and only one judge.

There is much incongruity in the times and places of holding the two courts in each District, and more in the matter of distributing the jurisdiction between these places. In some districts the structural entity of the District remains unaffected in fact, as it always is in technical law, and the business is distributed among the places of holding court sometimes by one method and sometimes by another; but in others the District is subdivided territorially into divisions, and the demarcation of the jurisdiction is as rigid as if there were separate districts. Yet there is a want of uniformity here, even in the same State. In Delaware, Idaho, Maryland, Massachusetts, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, Oregon, and Wyoming both courts are held at only one place for the entire State, but in Texas it takes eleven places to accommodate them. Some of the most insignificant districts—insignificant as to size and business—have the most places for holding the courts. The good nature of Congress, coupled with a mutual exchange of benefits, well understood if not confessed, permits this multiplication of places for holding courts; indeed, to a large extent, it is mainly used as a lever with which to prize out of the Treasury an appropriation for a public building. It is rarely in the interest of the public service, as any one may see who compares the districts in population, importance of trade and commerce, accumulated wealth, and amount of litigation done in each. Localities like New York, Chicago, and proba-

bly a very few other cities need more judges than they have, but other localities are supplied with far more judges and courts than are needed. The total force is out of all proportion, apparently, to the total needs, but is so unevenly and incongruously distributed as to districts and judges that the service is seemingly inadequate. Take the six newest States, with a population in the aggregate of only 1,038,000, and they have six judges. Such States as Oregon, Colorado, and Nevada might be added here, and if we contrast their population and business importance with that of the central States, the superabundance of their aggregate judicial force becomes apparent; and yet each has two courts, and, altogether, twelve judges, counting the Supreme and Circuit judges. Territorial expanse is an important factor, no doubt, but in the day of railroads and telegraphs it is not the sole nor the most important consideration, by any means, in determining the distribution of the judicial force in a system like ours.

This same unevenness of distribution—the having many judges where few are needed and few judges where more are needed—is just as apparent when we consider such States as Delaware, Florida, Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, and perhaps others, and contrast them with the great States of large population, wealth, and law business. Distribution by population is not a perfect test, but it affords a sufficient test to show the waste of force and energy in the judicial department of our system, State and Federal. There can be no doubt that if the actual work done in each district could be readily compared, the disparity in distribution would be just as glaring. The judicial forces of the United States, State and Federal, are so enormous in the aggregation that it is a matter of amazement that the work is so far behind, and the dockets, almost everywhere, delayed If the productive energy of the force at work could be concentrated, and comparatively idle judges put to work, the assertion might be ventured that one-half or less than the number of judges now employed would suffice. Territorial expansiveness and local requirements cannot excuse all of this waste, and much of it must be credited to the greed of the politicians, who multiply these desirable offices, as they do others, in a civil-service system where office-holding seems to be the chief end of man—so far as he is a public man—and the main reliance of statesmen as appliances of cohesion in party organization and work.

This waste of judicial force is nowhere more profuse than in the Federal establishment, and more particularly appears when it is further considered in connection with the distribution of the jurisdiction over subjects of litigation, as it has been made between the Circuit and District courts, and now also as between the Supreme Court and the Court of Appeals by the recent act of Congress. One has only to observe what meagre jurisdiction has been left exclusively and distinctively to the District courts to see that, as regards *that* jurisdiction, there is scarcely any need for them or any of their judges, and then to reflect that about four-fifths of all the judges are District judges and that, in most of the districts, cases under this exclusive jurisdiction cannot arise and are almost unknown, to see how this waste has been carried on, almost unconsciously, since but little attention has been given to it.

Whenever Congress shall spare the time for really beneficial and intelligent reforms, and we can have other than those hasty and ill-digested acts of legislation which bear "the fatal date of March 3," as one of the judges, at one time himself a Congressman, has styled it, we may hope for a more suitable organization of the courts, in accordance with the work to be done, even though we be compelled to depart from the antiquated and long since obsolete models of two centuries ago. This dispersion instead of concentration of energy exhibits itself in other respects also, as where the Supreme judges are required to visit the districts and work in the Circuit courts and the new Court of Appeals, which may be called the Jurisdiction of Visitation. Necessarily this visitorial jurisdiction, in its actual exercise, and the similar visits of the Circuit judges, must be confined to the pleasant places, and the outlying and remote districts can have none of the supposed benefits that belong to them. Much might be said of this process of diffusion and scattering of work, as it affects the practice of the courts and demoralizes it injuriously to bench and bar in some very important particulars; but it is enough now barely to mention it as a vice fundamental to all the legislation of Congress in reference to the Federal courts.

The Register of the Department of Justice, unlike the Congressional Directory, does not give biographical information concerning the judges, which is a defect of the publication. They are the only permanent officials known to our system of government, and, while never conspicuous in politics, they are influential actors in the business of government, about whom the public would like to know something more than we have here; and there is no reason why future editions of the Register should not contain a skeleton of useful and convenient biographical facts as to each judge. The place of residence, date of commission, and place of birth are given, however, and from these meagre facts considerable interesting information may be gleaned.

In all there are eighty-three judges exercising the Federal jurisdiction in divers places, and the nine new Circuit judges will make the number ninety-two. Every one of these is competent to sit in the Circuit courts and in the new Courts of Appeal, and any one of them, under certain circumstances, might sit in a District court. Under the powers given the Chief Justice and the Circuit judges to designate judges for outside service, in emergencies, any one of the sixty-four District judges may exercise Circuit and District court jurisdiction anywhere within each Circuit or within the United States, and the Supreme judges may be by that court assigned to circuits at will; but the Circuit judges are not assignable outside of their circuits, which is an incongruity in legislation full of such oddities.

Of the nine Supreme judges, only three exercise their Circuit jurisdiction in circuits including the place of their birth, viz., Gray, Blatchford, and Lamar; but of the ten Circuit judges seven have their native heath within their judicial power, viz., Colt, Wallace, Lacombe, Acheson, Bond, Jackson, and Gresham; and three, Pardee, Caldwell, and Sawyer, do not. Of the District judges, sixty-four in number, only twenty-five were born within their districts. Eleven were born in New York, five in Ohio and Virginia, each; four in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee, each; two in Maryland, North Carolina, Vermont, New Hampshire, Mississippi, Kentucky, Georgia, Maine, and Delaware, each; one in Connecticut, Illinois, Texas, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Alabama, Missouri, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Iowa, Indiana, and Michigan, each; and one is foreign-born. Louisiana, Arkansas, Florida, California, Minnesota, Oregon, Kansas, West Virginia, Nevada, Nebraska, Colorado, North Dakota, Montana, Washington, Idaho, and Wyoming have none of them any representative by birth upon the Federal bench. Of the States admitted into the Union within the last fifty years, only Texas has a native judge, if that be not a mistake in the record; of all that were admitted within the century since new States were first admitted, only Alabama, Kentucky, Maine, Michigan, Missouri, Ohio, Tennessee, and Texas have a judge born within his jurisdiction. But all this applies to the bare fact of birth, which, in this connection, may be quite in the nature of an accident, as in the case of Mr. Justice Brewer, who is put down as having been born in Asia Minor, and yet is not, in any sense, an Arab or a Turk; or Mr. District Judge Bruce of Alabama, who, born in Scotland, was bred in Iowa.

MARBOT IN PORTUGAL.

PARIS, August 6, 1891.

WE left Marbot starting for Spain. He had a presentiment that the next campaign would be a very hard one. As soon as he had crossed the Bidassoa he felt that all security was gone; he was a bearer of despatches, and was escorted by gendarmes; he found on his way the corpse of an officer who was a bearer of despatches from King Joseph to the Emperor—the famous Mina was in the neighborhood. He arrived safely, however, at Miranda on the Ebro; but in the plains of Old Castile he was attacked by guerrillas, whom he repulsed successfully.

He found Junot at Valladolid, in the old palace built by Charles V. Junot kept a sort of court with his wife, the Duchess of Abrantes. Some difficulties arose from the fact that Junot offered a part of the palace to Masséna, ignoring the fact that Masséna always travelled, even in war times, with a Mme. X. Marbot does not give her name. "Masséna," he says, "of a sombre and misanthropic character, living alone by preference in his own room, away from his staff, needed for distraction from his gloomy thoughts the conversation of a lively and clever person. Mme. X. suited him perfectly, as she was a talented woman, good and amiable." But it was impossible that the Duchess of Abrantes, issued from the Comnenus family, a very proud person, should live under the same roof with this Mme. X. Marbot had hardly had time to explain the situation to Junot when Masséna arrived. He entered the palace hand in hand with Mme. X Junot arrived with the Duchess, kissed Mme. X.'s hand, and presented her to his wife. These little incidents seem trifling; they had great consequences. The Marshal never forgave Junot for not having given him the whole of the palace. Junot took sides with Marshal Ney and Gen. Reynier, who commanded two other corps in Portugal. These dissensions contributed much to the bad result of the campaigns of 1810 and 1811, which had an immense influence on the destinies of the French Empire.

The English had undertaken to defend Portugal, and this gave much importance to the fortress on the frontier, Ciudad Rodrigo. Masséna besieged it, and it was taken by storm. Marbot fell ill during this siege; a high fever had seized him; he became delirious and was very near dying. The fortress of Almeida was blown up by the explosion of a powder magazine; Marbot became convalescent, and his strength was re-established at the fort of Concepcion. While Marshal Ney kept down the Asturias and Leon, Marshal Soult was preparing to invade Portugal. He occu-

pied Chaves and Braga, and laid siege to Oporto. Marbot thinks that 10,000 Portuguese were killed at the storming of Oporto. Soult had now a good base of operations. The Portuguese could not forgive their Prince Regent, chief of the House of Braganza, for having fled and transported the seat of Government to America. Unwilling that Portugal should become a dependency of Brazil or Spain, some of them proposed to Marshal Soult to place himself at their head and to form an independent government.

"Soult did not discourage their project; he appointed functionaries, he raised a Portuguese legion of 5,000 men, and behaved with so much tact that in less than fifteen days the cities of Oporto and Braga, as well as those of all the provinces conquered by him, sent him addresses signed by more than thirty thousand individuals belonging to the nobility, the clergy, and the third estate, expressing their adhesion to the new order of things. The Duke of Rovigo, in the memoirs which he published during the Restoration, asserts that Soult rejected these proposals; however, a great number of the French officers who were then at Oporto, particularly Gens. Delaborde, Mermet, Thomières, Merle, Loison, and Foy, have assured me that at certain receptions the Portuguese gave to Soult the titles of King and Majesty, which he accepted with much dignity."

Napoleon, it seems, was always silent on this subject, even at Saint Helena; he could not much have wondered if Soult had thought of making himself king. But circumstances soon gave another turn to the preoccupations of Soult. The troops of Sir Arthur Wellesley and of Lord Beresford were approaching; they crossed the Douro and took Oporto by surprise. Soult was obliged to effect his retreat by the mountains, and thus ended the second invasion of Portugal by the French. Soult lost 6,000 of the best soldiers of France; he had fifty-eight pieces of artillery, but he could bring only one to the other side of the mountains. He showed much firmness during his retreat, and conducted his troops to Zamora, after having in vain tried to persuade Ney to unite with him and make a new invasion of Portugal.

Towards the end of 1809, all the French corps in Spain, while they were under the nominal command of King Joseph, were actually directed by Marshal Soult, who was Major-General. Marbot was with Masséna when he entered Portugal. "The whole army knew that Masséna had brought Mme. X. with him; but this lady, who had quietly crossed Spain in a carriage and had remained at Salamanca during the sieges of Rodrigo and Almeida, wished to follow Masséna on horseback when he came to a country impracticable for carriages." Masséna forced her company on his lieutenants. One day, "Masséna said loudly to Ney: 'My dear Marshal, pray give your hand to Madame.' Marshal Ney turned pale, and was on the point of bursting out. . . . He contained himself, however, and, with the tips of his fingers, conducted Mme. X. to the table, where, by Masséna's directions, she placed herself on his right. But, during the whole repast, Marshal Ney never spoke to her, and conversed with Montbrun, his neighbor on the left. Mme. X., who understood how false her situation was, was seized with a violent nervous attack and fainted away." From that day there was great coldness between Masséna and not only Ney, but Reynier, Montbrun, and Junot, with a most unfortunate effect on the military operations.

A campaign undertaken at such a distance from France, in a country unknown to the French, where all communications were difficult, could not end well. Marbot is very severe on Masséna, blaming his inactivity and his indecision. He describes with many details the battle in the Sierra de Alcoba, one of the greatest disasters which a French army ever had to suffer—the battle of Busaco. Though he much admires Wellington, he criticises him on some points. Masséna, having crossed the Alcoba Mountains, arrived on the plains and marched on Coimbra. The large population of this town, kept in complete security by the assurances of the English, received an order to leave. It was an awful spectacle. The army of Wellington, embarrassed by thousands of runaways—men, women, monks, nuns, soldiers—had to retire in great disorder on Pombal. The occasion was fine for Masséna, but he did not seize it and lost much time, and Wellington entered his famous lines of Torres Vedras, which formed round Lisbon an immense curve, twenty leagues long. Marbot is of opinion that the lines could have been forced directly; fifteen days afterwards they had been made impregnable.

Masséna, unable to force the English lines, retired on the 13th of November from the barren hills where his army could no longer subsist. He fixed his headquarters at Torres Novas. The English pursued him with some hesitation, and Wellington established his headquarters at Cartaxo, near Santarem; the two armies, separated by the Rio Maior, remained facing each other from November, 1810, till March, 1811. During all this time the English received provisions by the Tagus; as for the French Army, it is almost incomprehensible how it lived. Each regiment had to organize the *maraude* on a large scale, and our soldiers were soon reduced to leading the life of the *routiers* and *malandrins* of the Middle Ages. A sergeant, in desperation, took a hundred soldiers and established himself in a convent, where he lived by plunder. He had himself called Marshal Chaudron; Masséna ordered him to be shot, with the few deserters who were with him. The retreat of the French Army began on the 6th of March; the movements had been kept so secret and were executed with so much order that the English were only aware the day after that the French were retreating. Wellington followed them with caution. Ney was with the rear guard, and fought valiantly, as usual. Masséna conducted his retreat with much ability, and such a retreat is one of the most difficult operations of war. He never lost sight, however, of Mme. X., and she was exposed to real dangers. She was finally carried in the arms of some grenadiers. Masséna himself said: "What a mistake I made in taking a woman with me to war."

Marbot was wounded, on the retreat, in a single combat which he had with a young Englishman. "Attendez, Monsieur le Français, je veux faire un peu bataille avec vous." Marbot, who was carrying an order, did not stop at first, but the young Englishman told him that he saw by his uniform that he was attached to a Marshal of France, and that he would have it published in the London papers that his mere presence had put to flight a cowardly aide-de-camp of Masséna or of Ney. Marbot, becoming angry, drew his sword, when two English hussars came to cut off his retreat. He flew at the Englishman and forced his sword through his neck. The two hussars fell on him; he killed one, the other fled; he himself had been wounded in the side, and had lost much blood by the time he rejoined Masséna and told his tale. Marbot always preserved his shako and his cartridge-box, which the two hussars had covered with sabre-cuts.

It would be difficult to give an account of the complicated movements of Masséna's army when it had to leave Portugal definitively. The French had entered the kingdom with 60,000 men; 10,000 were missing when they returned to Spain. The generals were divided, and quarrelled with each other, as is always the case when an army ceases to be victorious. The orders came from Paris, but when they arrived, they were no longer in harmony with the situation. The battle of Fuentes de Onore gave Masséna an opportunity for making a fine military movement, but it was lost by the fault of Bessières, who remained inactive. Masséna could not save Almeida, which was besieged by the English, but he found means of entering into communication with the garrison and of aiding its escape, as well as of destroying the fortifications. Gen. Brénier, who was in the town, made his retreat, and a loud explosion informed Masséna that Almeida had ceased to exist as a fortified post. Masséna retreated on Ciudad Rodrigo; the English did not follow him. Only afterwards did the French know that Wellington, exasperated with Gen. Campbell, whom he accused of not having prevented the escape of the French garrison at Almeida, had ordered him to be court-martialled, and that Campbell had blown out his brains. Masséna, at this very moment, was replaced in command by Marshal Marmont. Napoleon was discontented with Masséna, and recalled him to Paris.

Here ends the second volume of Marbot's memoirs. The close is, perhaps, a little more dry than the rest of the work. Marbot is so anxious to depreciate Masséna that he enters into more minute military details; but these details are very interesting, and give us, better than many other books, the true color and character of the Peninsular war.

Correspondence.

THE LOWELL FAMILY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Two statements in the first paragraph of the article in the last number of the *Nation* giving an account of James Russell Lowell's career call for correction. The poet's grandfather, the Hon. John Lowell, is spoken of as having "permanent fame as author of that clause in the Massachusetts Constitution which abolished slavery." The clause referred to occurs in the first article in the Declaration of Rights prefixed to the Constitution of 1780, and the honor of its authorship probably belongs to John Adams. The Rev. Charles Lowell fully believed that his father, Judge Lowell, was the author. He writes in 1856:

"You will find, by referring to the Proceedings of the Convention for framing the Constitution of our State, and to Eliot's New England Biographical Dictionary, that he [Judge Lowell] was a member of the Convention and of the Committee for drafting the plan, etc., and that he suggested and urged on the Committee the introduction of the clause, taken from the Declaration of Independence a little varied, which virtually put an end to slavery here."

Unfortunately for Judge Lowell's claims, an examination of the authorities cited by his son fails to sustain his belief that the Judge "suggested and urged on the Committee the introduction of the clause." On the other hand, the evidence in favor of John Adams is positive and is found in his own words. We know that the Convention chose a committee of thirty to frame a Constitution and Declaration of Rights, and that the committee of

thirty appointed a sub-committee of three to prepare a draft. James Bowdoin, John Adams, and Samuel Adams were the sub-committee. At the request of Bowdoin and Samuel Adams, the draft was prepared in writing by John Adams. In a letter written to Judge W. D. Williamson, dated February 25, 1812, John Adams says: "The Declaration of Rights was drawn by me, who was appointed alone by the Grand Committee to draw it up. The article respecting religion, as I said before, was the only article which I omitted to draw." The late Charles Deane, LL.D., discussed this question of authorship in a paper published in the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, vol. xiii., and maintained that the evidence was strongly in favor of Adams. James Russell Lowell's pedigree as given in the *Nation* is incorrect. We read:

"The father of the Rev. John Lowell was Percival Lowell, a merchant, who came from Bristol, England, in 1639, and settled in Newbury, Mass. James Russell Lowell was thus of the fifth generation from one of the founders of New England."

He was of the *eighth* generation, counting Percival Lowell as the first. Three generations are omitted from the line of his ancestors in this country. The Rev. John Lowell was the son, not of Percival, but of Ebenezer Lowell of Boston, shoemaker, and grandson of John Lowell of Boston, a cooper. The last-named John of Boston was the son of John Lowell of Newbury, and grandson of Percival Lowell, above mentioned, who came from Bristol to Newbury in 1639.

Yours very truly, F. L. Gay.

Brookline, Mass., August 14, 1891.

McKINLEY AS A PROPHET.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In the review in your current number of Mr. McKinley's speech at Lakeside a few days ago, you quote him as follows:

"Mark my words: inside of four years you will get cheaper tin than you ever got before, and it will be American tin, made in American mills, from American raw material, by American workingmen, for the American people."

In a speech delivered in this city but a little less than a year ago, he used the following language:

"While I was speaking [namely, in the House when he reported his bill], Mr. Niedringhaus of Missouri sent a note to me by a page, and said: 'You can put it stronger than that. Last week, in our factory, we made tin plate, having the faith that your bill would become a law.' They have already organized companies in Baltimore, in Toledo, in Chicago, and in Pittsburgh to manufacture tin plate for the people of this country. And they will do it, mark my words. If you don't remember a single other statement that I make here to-night, remember this—that inside of two years tin plate will be cheaper in this country than it is to-day. And it will be American tin plate, made in American mills, out of American iron and American steel, and wrought by the skilled hand of American workmen."

The same Mr. Niedringhaus is now giving out that he intends to import the skilled labor to make his Republican tin-banquet ware. Perhaps that is why Mr. McKinley does not now couple Mr. N.'s name with his statement that "American workingmen" would shortly make tin plate. And it may be that is why his eloquent phrase, "wrought by the skilled hand of American labor," has shrunk to plain "American workingmen" in his latest deliverance.

Did he tell his Ohio audience what had become of the companies referred to in his Michigan speeches last fall? And why does he now postpone the happy time three years longer? Possibly he would deny that he does. He now says "inside of four years," and it is certainly true that one year is "inside" of four years! Doubtless this explanation would be satisfactory to all orthodox Protectionists. Or it may be that he now thinks that inasmuch as he and his friends were "snowed under" when he made the limit two years, if he makes it four the result will be more favorable. H.

Grand Rapids, Mich., August 14, 1891.

THREE NON-USURERS FROM RUSSIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have lately come across three Jews from Russia who were quite free of the taint of usury or exploitation of the peasants. Mr. B., from the Ukraine, to steer clear of these vices, studied chemistry, and became technical manager of a sugar-refinery. About three years ago it burned down, and was, for some reason, rebuilt in another village. Under a recent "law," forbidding Jews to live in villages of which they were not residents at the time, he had to give up his place. He came to this country, and, finding no immediate employment in his own line, studied law at New York, where he took first honors at the University Law School.

Mr. B., of Kovno, also unwilling to live by usances, resolved to become a physician, and to that end attended the gymnasium of his city for five years. Then he and fifteen other Jewish boys were expelled for not boarding at the hall, under some old forgotten regulation requiring them to do so. He then got a place as clerk in the city post-office, which he kept for a good while, till the Postmaster-General ordered his dismissal simply for being a Jew. He then went to Zürich and to Paris, where he studied medicine for a couple of years, supporting himself meanwhile by journalistic work. Finding, on a trip to his home, that he would probably be forced into the army, though exempt by law as an only son (in Russia laws in favor of the Jews are ignored), he shook the dust from his feet and came to this country, where he now supports himself by teaching.

A plain trader, E., from the "Vistula country," was also so averse to usury that he invested all his earnings in a house and lot. To rid the Holy Empire of his hurtful presence, he came to this country, and, having established a humble business, wrote back to his wife to sell the house and join him, and tried to send her a power of attorney for that purpose. But when he sent it to Washington to have it "legalized" by the Russian Legation, he found that the Russian ministers and consuls were forbidden to legalize any instruments looking to transfers of land in any of the provinces formed out of the old Republic of Poland. If he wants to sell his house, let him go back to the sacred soil, with all the risks which such a visit implies.

Now, all these wrongs on the part of the Czar's Government, unutterably mean as they are in the eye of every just man, may pale into insignificance when we recollect that the same Government allows noble-minded, high-bred women to be flogged to death; but they remain not the less mean and destestable. Queen Victoria has one subject—let us hope only one—who has words of excuse, nay, of justification, for that Government.

Yours again, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., August 15, 1891.

ADELBERT COLLEGE VS. CO-EDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to call attention to the conclusion drawn in the *Nation* of August 6 from the last report of the Cleveland College for Women? It is a natural inference that a total enrolment of 132 in three years shows a reaction against the co-educational practice of the West—if it can be assumed that when a young woman chooses a college the only factor involved in the question of choice is that of co-education. But young women select a college for the same reasons as do young men. The large enrolment at the Cleveland College for Women may with equal fairness be assumed to show a decided preference for education in a large city to education in a small town like Oberlin, Ann Arbor, or Ithaca; for a small college rather than a large university; for an endowed institution rather than one maintained at the expense of the State; for a college distinctively Christian but undenominational rather than one sectarian or purely secular; for a college having a dormitory system rather than one without. As a matter of fact, it shows that a large number of young women are enabled, through the existence of this institution, to take a college course who would not otherwise do so. The last catalogue shows an attendance of fifty-eight; fifty-four reside in Cleveland, three in Ohio much nearer Cleveland than Oberlin, Ann Arbor, or Ithaca, and one address is given at Washington, D. C., where the competition of Vassar, Wellesley, and Smith is stronger than that of Oberlin, Michigan, or Cornell. A new college means not necessarily competition with older institutions established on a different basis, but rather enlarged opportunities for those in its immediate vicinity. This has been true of Barnard College, the University of Cincinnati, and other local colleges. The question was recently asked of the women attending a local institution, how many of them would have taken a college course elsewhere, and but five per cent. answered in the affirmative.

It must be shown that the number of women in attendance at Oberlin, Michigan, or Cornell is decreasing either relatively or absolutely before the conclusion can reasonably be drawn that the establishment of a separate college for women means a reaction against co-education. There are many persons who honestly prefer for themselves the system of co-education, while recognizing fully its limitations; is there more involved in the preference than when others prefer a dormitory system, or State education, or colleges in rural districts, or universities in cities, or sectarian institutions? That impression is sometimes conveyed when the friends of separate education for women announce the decline of co-education.—Respectfully, M.

Holland Patent, N. Y., August 15, 1891.

MARTHA WASHINGTON'S FATHER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Rev. W. M. Clark, Rector of St. George's Church, Fredericksburg, Va., has recently undertaken to have the old graveyard repaired, it having been in a sad state of neglect for many years. I am informed by him that a stone has been unearthed bearing the inscription: "Here lies interred the body of Col. John Dandridge of New Kent Co., who died Aug: 3, 1756. Aged 56 years." This is unquestionably the father of George Washing-

ton's wife. Col. John Dandridge resided at the "White House" in New Kent.

Mr. Clark's laudable purpose is rendered somewhat slow by the scant means at his disposal, but there is fair prospect that other gravestones of historic interest may be discovered. In St. George's Church was buried Col. Fielding Lewis and in the churchyard two of his children. Probably the Paul family, whom John Paul, who afterwards added Jones to his name, visited, were here buried.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

AUGUST 10, 1891.

NAPOLEON—CÆSAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The anecdote, extracted from Marbot's Life, in the last letter of your Paris correspondent, of Napoleon's interview with the old grenadier who asked for the Legion of Honor because he had offered his General a watermelon in the desert of Jaffa, strikingly resembles a story told of Julius Cæsar and one of his veterans in Seneca's 'De Beneficiis':

"Causam dicebat apud divum Julium ex veteranis quidam paulo violentior adversus vicinos suos, et causa premebatur. 'Meminisli,' inquit, 'Imperator, in Hispania talum extorsisse circa Sucronem?' Cum Cæsar meminisse se dixisset, 'Meministi, quidem,' inquit, 'sub quâdam arbore minimum umbræ spargente cum velles residere, ferventissimo sole, et esset asperrimus locus in quo ex rupibus acutis unica illa arbor eruperat, quemdam ex commilitonibus penulam suam substravisse?' Cum dixisset Cæsar, 'Quid meminerim? et quidem siti confectus, quia impeditus ire ad fontem proximum non poteram, repere manibus volebam, nisi commilito, homo fortis ac strenuus, aquam mihi in galea sua adtulisset.' 'Potes ergo,' inquit [veteranus], 'Imperator, agnoscere illum hominem aut illam galeam?' Cæsar ait se non posse galeam cognoscere, hominem pulchre posse, et adjecit, puto ab hoc iratus quod se a cognitione media ad veterem fabulam abduceret, 'Tu, utique, ille non es.' 'Merito,' inquit, 'Cæsar, me non agnoscis; nam cum hoc factum est integer eram. Postea ad Mundam in acie oculus mihi effossus est, et in capite lecta ossa. Nec galeam illam, si videris, agnosces; machæra, enim, Hispana divisa est.' Vetuit illi exhiberi negotium Cæsar, et agellos in quibus vicinalis via causa rixae ac litium fuerat, militi suo donavit."

Yours truly, CESSATOR.

NORTHEAST HARBOR, August 12, 1891.

Notes.

DR. EWALD FLÜGEL is preparing for early publication at the Clarendon Press, Oxford, the Life and Correspondence of Sir Philip Sidney. He will be greatly obliged if any librarians or private collectors who are in possession of inedited letters of Sidney will communicate with him and, if possible, furnish him with transcripts. His address is Sidonienstrasse 39, Leipzig, Germany.

Prof. R. Lanciani, who has lately brought out a work on the topography of Rome in the eighth and twelfth centuries, is now engaged upon the second volume of his 'Ancient Rome.' Its ten chapters will deal with the Walls, from those of the Palatine to those of Urban VIII., the Temples and Shrines, the Coliseum, the Tombs of the Cæsars, the Tombs of the Popes to the end of the tenth century, Pagan Cemeteries and Christian Catacombs, Summer Resorts, the Transformation of Pagan Rome into a Christian City, Early and Mediæval Churches and Cloisters, and the Way in which Ancient Rome was Buried. The author hopes to go to press in season for a publication at Christmas, 1892.

Prof. H. Graetz, the well-known historian of the Jews, is about to publish in Breslau in four volumes a "textus castigatus et emendatus" of the Old Testament, making use, in conjunction with his own studies and researches for half a century, of all the widely dispersed critical apparatus of that period. His emendations surpass by many hundreds those of his predecessors, and he hopes to furnish a basis for a universally intelligible translation into modern tongues.

The effects of a law are often most unexpected, and one result of the new Copyright Act will be the publication of plays by foreign dramatists hitherto kept in manuscript to preserve the stage-right recognized at common law. Hitherto Mr. W. S. Gilbert has been the only English dramatist who has freely published his works. Now, however, the plays of Mr. Henry Arthur Jones are announced for publication by the Macmillans, and those of Mr. Arthur W. Pinero are shortly to be issued by another English publisher. In the United States, Mr. Bronson Howard has printed only one of his successful plays, "Saratoga." Time was when new pieces were regularly published and were regularly read, much as novels are now. The custom ceased scarcely half a century ago. Certain of the earlier comedies of the late Dion Boucicault are obtainable in seemly pamphlets now, unlike the broad-paged books in which M. Alexandre Dumas *fils* and M. Pailleron first issue their comedies. It will be most interesting to observe what the effect will be upon the literature of the stage of the author's consciousness that his work is to be tried again in the library.

Sir Edwin Arnold's letters from Japan will be published in London and New York by Longmans, Green & Co. under the title of 'Seas and Lands.' They will appear in the fall and will be elaborately illustrated from photographs. The same firm have in press 'Anthropological Religion,' by Prof. Max Müller, the Gifford Lectures delivered before the University of Glasgow early this year; and also a new series of Mr. "F. Anstey" Guthrie's 'Voces Populi,' reprinted from *Punch*.

Lee & Shepard will publish immediately 'The Abbess of Port Royal, and Other French Studies,' by Maria Ellery Mackaye, with an introduction by Mr. T. W. Higginson.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, have in press a new collection of poems by Nora Perry, and a ninth and final edition of Mr. John Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations.'

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have under way several holiday publications, including Howells's 'Venetian Life,' with water-color sketches by various artists; Whittier's 'Snow-Bound,' illustrated by Edmund H. Garrett; and Holmes's 'One Hoss Shay,' illustrated by Howard Pyle. Other works in preparation are Dr. Holmes's Writings in fourteen volumes (an array unsurpassed by Lowell, Emerson, or Whittier, we believe); Carl Schurz's 'Abraham Lincoln'; 'Three Episodes of New England History,' by Charles Francis Adams; 'History of Historical Writing in America,' by J. Franklin Jameson; and biographical sketches of the Georgia members of the Continental Congress, by Charles C. Jones.

Allyn & Bacon promise, for high-school use, 'Select Essays of Macaulay,' viz., on Milton, Bunyan, Johnson, Goldsmith, and Madame D'Arblay, edited by Samuel Thurber.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Talks with Young People about the Wonders of the Heavens,' by Sir Robert S. Ball, Royal Astronomer of Ireland, with illustrations; and 'Cardinal Newman's Essay on Poetry, with Reference to Aristotle's Poetics,' edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook.

'Two Girls on a Barge,' illustrated by F. H. Townsend, and 'On the Lake of Lucerne, and Other Stories,' by Beatrice Whitby, will form part of the seasonable light reading to be furnished by D. Appleton & Co., who have, by the way, just issued an authorized American edition of Mrs. Annie Martin's 'Home Life on an Ostrich Farm.' The English edition of this entertaining narrative has already received favorable notice in these columns.

D. C. Heath & Co. publish directly 'Folk and Fairy Tales in French for Young or Old Children,' selected and edited, with a vocabulary, by Prof. E. S. Joynes, and an illustrated edition of Andersen's 'Bilderbuch ohne Bilder,' similarly edited by Dr. Wilhelm Bernhardt.

John A. Taylor & Co., New York, announce a "Broadway Series" of novels, in which English and American authors will be represented, *e. g.*, Mr. John Habberton, Mr. Clark Russell, Mr. James Payn, Mr. Julian Hawthorne, etc.

'The Leaf-Collector's Hand-book and Herbarium' is a rather large octavo volume published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, and prepared by Mr. Charles S. Newhall, whose 'Trees of Northeastern America' was noticed by us last year. This volume consists mainly of coarsely executed cuts of the leaves of our native trees. Opposite each cut is a blank page to which the leaf-collector is desired to fasten his pressed leaves by slips of gummed paper, several pages of which are furnished at the end of the volume. When all this has been done, and the industrious collector has read what the author has said of each tree in his former work, we trust he will not be satisfied with his acquirements, but will be tempted to wish for something more.

The second part of Dr. Harold Whiting's 'Short Course of Experiments in Physical Measurement' (Cambridge, Mass.) has already been noticed in these columns, and we have only commendation for the third part, which has lately appeared. This treats of general principles and methods, and contains a large number of useful tables which, rightly used, furnish much material for study independently of their ordinary applications. After a good introduction we have a chapter on general definitions. These are well and clearly stated. Next come chapters on observation and errors, on general methods of measurement, and on reduction of results. The separate branches of physics are then taken up in order, the principles of the method of measurement employed being explained by reference to established physical laws. The work is likely to prove very useful, and we shall look with interest for the concluding volume.

We fail to see the *raison d'être* of Mr. Charles V. Burton's 'Introduction to Dynamics' (Longmans), which only adds one to the large number of treatises upon the subject, and is not particularly original, though certainly a fairly good compilation. The real value of the work —and it is no small merit—consists in the large number of examples. These are found not merely in the text, but also in a long appendix, together with the answers, and will certainly find favor with teachers.

Mr. John Goss's 'Forensic Eloquence' (San Francisco: The S. Carson Co.) is to be commended for its plan, which is to accompany the theoretical exposition with running illustrations in the shape of extracts from historic orations and debates. This subserves the double purpose of giving point to the argument and of throwing light upon the citations. Of the execution, our praise must be qualified: both judgment and taste are often defective.

The need of a satisfactory text-book on morals for use in the common schools is so crying that any attempt to provide it must be welcomed, especially when it comes in so worthy a form as 'Duty,' by ex-President Seelye (Ginn & Co.). This is written with great directness and force, though cast, it seems to us, in too formal a mould of logical division. We also think the section on "Duties to Government" deserved a less meagre treatment; and, in particular, we should have looked for a word on the dangers of blind partisanship from a man who was once sent to Congress in protest against it.

Dr. R. W. Shufeldt proposes, in the July *American Naturalist*, to employ the growing army of amateur photographers in the service of science. He dwells upon the defects of many of the figures of animals and natural objects still to be found in text-books, attributing them to the faulty material in the hands of the illustrator, and urges the amateur to concentrate his vague enthusiasm upon the definite object of securing good negatives of the furtive inhabitants of the forest, particularly birds.

Prof. Edward S. Holden has a communication in *Nature* of July 9 in confirmation of investigations by Francis Galton. It relates to the remarkable color-associations possessed by a daughter of his, and gives lists of the colors which she has assigned to the days of the week, the letters of the alphabet, and numbers up to ten—the lists being taken down by her father on six different occasions during the past nine years (she is now upwards of sixteen). A high degree of constancy is to be observed in these authentic records of color-association, and Prof. Holden hesitantly suggests that the color seems to be associated with the sound rather than with the form of the letter; but he thinks many more observations must be made before definite conclusions can be drawn. In the same number is given the forecast of Mr. Eliot, the meteorological reporter to the Government of India, which predicts delayed and scanty monsoon rains, principally on the basis of the abnormally heavy snowfall in the Himalaya last winter—a prediction which has, unfortunately, been very closely fulfilled.

A new commentary on the "Divina Commedia" is advertised in a prospectus which we receive from F. W. Christern. Father Joachim Berthier, professor of theology at the University of Fribourg, Switzerland, is the author of it, and his main interest lies in elucidating Dante's "sublime doctrine," his "primordial thought," which involved the production of a work of moral philosophy: in other words, Father Berthier aims to exhibit the poet's "truly marvellous doctrinal edifice." Happily for the common mind, he has joined with this a copious archæological illustration, in portraiture, landscape, plans of ancient towns, monuments, etc., etc. The work will fill three small-folio volumes, with a very large letter for the text and a clear typography for the commentary.

—Two "humorous" publications, somewhat similar in subject-matter, are 'Farming,' by Richard Kendall Munkittrick (Harpers), and 'Adopting an Abandoned Farm,' by Kate Sanborn (Appletons). The humor of the first is of that resolute type common in the funny column of the newspapers. One feels that the author, like the Scotchman of the story, "jocks wi' deefficulty," but that, having once determined to joke, he allows no difficulty to prevent his performing the task. The illustrations, by A. B. Frost, are much better than the text, though his style of pen-drawing is too elaborate in light and shade for real success in caricature. His best work is in the least extravagant drawings. The effect produced by printing the text and drawings in different colors is, to our eye, disagreeable. The cover, with its *semée* of potato-bugs, is, perhaps, the best thing about the book. Miss Sanborn's book is better, and even has a faint but agreeable literary flavor. It is true that this is largely attained by a liberal use of the scissors, chapter iv., for instance, being almost entirely made up of quotations from Ik Marvel, Carlyle, Beecher, Bayard Taylor, Dr. Holland, Miss Mitford, and Southey on dogs and cats; but there is some original matter in the book, and it is pleasant enough fooling. There are no illustrations, but the paper and print are lovely to look upon. Neither book is unexceptionable in its English.

—Mr. and Mrs. Pennell have made a very pleasant summery book out of a summer voyage on the Thames, and called it 'The Stream of Pleasure,' and Macmillan & Co. have given it a pretty dress. Mrs. Pennell's prose flows gracefully and limpidly, like the river it celebrates, but, to most people, the main interest of the book will be found in the drawings. These are in pen and ink or wash, and are reproduced by various processes, and, in a few cases, by wood-engraving. We have before spoken at length of Mr. Pennell's mastery of pen and ink in the rendering of architectural motives. The medium is not quite so well suited to pure landscape subjects, and some of these drawings are hurt by excessive reduction. Water color comes nearer to rendering the effects desired, and, though Mr. Pennell is not so unrivalled in his use of pure wash, he has done well to make the major part of the drawings in that vehicle, and has probably come as near as any one could without color to realizing the charm of river scenery. Many of the pictures are beautiful and all are clever. The book should appeal to a people as fond of summer outings as our own. The identification of the scenes depicted is sometimes difficult, as there are no titles under the drawings, and the book is unprovided with a list of illustrations or even a table of contents.

—The superior person who enlightens the readers of the *Pall Mall Budget* on the subject of philology, if told that he himself has still something to learn, would doubtless feel affronted. *Program*, for *programme*, he has recently denounced as an "ignorant Americanism." The spelling *programme* was taken from the French, and in violation of analogy; seeing that, when it was imported into English, we already had *anagram*, *cryptogram*, *diagram*, *epigram*, etc. Half-way towards *program*, and yet as anomalous as *programme*, is *programm*, by which Liddell and Scott defined πρόγραμμα. Prof. Skeat, in his 'Etymological Dictionary,' gives "programme, program"; thus recognizing the common American spelling as justifiable. Having despatched *program* to his satisfaction, the superior person aforesaid announces that, in the word *gubernatorial*, "a fresh horror has been invented." This "fresh horror" he has discovered in the London *Daily Chronicle*, where, in the phrase "gubernatorial appointments," he supposes that it first saw the light. Let it pass that Americans have been coming across the "horror," every now and then, for at least three-quarters of a century. "Gubernatorial appointments ought to mean," we are told, "appointment of pilots." There may be eccentric mortals to whom *gubernatorial* is not only acceptable, but on a plane with the apocryphal old lady's "blessed word *Mesopotamia*." Though offensive to good taste, it may, however, be vindicated etymologically. Only by virtue of its context, as, for instance, when joined to *rei publicæ*, is *gubernator* good Latin for "governor." Yet, in giving it, taken out of its context, the same sense, no more violence would have been done than is observable in the case of other expressions without number. The uninformed censure of *gubernatorial*, as being made connotative of "governor," applies equally to *gubernance*, *gubernation*, and *gubernative*, legitimate, though unlovely, and, like the rawness shown above touching *program*, suggests that the censurer would be well advised in not airing his rudiments, linguistic and historical, while in their present circumstances of poverty.

—Many are the inquiries made, from time to time, of the Colonial Secretary's Office at Barbados, for records which may throw light upon the ancestry of some family or the other, now settled in the United States, whose forefathers had removed from that old English colony in our own colonial days. Such inquiries sometimes fail of success because of the grossly neglectful manner in which, until of recent years, the old papers of the island were left to take care of themselves. The wonder is, that these valuable documents escaped destruction, for at least one member of the Legislature has expressed the opinion that they ought to be burned. But now comes gladsome news that the local authorities have appointed a committee to inquire into and report upon the condition of the records of the island. The Committee consists of the Colonial Secretary (Mr. Clement Courteney Knollys), the Solicitor-General (Mr. Herbert Greaves), and Mr. C. T. Cottle, a member of Assembly.

—Apropos of these records, a correspondent writes as follows:

"Having got it into my head that 'cosen John Washington' mentioned in Theodore Pargiter's will (1654-1656), as being then apparently in Barbados, might be shown to be one and the same with John Washington, who emigrated from England to Virginia, as Mr. Waters lays down in his 'Ancestry of Washington,' I wrote to Barbados for a copy of the ticket issued in 1655 for 'cosen John Washington' to leave the island. Replying to my application, Mr. E. G. Sinckler, the well-known Chief Clerk of the Record branch of the Colonial Secretary's office, whose help has availed many inquiries on both sides of the Atlantic, has informed me that it is simply impracticable to search for the Ticket in question, in the present disarranged state of the Records. Some years ago, some disorderly person jumbled together old books and papers, without regard even to dates, excepting so far as to label each of the fifty japanned tin boxes into which he put the documents out of the way, 'Deeds and Other Papers, 1600 to 1800.' An enthusiastic American gentleman of the name of Ellery attempted to make a search among these old papers, but had to give it up. As no one could leave Barbados in 1655 without first obtaining a ticket from the Secretary's office, John Washington, assuming that he did visit Barbados, would need to obtain a ticket before quitting. If the record of tickets issued in 1655 could be found, some details might be preserved which would identify the 'cosen John' with the first Emigrant.

"Now let me say why I think that the first Emigrant might have visited Barbados. The reference to 'cosen John' in Theodore Pargiter's will suggests the former's being at Barbados. A reference to page 11 of the 'Ancestry of Washington,' by Mr. Waters, shows that, whereas Mrs. Washington, the mother of the first Emigrant, was buried on the 19th of January, 1654, it was not till the 8th of February, 1655, that letters of administration were issued to her son John. If that son was not

absent from England, and in foreign parts, why was there so long an interval as did elapse? The Pargiters were connected with Barbados. On the 21st of May, 1653, the Council of State granted a license to Thomas Pargiter to export to Barbados fifty dozen of shoes and twelve nags. (See Calendar of State Papers, Colonial, 1574–1660, p. 402.) In 1666, Thomas Pargiter was a member of the Assembly of Barbados. (See Calendar, Colonial, 1661 to 1668, p. 352.) The fact that Tom Verney was longer in Barbados than in Virginia may be alleged with equal reason for a kinsman's going to Barbados, just as it has been urged as a link drawing the first Emigrant to the Old Dominion, that the ne'er-do-weel Tom had been an early settler in the latter country. Again, in 1655, old style, among the settlers in Barbados was Captain Gerard Hawtayne of Calthorpe, in the County of Oxford, who was a son, or grandson, of Margaret Washington, who is noted in the pedigree attached to the pamphlet of Mr. Waters as having married Gerard Hawtayne of Esington, Oxon. It is clear from Theodore Pargiter's words that John Washington was beyond seas about 1655, and equally clear that he was thought to be in Barbados. Then there were the Pargiter, Verney, and Hawtayne connections with Barbados. And why so long in obtaining letters of administration to his mother's will unless he were far over sea—in fact, as Dryden has it, in

"'Far Barbados on the Western Main'?"

—M. John Grand-Carteret has, in the *Revue Bleue* for August 1, a paper on the portraits of Danton which contains much curious information. It might almost have been as short as the chapter on snakes in Iceland, for there are next to no first-hand portraits from life of the great orator. To two crayon sketches by David and one by Vivant-Denon, and especially to the former, M. Grand-Carteret alone ascribes authenticity, and he reproduces one by each of these artists in facsimile. These effigies of a physiognomy devoid of a single line of beauty, and possessing a contorted mouth almost to be designated a snout (to which add the notorious pock-marks), prove that Danton was for artists what Cruikshank, in his 'Sketch-book,' calls "an ugly customer." This might well explain the failure to portray a popular leader at a time when portraits were all the fashion, as one of the readiest signs of the new reign of equality; but it would not account for the absence of caricatures, which often are among the truest "human documents." M. Grand-Carteret takes account of the artistic difficulty, but also ventures to inquire whether we must infer that Danton was, after all, less popular than has been thought, and enjoyed only a restricted notoriety. For the collector's enlightenment, he reproduces two engravings after Bonneville and one after Boze, which he will not allow to have any value, and one by Jeanron, interesting only as an idealization made in the early part of the reign of Louis Philippe.

PERROT'S ART OF THE MEDITERRANEAN.

History of Art in Sardinia, Judæa, Syria, and Asia Minor. From the French of Georges Perrot and Charles Chipiez. Illustrated with 406 engravings and eight steel and colored plates. 2 vols. Translated and edited by I. Gonino. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.

We regret that we cannot recommend the English translation of Perrot's latest volume. Those who know French will do well to read the book in the original, as the translation will be found to be very trying to the nerves of the English-speaking world. Still, the intrinsic merit of the important work is so great that those ignorant of French will get much instruction and enjoyment from the pages even of the English translation, provided they can content themselves to wade through villanous or obscure English on almost every page. The very name of the translator arouses our suspicion, and leads us to the inference that he was not born with an English tongue in his head, but has learned English from books, and well, too, but still not well enough to make him equal to the task of translating a great work into idiomatic English.

The translator's spelling of Turkish words is often misleading to us, for symbols that give the correct pronunciation of Turkish words to Frenchmen fail to do so to Englishmen. In the English translation, Turkish words should be disrobed of their French dress and be respelled with English symbols, or else the value of the symbols used should be defined in the preface. For instance, *Tach* does not tell that the word can only be represented in English by *Tash*. The misspelling of the names of prominent men may be due to bad proof-reading, but, at any rate, we find Heumann (ii, 64, note—67, note); Handi Bey (ii, 60). Even Delbet, one of Perrot's coadjutors in a former work, becomes Debet (ii, 101). The proof-reading is bad throughout, and that, too, not only in the English text, but also in the citations in French, Italian, German, and Greek. Now and then the decipherment of Greek quotations requires considerable ingenuity.

But the translator is not the sole sinner; we have grievances against Perrot, the author. We begin with minor defects. In ii, 227, we read: "It is indifferently called the Nimphi or Karabel warrior; the former appellative is due to a village hard by, the Nimphæum of the Byzantines; the latter, to an isolated house which gives the name to the important pass leading to the plains watered by the Hermus and the Cayster." We deny a part of this. Karabel is a compound word made up of *kara* (black) and *bel* (pass). We therefore fail to see how the name "Black Pass" could have its origin in the existence of an isolated house in the neighborhood. We feel that the author is to be censured more than once for an evident but not well-founded assumption of a knowledge of Turkish superior to that of other travellers. To illustrate: Puchstein and Humann, in their 'Reisen in Syrien,' describe the Hittite remains at Saktchegözü, a word of correct formation in every way. Now, Perrot assumed that the Germans had not heard the latter part of the word correctly—such assumption is always easy at home in one's study; then he remembered that he had heard of many "Göksu," streams, and so he made haste to write *Saktchegheuksou* (ii., 47, *sæpe*), a form which will have to be corrected in a new edition. An immense Hittite stele was discovered by Sterrett in 1885 at Fassiller, a name in which each letter is pronounced clearly and distinctly. This name M. Perrot has changed to *Fasiler* (ii., 222, 245). He also mentions the finding of a Hittite intaglio seal at *Chanah* (ii., 245), a name never used by the finder (Sterrett). Again, the words Elflatun Bunar mean "Plato's fountain" or "spring," so that the remark (ii., 214), "the springs of Elflatoun, also called Plato's fountain," is equivalent to saying: "Plato's fountain (spring), also called Plato's fountain" (spring).

The discovery of the Assyrian lions at Arslan Tash in the plain of Serudj (in Mesopotamia, opposite Carchemish) is ascribed wrongly to Haynes (ii., 48). Now, if any one is to be mentioned by name as the discoverer of the important monuments, the honor might justly be claimed by the leader of the expedition, viz., Dr. William Hayes Ward. In fact, there are several serious blunders in note 2 of p. 48, but, as we have not the French edition, we do not know whether to ascribe them to the author or to the translator. We mention here in passing that in Perrot's discussion of the Hamath stones we look in vain for the name of Dr. Ward. And yet, unless we err greatly, Dr. Ward was the first to publish these monuments. Wright also ('Empire') fails to note this fact. We do not like to see our American scholars neglected. The Albistan lions (ii., 43, note) are not mutilated. The stones have been exposed to the inclemency of the weather for several millenniums, and have rotted slowly away, but there has been no mutilation.

But, leaving such minor blemishes as the above out of view, we fear that very many scholars will be astonished to learn that Perrot's "history" of art in Judæa consists mainly of an attempt to construct a temple after Ezekiel's plan; and be it remembered that Ezekiel's temple never existed save in the brain of the prophet. The chapters on sepulchral architecture, on religious architecture (consisting chiefly of an account of dolmens and menhirs), and on domestic architecture among the Jews are interesting. Perrot is probably at his best in the volume devoted to Hittite art. Twenty-five years ago he himself explored many of the Hittite rock-sculptures in Asia Minor, and his treatment not only of Boghaz-Kieni and Enyük, but of the whole Hittite question, is scholarly and accurate, though even here it is not exhaustive. His chapter on the climate of Asia Minor is exceedingly faithful, and his summing up of the general characteristics of the Hittite civilization is worthy of the most careful study. We should, perhaps, call attention to the fact that Perrot throws the Hittite period away back almost to the twentieth century B. C., while Puchstein ('Reisen in Syrien') limits it to the time between the tenth and sixth centuries B. C. When the doctors differ so widely, the conclusion may be drawn with safety that the data are at present not sufficient to settle the question. The moral is, that explorations in the field of Hittite archæology should be pressed with renewed and unwearying vigor.

Perhaps the greatest surprise of this noble work—and it *is* a noble work, whose presentment of facts far outweighs the blemishes of form in the English translation—consists in the revelation the author makes to us with regard to Sardinian art. Most educated men of to-day know more or less, absorb more or less from the periodicals of the day, about Jewish or Hittite art, but few, we feel sure, know much or anything about art in Sardinia. We will therefore give a short abstract of Perrot's account of art in the wild island of the Mediterranean. The sepulchral monuments of the Punic merchants are found only in Sardinia, and there only in the southwestern portion. The island was most probably colonized from Africa; its proximity to the continent would make the transit easily possible, and the similarity of appellatives seems to prove the theory. The buildings called nuraghs belong exclusively to Sardinia. The simplest form of nuragh is round in ground plan, and is built up of large, rough blocks of stone in such fashion that each successive layer has a smaller diameter than the one immediately below it. The building, therefore, assumes the shape of a cone, but is truncated before completion and terminates in a terrace on the top. Ruins of no less than 3,000 nuraghs exist in Sardinia, no two being exactly alike. There are also numerous agglomerations of nuraghs, the

most elaborate of which have many chambers and courts, while the simpler form has only one tholos-like chamber. The general outline of the nuraghs is the same, but their position varies much, for they are found everywhere, on the mountain-top and in the plain. They are generally found in groups that sometimes number 100.

Several theories in regard to the purpose for which the nuraghs were erected have been advanced: they have been called lighthouses, sepulchres, temples, altars, dwelling-houses. But in all probability they were fortresses intended to serve as places of refuge for family or tribe in time of hostile invasions. They may occasionally have been used as temples and sepulchres, but such use was always secondary. The people had no walled cities, but lived in numerous villages, whose centres were the nuraghs. The nuraghs were often used as workshops for the manufacture of arms, as excavations prove, and in their immediate neighborhood the dead were buried. The length of time during which nuraghs were built is not known, but they were the work of several generations during the Phœnician period, prior to the conquest of Sardinia by the Carthaginians. The idea of the nuragh seems to have been gained by native Sardinian soldiers during their African and Sicilian campaigns. It is not known when the nuraghs ceased to be built in Sardinia, but analogous structures of simple form are built to-day in southern Italy, where they are called *truddhi* (Lat. *trullum*). The truddhi serve a peaceful purpose, being used by the peasantry as places to sleep in during seed-time and harvest. The *specchie* (Lat. *specula*) or watch-towers of the same region take the place of the agglomerated nuraghs of Sardinia.

The sepulchres of the nuragh-builders are always found in the immediate vicinity of the nuraghs, and to this day tradition gives to them the name of giants' tombs. These tombs consist of a hemicycle of stone in the centre of whose arc rises a high oblong stele, behind which lies a grave built of stone and varying in length from five to ten yards and upwards. They are all oriented toward the rising sun. A hole in the stele at the base seems to have been used for thrusting in libations and offerings, a circumstance which points to a worship of the dead such as one should naturally look for among a primitive people. About the giants' tombs are usually found menhirs, *i. e.*, phallic emblems of life, and cromlechs, *i. e.*, circles of menhirs, emblems which still await a satisfactory explanation.

Sardinian art productions are not of a nature to attract and please eyes and tastes accustomed to Hellenic feasts, and Perrot has made a study of the Sardinian fragments of art-history because it serves to call our attention to what the world would have been had Tyre and Carthage remained mistresses of the Mediterranean. Sardinia is astonishingly rich in statuettes of men and animals, as well as in weapons and implements in bronze. The statuettes are archaic in character and strangely dry and rigid in outline, verging on ugliness and deformity. The native collections of these objects are varied and rich, but until a few years ago the very existence of Sardinian statuettes was not known; thanks are therefore due to Perrot because through him the unknown has become public property. The art productions of Cyprus were made in moulds that produced numerous replicas; they are therefore easily classified, but the bronze statuettes of Sardinia cannot well be classified because of their endless variety. The most of these bronzes represent the warriors, hunters, priests, or other characters of every-day life. Statuettes of deities are less common, but are easily recognized by a multiplicity of eyes, limbs, and weapons. Soldiers form the richest and most interesting group; they are all unmounted, nor has anything relating to horses, except two bridle bits, been found. Hunters are also common; figures of females are rare, and it is noteworthy that their dress is almost identical with that worn by the women of the interior of the island to-day. Almost all the statuettes that exhibit ordinary mortals have one hand uplifted in token of adoration, a gesture of prayer common to all ancient peoples. In all, then, the religious character seems pronounced; in fact they are all votive offerings. Very curious are the votive swords and other weapons mounted at the hilt on stone blocks. These swords were the offerings of chieftains after a successful foray, while the ex-voto swords of the common soldiers were first tied up into *fasciæ* and thus offered. Interesting, too, are the votive deer with swords piercing them. The boats that figure so prominently among the finds are also votive offerings by soldiers returned from service abroad. In point of style, Sardinian objects of art are rigid and harsh, sinning against good taste, but still to all intents and purposes they are the same as those of all primitive and barbarous peoples. The clay industry of the potter did not advance in Sardinia beyond the first beginnings: the vases are hand-made; nothing betrays acquaintance with the wheel, though a polisher was used. The vases are wholly without ornamentation.

HARDY'S CALCULUS.—II.

Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. Method of Rates. By Arthur Sherburne Hardy, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics in Dartmouth College. Boston: Ginn & Co. 8vo, pp. xi, 239.

After the foregoing explanations we turn to Professor Hardy's book. He has placed upon his title-page the announcement "Method of Rates." The method is not new. The characteristic feature of his treatise is that, so far as fundamental principles are concerned, he makes use of no other. In his preface he says: "No comparisons have been made between this method and those of limits and infinitesimals"; but he suggests that these latter methods give a "larger view" of the subject, and says he omits them becaue they "cannot readily be given with good results in the brief time allotted to the subject in the general college course." He then says: "The immediate object of the Differential Calculus is the measurement and comparison of rates of change when the change is not uniform." Assuming the propriety of the employment of the word "rates," we should much prefer to say that the immediate object of the Differential Calculus is the comparison of rates of change which are not uniform with those which are uniform, and the reduction of the measurement of the former (which is impossible of direct accomplishment either in thought or fact) to the measurement of the latter (which is always possible). On page 10 he gives a more condensed yet more comprehensive statement of the object of the Calculus, but it seems to us to miss the main point, which is this: the facts of experience present us with certain quantities, like the distance passed over by the falling bullet, which, while they increase or grow continuously, never for any actual or conceivable portion of time increase at any one measurable rate except an average or mean rate. The object of the Calculus is to teach us how to find out all there is to be known about such quantities by bringing them into definite relations with other quantities which increase or grow in a manner directly measurable.

The inexorable limitations of space compel us to omit all we had intended to say of Prof. Hardy's first chapter. We can only state the general impression which it makes upon our mind. No one knows better than the author that, from the days of Euclid to the present time, the theory of parallel lines has been the "cross of mathematicians." Some mathematicians have endeavored to get over the difficulties of the subject by *defining* parallel lines as "lines which are everywhere equally distant from each other"—a definition which is no definition at all, but only a logical inference or demonstrable proposition following from any and all of the more fundamental definitions about which the mathematicians are in dispute. Such seems to us to be the case with Prof. Hardy's definition of a differential. Could we get a *rate*, that is, a ratio of a definite space to a definite time, out of a state of things in describing which the words "instant" and "point" are used for the express purpose of excluding all space and all time, and could we, independently of this, and as a matter of mere abstract numbers, explain and justify the process which the Differential Calculus employs, we should undoubtedly find that "the velocity at any instant" of our falling bullet, "that is, the rate of change of the distance, is the distance it *would* pass over in a unit of time were the motion to become uniform at that instant" (p. 7).

We pass to § 18 (p. 13), where the real development of the operative part of the Calculus begins. The fundamental theorem is: "The differential of the product of two variables is the sum of the products of each into the differential of the other." The theorem is as old as the Calculus itself, and is given in every treatise. It is, however, generally assigned a subordinate place and given as a deduction from other theorems. We consider it a decided merit of Prof. Hardy's treatise that he has placed it at the beginning, and from it has deduced the most important rules of the science. Before going further, we will make a brief explanation. In the Differential Calculus the letter d is used to represent the words "the differential of" which occur in every formula. Thus dx does not mean, as in algebra, the product of d and x, but "the differential of x"; $dx\,dz$ means "the product of the differential of x and the differential of z"; dx^2 means "the square of the differential of x." "The differential of x^2," which is quite another thing, is written $d\,(x^2)$. In the next place, it will be quite sufficient for the reader to regard "the differential of x" as simply a quantity to be added to or subtracted from x; in the former case it, of course, has the sign +, in the latter the sign —. The theorem quoted above, when expressed in the language of the Calculus, reads: $d\,(xz) = x\,dz + z\,dx$.

Whether Prof. Hardy regards what he has subjoined to the theorem as a demonstration or merely as an explanation and illustration, taking it for granted that he has *defined* all the difficulties out of the case, we cannot say. In either case he has certainly been very careless in presenting it. He says: "Let $y=xz$. Then y is the area of a rectangle whose sides are x and z." Of course, y may be that or any other of an infinity of things which we consider as being represented by the product of two variable factors. He then gives a figure of a rectangle the sides of which are intended

to represent x and z at the instant when they have a certain definite value. Of course, then, the area of the rectangle will represent the value of y at the given instant, the rectangle being supposed to be growing continuously larger and larger. He next supposes that at the given instant the rectangle ceases to grow *as a rectangle*, and begins to grow sidewise and lengthwise in the form of a carpenter's square with very short arms. As he supposes, this form of increase or growth continues until two new rectangles forming the arms of the carpenter's square have been produced, the area of one of which is equal to xdz and of the other to zdx. The first objection to this method of procedure is that it is wholly inapplicable, even as an illustration, to the case of a continuously decreasing rectangle. This case we must accept as an indisputable and at the same time incomprehensible consequence of the logic of the signs *plus* and *minus*. But there is the weightier objection that it ignores all the difficulties with which the greatest intellects of the human race have been struggling for two hundred years, as if they had no existence and all was plain. This may, perhaps, be excused on the ground that Prof. Hardy was writing a college text-book, not attempting to settle the disputes of mathematical philosophers or philosophical mathematicians.

We have said above that Professor Hardy has been very careless in presenting his illustration. That assertion needs justification. After supposing that at a given instant the change in x and z (the sides of the rectangle) becomes uniform, that is, goes on by equal amounts in equal times, he continues: "The change in y [the area] would then also become uniform." We attribute this astonishing assertion to mere carelessness, or, at best, to oversight. It is precisely because in this and the infinity of analogous cases "the change in y would" not "become uniform," that we have any such science as the Differential Calculus. Both sides of the rectangle, from being infinitely small up to their magnitude at the instant under consideration, and from that point on towards the infinitely great, may grow or increase and continue to grow or increase with absolute uniformity, and y, the area, has not increased and does not and will not increase uniformly during any actual or conceivable interval. It is not only the chief, but the sole object of the Differential Calculus, so far as rectangles are concerned, to discover and teach us how to calculate definite relations between the always uniformly varying sides and the never uniformly varying areas. The supposition that the sides and the area should both increase uniformly and the rectangle remain a rectangle, is a mathematical and philosophical impossibility. Stated generally, the calculation of definite relations between always uniformly varying factors and their never uniformly varying products *is* the Differential Calculus. All other cases may be reduced to this one. In his preface Prof. Hardy says: "Whether a quantity is or is not changing uniformly, however, the rate at any instant is determined in essentially the same manner, viz., by ascertaining what its change would have been in a unit of time had its rate continued what it was at the instant in question." This is equivalent to the following: The rate at the given instant, had it continued uniform, would have been, say R, and it would have been R because that was the rate at the given instant.

The theorem $d(xz)=xdz+zdx$ we consider but the algebraical abridgment of a more fundamental theorem upon which the whole fabric of the Calculus depends. We should despair of compressing into our limits the philosophical and mathematical considerations upon which it is founded. We therefore give it in its naked form for mathematicians to consider.

Let $y=xz$, then $dy=d(xz)$.

$$d(xz)=\frac{(x+dx)\ (z+dz)-(x-dx)\ (z-dz)}{2}$$

Performing the operations indicated we get:

$$d(xz)=xdz+zdx.$$

By supposing $z=x$ we can immediately get $d(x^2)$. But we prefer, on account of what follows, to give the form for this case.

Let $y=x^2$, then $dy=d(x^2)$.

$$d(x^2)=\frac{(x+dx)\ (x+dx)-(x-dx)\ (x-dx)}{2}$$

Performing the operations indicated, we get: $d(x^2)=2xdx$; substituting in the equation $dy=d(x^2)$ we have $dy=2xdx$; dividing by dx we get: $\frac{dy}{dx}=2x$. We thus obtain directly that "wonderful thing" the "differential coefficient," or "first derived function," or "first derivative with respect to x."

Next let $y=x^3=x^2x$; then $dy=d(x^2x)$.

$$d(x^3)=d(x^2x)=$$
$$\frac{(x^2+2xdx)\ (x+dx)-(x^2-2xdx)\ (x-dx)}{2}$$

Reducing, we have $d(x^3)=3x^2dx$ and $\frac{dy}{dx}=3x^2$.

We can thus go on to any extent, or prove the general applicability of the theorem by mathematical induction. For higher powers of x it is a matter of indifference how the factors are separated into two groups. Thus: $x^4=x^3x=x^2x^2$. Either form may be used, only recollecting to use the corresponding forms of the differentials. The short forms to which these formulæ reduce constitute the rules of differentiation.

As a college text-book Prof. Hardy's treatise is altogether praiseworthy. Clear, orderly, and systematic, we unhesitatingly recommend it to all who wish to make use of the most powerful of all mathematical instruments, the importance of which is daily increasing.

Recollections and Impressions. 1822–1890. By Octavius Brooks Frothingham. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

Mr. Frothingham's last of many volumes will be particularly welcome in Unitarian circles, from which he has never been excluded, and in which it is evident he now feels himself much more at home than he did while he was preaching in New York. These 'Recollections and Impressions' are significant of a more important change, for in them the writer, who was formerly as reticent in personal matters as he was outspoken in things ethical and theological, writes with the utmost frankness of his professional life, only his frequent lapses into the third person singular when speaking of himself suggesting any strain upon his natural modesty in so much reference to his own opinions and affairs. Happily, in this personal history there is less of self-depreciation than in the former habit of the writer's personal talk, but there is nothing which exceeds the limits of a proper self-respect; and those best acquainted with Mr. Frothingham's professional career will feel how little justice he has done himself as compared with the teachers and the friends whom he delineates with generous appreciation.

The opening chapter, "Parentage," reproduces the substance, not the form, of Mr. Frothingham's biography of his father, which came out a year ago. The impression given there is here intensified, for Mr. Frothingham is never happier than in his compact and vivid estimates of distinguished characters. Here, as in every subsequent delineation, we have the utmost kindness united with an absolute sincerity. His father's "dislike of Channing" and "his horror of anti-slavery agitation" are indicated without any attempt at palliation. The parts of his own character derived respectively from his father and mother are definitely assigned: "The dream of a nobler age for literature, art, science, humanity, came directly from my father. The desire to do something to make the dream an actual fact, to prove myself as of some service in the world, came from my mother."

The chapters on his Latin School and Harvard education are extremely brief; the part on the Divinity School being the most expanded. There we would gladly have had some fuller treatment of the professors, especially of Dr. Noyes, a man whose careful scholarship and admirable and vivid personality ought some time to receive the ample recognition they deserve. Mr. Frothingham's first settlement was in Salem, Mass., and his account of it is introduced with an elaborate tribute to the town, smacking too much of special preparation, and with too much "thinking under ground." Some of the personal names, which stand for much in local recollection, are mere names as we have them here, awakening no association. Mr. Frothingham's sympathy with the anti-slavery party and his admiration for the Abolitionists come out strongly in this chapter. It was this sympathy and admiration that made his Salem pastorate much briefer than it might otherwise have been. After the rendition of Sims or Burns—averse to dates and concrete facts, he does not tell us which—he refused the Lord's Supper to his church, knowing that the members generally were apologists for the Boston outrage. In this connection he speaks of himself as "democratic." His choice of terms is not often so inexact as here. Further on he describes Dr. Bellows as "an aristocrat." He was less of one than Mr. Frothingham in his tastes and breeding; but Mr. Frothingham was democratic in his convictions, and he had the courage of his convictions to their utmost bound. He was a conservative in the Divinity School in a radical set, a defender of the traditional Unitarianism of his father's coterie. Before leaving Salem in 1855, he had become a radical, transcendentalist in philosophy, anti-supernaturalist in theology, in criticism following the lead of F. C. Baur, in politics that of Garrison. Direct personal contact with Parker was at the bottom of the change, and he makes the event an occasion for a fresh characterization of Parker, which is more generous, and consequently more just, than that in his last volume, returning to that of his original biography of the great heresiarch. From Salem he went to Jersey City, and remained there four years; then to New York, and remained there till 1879. His discontinuance of the Communion Service in Jersey City suggests a discussion of the rite. His reasons for discarding it were not so personal as Emerson's. They were that it divided the congregation and encouraged self-righteousness. The reasoning is not clear which allows the ghost of it to liberals of the present day while it was impossible for him with any modification.

Mr. Frothingham's account of his New York ministry leads him to describe Dr. Bellows and Dr. Osgood. Both portraits are models of sincerity, and bring back the men to us in habit as they were. If there is a line misdrawn, it is that which minimizes the element of personal pique and disappointment in Dr. Os-

good's defection from the Unitarian body. A chapter on the war has a good word for those who did their best at home. When riots were the order of the day, he showed a manly front. In his account of the Free Religious Association he laments "the want of a leader," but those who remember his own leadership will have little sympathy with his lament, though doubtless "another Theodore Parker" would have given to the enterprise a popular impulse which it never had. That Mr. Frothingham's self-denying ordinance does not allow him to speak, except casually, of the living, has cut us off from any characterization of his colleagues Potter and Abbot; also from any of Samuel Longfellow, of whom we always think with him and Weiss and Higginson and Johnson and Wasson. Mr. Frothingham has written Wasson's Life, and he makes briefest mention of him here, but in a chapter on his companions there is loving justice done to John Weiss and Samuel Johnson, the latter a spirit of much deeper tone than his more brilliant friend.

Another interesting chapter is that on the author's teachers, the part on Dr. Dewey being more valuable than the part on Emerson, as dealing with a man whose worth was greater than his present fame. It is, to some extent, a vindication of Dewey's anti-slavery spirit, subordinated in an evil hour to his devotion to the Union and his dread of war. The emphasis of a chapter on his companions is upon George Ripley, whose biography Mr. Frothingham wrote for the "American Men of Letters" series. A chapter on the Clerical Profession deals mainly with the relations of clergymen to their rich parishioners. If the rule is mean subserviency, it has many honorable exceptions. Endeavoring to forecast the religious future of America, he seems to think that the Ethical Culture movement has the road, but subsequently he maintains that the religion of the future will be Christian, though hardly Unitarian.

The concluding chapter of "Confessions" brings out in sharp relief the writer's catholic sympathies, his freedom from all dogmatism, his insatiable curiosity, his delight in every manifestation of the free intellect, his insuperable inclination to hear the other side. These are not the qualities that attract partisans and develop organization; but they are qualities which, in a man or in his book, those who find something of them in themselves will attend to with much satisfaction.

The Buccaneers and Marooners of America. Edited by Howard Pyle. Macmillan & Co.

THIS book has a rightful place in the "Adventure Series." It contains most of Exquemelin's 'History of the Buccaneers,' and a selection from Johnson's 'General History of the Pyrates of New Providence.' There is a thoughtful introduction, but a grand opportunity for annotating the records of an obsolete form of social combination has not been taken advantage of. Here one may read of that dare-devil Frenchman François Lolonois, whose hatred of the Spaniards was equalled by the fierceness of his cruelty towards them. The acts of the famous Sir Henry Morgan, who, from serving his time as a bondsman in Barbados, rose to be an "Admiral" of Buccaneers and Lieutenant-Governor of Jamaica, are here set forth, down to his startling action in taking and sacking Panama. The desperate valor of the Buccaneers, their fertility of resource in cases of extremity, their shocking cruelties to the Spaniards, their wanton life at Port Royal, Jamaica, on their return with their "purchase," as, in Shaksperian phrase, they called their booty, will be found "writ large" in this volume.

Turning from the Buccaneers, who made war against the Spaniards, we come to the Pirates, who warred against mankind in general. With these it was, indeed, *homo homini lupus*. About that ferocious outcast Teach, nicknamed "Blackbeard," who for some time was the terror of the Carolina Coast, the most satisfactory piece of reading is that wherein we are told of the gallant way in which the naval Lieutenant, Maynard, tackled the ogre in a life-and-death struggle. The ignoble acts of Captain William Kid, whose proceedings caused so much concern to Lord Bellamont, are given in detail, down to the hanging, at Execution Dock, of the Captain and some of his fellows. Although Avery's fame was great, on account of his capture of a rich ship belonging to the Great Mogul, that worthy seems to have been fitter to be a pickpocket than a pirate. For a good first-class highwayman of the sea, give us Capt. Bartholomew Roberts, as bloody-handed a ruffian as ever lived. The ordinary black flag, which the pirates called by the pet name of Jolly Roger, did not suffice for him. Offended by attacks made upon him by orders from the Governors of Barbados and Martinique, he caused a new jack to be made and always to be used. On it was his own figure, standing upon two skulls, and under these were the letters A. B. H. and A. M. H., signifying a Barbadian's head and a Martinican's head. The destruction of this pirate and his horde, on the west coast of Africa, by Capt. Chaloner Ogle of the King's ship *Swallow*, was a notable service rendered to commerce.

Johnson has a quaint fashion of describing the ways of the Pirates. Take the case of Harry Glasby, who was guilty of one of the most heinous possible of offences against the piratical state—that of trying to run away. Being captured, he would surely have been condemned to death but for the powerful interposition of the Lord Ashplant. Imagine the pirate judges, a good deal the worse for liquor, and employed in smoking. Glasby, and two others who had tried to escape along with him, pleaded for arrest of judgment. This the Court would not grant, such was its abhorrence of their crime. Then arose Ashplant, one of the judges, and, taking his pipe out of his mouth, said "he had something to offer to the Court in behalf of one of the prisoners." Then, with a profusion of oaths, he announced that Glasby "should not die." Thereupon he sat down, resuming his pipe. His brother judges warmly dissented. Again Ashplant spoke, and, interjecting many oaths, announced that he was "as good a man as the best of them"; that he never turned his back to any man in his life, nor ever would. Glasby was, he said, an honest fellow, and he loved him notwithstanding his misfortune. Glasby, he hoped, would "live and repent what he had done"; but if he must die, asseverated Ashplant, "I will die along with him." And now, according to Johnson, "he pulled out a pair of pistols and presented them to some of the learned judges upon the bench, who, perceiving his argument so well supported, thought it reasonable that Glasby should be acquitted; and so they all came over to his opinion and allowed it to be law." The topsy-turvydom of the sense of right and wrong that is betrayed in Ashplant's hope that Glasby would "live and repent what he had done," was familiar to the gentlemen of fortune, as the pirates described themselves. Roberts, for instance, used to tell the new hands that when he first went into the business he had shed as many crocodile tears as did they, but that time and "good company" had worn it off. In a similar strain, Roberts wished farewell to another pirate band, hoping "the Lord would prosper their handy works."

The typographical get-up of this book is much to be commended. It is in marked contrast to the cruelly small print used in Walker's 1810 edition of the 'History of the Buccaneers.'

Outlines of Psychology. By Harald Höffding. Translated from the German by Mary E. Lowndes. Macmillan & Co. 1891. Pp. 365.

Mechanism and Personality: An Outline of Philosophy in the Light of the Latest Scientific Research. By Francis A. Shoup, D.D., Professor of Analytic Physics, University of the South. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1891. 12mo, pp. 343.

HÖFFDING'S 'Psychology' has had to pass through a second medium before it reached the English. There is danger of some refractions in it on this account. It was written in Danish and translated into German, while the English form is from the latter language. To the English translation the very highest praise can be given. Smooth, elegant, and graceful in style, it betrays no traces of its derivation from a foreign language. Like the translation of Lotze's 'Microcosmus' by Sir William Hamilton's daughter and Miss E. Constance Jones, the present volume shows a useful sphere for the intellectual activity of woman, and it is a considerable credit to the philosophic sympathies of the sex.

Few books are better adapted than this, in completeness of outline and material, for the purposes of advanced instruction on the subject of psychology, with the exception of one department of it. The first important merit of the work is its emphasis of the scientific as opposed to the metaphysical point of view in the study of psychology, and this is well expressed in the remark that the student of it is as little bound to give an explanation of what mind is, as physics is obliged to begin with an explanation of what matter is. How much greater an advance would psychology have made during the last half-century had such a maxim prevailed! But in spite of this the author has not cut entirely loose from metaphysical discussion. It is true that he does not begin with any special theory to defend or oppose, but at every point we are made to feel the connection between certain psychological facts and some metaphysical theory new or old, and scarcely any one could rival the author's faculty for blending the scientific and the metaphysical implications of his subject. Besides, although the author professes to have discarded philosophy and to have adopted the empirical position, an uncommon amount of scientific metaphysics, if we may use the expression, is unconsciously admitted into the discussion, showing that what critics of metaphysical psychology mean by the term is merely a particular set of views which they do not like. Metaphysics does not change its character by changing its name. The fact is, that the author is too deeply versed in modern philosophy to eliminate wholly its influence on his psychology. Throughout the entire work we feel the breath of a philosophic world blowing upon us. We do not entirely regret it, because, although psychology can be treated exclusively as a science, its chief interest lies in that borderland which connects it with philosophy. The author has most admirably developed that aspect of the subject.

It is only after the first hundred pages that we reach the scientific side of the problem. The division is into Sensation, Ideation, Perception of Time and Space, and the Perception of Reality, all four topics being comprehended under the general one of Cognition. The two later divisions are the Feelings and the Will. Sensation is adequately discussed, and, what is better, more correctly distinguished from perception than is usual, although all separation of them must be purely abstract. It is in the treatment of Ideation that both the greatest merits and the greatest defects of the work are discoverable. The close relation between the so-called higher brain processes and the lower could not be better treated. It is here that modern psychology is revolutionizing the mediæval and scholastic antithesis between the nature of sensations and the nature of thought. Pierre Janet's experiments upon the connection between anæsthesia and memory, along with many independent observations of others, and the modern faith in the continuity of all phenomena, have established this intimate connection in kind beyond a doubt. In view of this fact it would have been very interesting had the author discussed in a new light the rational processes of Conception, Judgment, and Reasoning. But they are dismissed in the most perfunctory manner, and the teacher must know all about the subject in order to supplement the author's shortcomings in this respect. Höffding's discussion of the Feelings is unusually full and excellent, although we think the term is given too comprehensive a meaning and is often very vaguely employed. Both in German and in English this conception needs careful clarifying. The treatment of the Will is nearly as exhaustive as Bain's, and is much more sober and philosophic.

'Mechanism and Personality' is, in some particulars, the direct opposite of Höffding's work. Its very title makes it a metaphysical study, and yet it purports to be psychology. Fortunately, it is more scientific than its name would imply. As an outline, comprehending both psychology and ethics, the work is not without merits of a kind, and especially shows considerable knowledge in detail of those subjects for a writer whose business is the teaching of physics. But he has not got beyond those who make psychology an introduction to philosophy. Hence he will most likely please those sectarian institutions which wish to inculcate metaphysics and at the same time coquet with science.

Riding and Polo. [Badminton Library.] Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

If life were all riding and polo—and there are certainly individuals who seem to live for very little else—this latest volume of the "Badminton Library" would contain the key to all its mysteries. The subject is handled by various writers from different points of view, and nothing of importance seems to have been overlooked. The reader is treated to a brave show of learning and to a bibliographical appendix, and with these aids is carried gently down the stream of riders from Pollux and Xenophon to Buffalo Bill. To the Greeks, indeed, full justice is done, for it is declared that they were ideal horsemen; and there is, in fact, much evidence to show that they excelled in riding as in most other things. But when it is solemnly stated that "no man can ride or drive like an Englishman," some scepticism may be permitted to those who have seen the riding of the cowboys on the plains and the driving of the stage-drivers in the mountains of some of our Western States. In two kinds of riding the English are undoubtedly preëminent, namely, riding to hounds and polo-playing; and in both of these they have the advantage of long experience and unlimited practice. In regard to polo, which is as yet in its infancy in this country, the superiority of the English players is largely due to their ponies. The game is played nowadays at great speed, and the Western ponies must be crossed with thoroughbreds in order to enable our players to compete on even terms with the English cracks. It is doubtful if riding to hounds will ever become popular here. Some of the strongest advocates of the sport are discouraged by the increasing use of wire fencing, but the Governor of New Zealand, in a chapter on the "Colonial Horse," avers that horses soon get accustomed to these fences, and that, in fact, fewer accidents occur in jumping them than among the old-fashioned hedges of the English shires.

Much valuable advice is here given as to the best method of bringing up young horses. Stress is rightly laid on the avoidance of undue severity and on the wonderful effect of the human voice in inducing obedience; and one of the truest remarks in the book is that "a horse's bad habits are almost invariably due to a man." Some of the distinguished contributors cannot write of horses without dragging in the wearisome Irish question, others have lax views as to the difference between "lay" and "lie," and others again are altogether too voluminous; but in spite of such obvious lack of editing, the book should be read by all who are interested in horse-flesh.

Are the Effects of Use and Disuse Inherited? An Examination of the Views held by Spencer and Darwin. By William Platt Ball. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 12mo, pp. xii., 156.

Among the numerous books that owe their existence to what "Darwin says" or "Darwin thinks," this is one of the latest. It is one for which the greater demand will undoubtedly come from those who, with its author, believe in the supreme potency of selection. It is not an impartial discussion of the views of Spencer and Darwin in favor of the inheritance of the effects of use and disuse, as might be expected from the title. Contributing little or nothing from his own observation, the author stands in a peculiar position throughout the essay. He discredits Darwin, on whom he relies for his own support, whenever Darwin may be cited in support of Spencer. Thus, Darwin is shown to be unreliable except when his views coincide with those advocated by Ball. Pangenesis, which might favor use-inheritance, is thrown aside; but sexual selection, thrown out by Wallace, is reinstated. Conclusions of Darwin quoted by Spencer are shown up as if based on incomplete observations, wrong interpretations, mistaken suppositions; or it is asserted that the facts may be due to other than the assigned causes, may be simulations, might be coincidences, might be effects of selection, etc., etc. Yet the opinion of the author as to what certain phenomena may, might, or would do, put forward as if proving something, can have no weight with readers who do not admit that the theory on which he bases his possibilities has been sufficiently proved. Exceptions to his attributes of selection render his structure unstable. He admits that use is the determining circumstance in evolution generally, that all organs and faculties can only have been moulded by usefulness and by using, but, he adds, not necessarily by directly inherited effects of use and disuse of parts in the individual. With his own definitions and limitations to direct effects in kind, etc., it is this negative he attempts to establish; but, even with the favoring restrictions, his presentation of the matter has the appearance of an earnest plea for suspension of judgment rather than that of a convincing argument.

The Unearned Increment; or, Reaping without Sowing. By William Harbutt Dawson. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

This little book has the distinction if not the merit of advocating the confiscation of property in land with no violence of language. It contains also some very just complaints against the English practice of making public improvements without assessing any of the expense upon the property that is benefited—a practice that could obviously be changed without impairing any vested right. Otherwise there is nothing novel in the book, and we may advantageously devote our attention to what is not in it, nor in other books of its class—an examination of the assumptions upon which this theory of confiscation proceeds.

For this purpose we may concede that rent, in the economic sense, represents a value to which landlords have made no contribution, although as a matter of fact this concession would be far from proper, the receipts of landowners as a class for rent being to a considerable extent balanced by their expenditure for the same account. But letting the concession stand, the first assumption is that justice requires that unearned value in the shape of rent should be taken away by law from those in whom the law has hitherto recognized a title to it. It is evident that this is a particular case under a more general law, that justice requires the abolition of property in all unearned values. The gains of personal property made by every successful speculator are as much within the purview of this law as the rent of land, and it would not be easy to exclude from it the advantages due to any exceptional personal endowment. It cannot be objected that there would be practical difficulties in applying the law to other values than that of land, for that at once reduces the whole matter to the test of expediency, and we are then remitted to the forum of experience in order to determine whether any particular right of property has been found to be, on the whole, conducive to the progress of civilization, and whether the process of confiscation is not likely to cause disasters that would outweigh its gains. To this court the landlords could not refuse to go, unless they insisted upon the absolute sanctity of proprietary right, in which case they would make assumptions more sweeping than those of their adversaries.

The second assumption is that justice requires that the unearned value of land when confiscated should be distributed among "society." This proposition is subject to the same enlargement as the other, but a more serious objection arises from its ambiguity. It involves the assumption that the value not earned by landlords has been earned by all other human beings. But it is evident that this is not true, for the world is full of other miscreants than landlords, who occasion such an enormous expense in the shape of policemen and courts and prisons and locks and bolts and bars as to reduce materially the values of all property. The value in question, therefore, must be distributed, not among all, but among some human beings. But which, and in what proportions? It would seem that the distribution should be confined to the virtuous

members of "society," excluding those who as landlords have touched the "accursed thing," but as to the proportions, it does not seem possible even to guess at what justice would require.

This difficulty is generally met by theorists of this class with a fallacy of division. After showing that "society" at large has caused the increased value of land, they immediately proceed to assume that the increased value of the land within the spatial limits of any political body is due to those human beings who reside within those limits, and should be distributed among them. The preposterous character of this assumption appears upon a moment's reflection. Who will seriously contend that the value of land within the city of New York is caused by the inhabitants of that city? It is at least partly due to the natural advantages of that place. Situated as it is, it levies a toll upon a great part of the products of the United States, upon a considerable part of the products of the world. Did the dwellers in New York city establish the course of the Hudson River, or did they excavate the Erie Canal? Did they construct their magnificent harbor, or pay for the railways that pour into their lap the wealth of the prairies of the West? *Fiat justitia, ruat cœlum.* If the landlords of New York are to be dispossessed in the name of justice, the spoils rightfully belong to the whole body of men to whose existence they are due, and not alone to those existing within the city. No practical difficulties can stand in the way of an absolute law. The foul stain of landlordism is not wiped out by substituting a municipal corporation for an individual, nor can an injustice to society at large be remedied by favoring some fortunate communities.

The position of the English advocates of confiscation is especially weak. The inhabitants of the British Isles, having by the strong hand subdued many other races and established their dominion over a great part of the surface of the globe, to the considerable "increment" of the value of that minute portion inhabited by themselves, are now told that "justice" demands that this increment must be restored—to the inhabitants of the British Isles, many of whom have earned it only by having been good enough to be born. It is not easy to construct a definition of justice that shall satisfy the requirements of this situation, but it may be seriously urged that such a definition should be presented before the process of confiscation is begun. Confiscation in the name of justice is a dangerous measure. "Let no one," said Machiavelli, "who begins an innovation in a State expect that he shall stop it at his pleasure, or regulate it according to his intention."

We are far from denying that the spectacle of wealth in the hands of men who have obtained it without rendering any service to their fellows arouses indignation. But the surest way to perpetuate such abuses is to proclaim the principle that proprietary rights acquired under the protection of law may at any time be deprived of that protection. Such a principle, if adopted in practice, would destroy civilization, by making the acquisition of property a matter of speculation. The accumulation of wealth takes place only when men become assured that they may reasonably count upon the stability of law. Hardly any result is so desirable as to be worth attaining at the cost of shattering this confidence. If the reformers whose theories we have criticised had contented themselves with proposing special taxation upon future "unearned increments," they might have accomplished something. As it is, their scheme has so shocked the common morality as to have rendered odious all attempts at scientific taxation. Mr. D. A. Wells long since pointed out the direction which these attempts should take, but it would be hopeless at present to advocate any plan that might be confounded by the public with the scheme for the confiscation of rent.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Babson, J. J. Notes and Additions to the History of Gloucester. 2d series. Salem, Mass.: The Salem Press.
Clarke, W. H. The People's Horse, Cattle, Sheep, and Swine Doctor. New York: M. T. Richardson. $1.
De Leon, T. C. The Puritan's Daughter. Mobile, Ala.: The Gossip Printing Co. 50 cents.
Flügel, Dr. Felix. English-German and German-English Dictionary. Part 8. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Goss, John. Forensic Eloquence. San Francisco: The S. Carson Co. $1.25.
Grant, Robert. The Carletons. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Hunt, Julia M. A Woman's Talent, and Other Stories. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Lanin, E. B. Russian Traits and Terrors. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker. 35 cents.
Martin, Mrs. Annie. Home Life on an Ostrich Farm. D. Appleton & Co.
Miller, Rev. J. R. Making the Most of Life. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Murray, J. A. H., and Bradley, H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Vol. III., Part I. E—Every. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
The Monist. Vol. I. Oct., 1890—July, 1891. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Co. $3.
Thompson, Prof. R. E. The Divine Order of Human Society. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles. $1.
Virgil. Bucolics. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Voyages and Adventures of Mendez Pinto. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Webb, W. S. California and Alaska. 2d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.25.
Westermarck, Edward. The History of Human Marriage. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Whiting, C. E. The Complete Music Reader. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90 cents.
Whiting, H. A Short Course of Experiments in Physical Measurement. Part III. Cambridge, Mass.
Whitman, Walt. Good-Bye, My Fancy. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Whitman, Sidney. Imperial Germany. John W. Lovell Co.
Winslow, I. O. The Principles of Agriculture for Common Schools. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Zagosin, Michael. Tales of Three Centuries. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.

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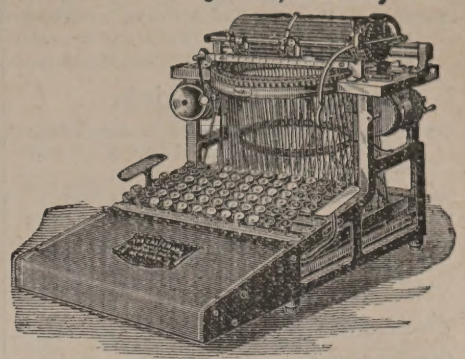

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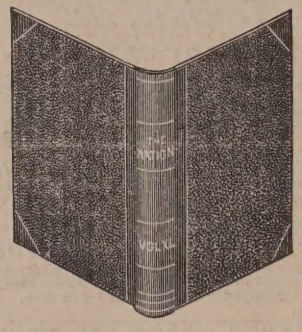

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 27, 1891.

The Week.

THE resolution adopted by the Republicans of Pennsylvania on the silver question is a curiosity; but since all of our silver legislation is composed of separate curiosities, it is not to be regarded with special wonder. First, the resolution endorses bimetallism without defining that term. There are several kinds of bimetallism talked of by its votaries, while some people regard it as a myth altogether and deny the existence of the thing in actual practice in any part of the world. It will be seen presently that the kind of bimetallism which the followers of Quay favor is different from any other kind ever heard of. Next, they "endorse the action of the Fifty first Congress in providing for the purchase and coinage of all the silver produced from American mines." No such bill has been passed by Congress, but, on the contrary, a bill providing for the purchase (not necessarily the coinage) of 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month, wherever produced. Next, they recommend "such tariff duties as will protect our country and its currency from the debasement which will surely follow if this nation is made the dumping-ground for all the silver in the world." Now every kind of bimetallism that was ever heard of before provides for the unlimited coinage of the two metals. In fact, that is what bimetallism means. The phrase "dumping-ground," as applied to either silver or gold, implies that one or the other metal is to be rejected in whole or in part. In the theory of bimetallism, rejecting a part is the same as rejecting the whole. Probably Mr. Quay's convention did not understand the subject at all, but believed that Protection would solve every problem in finance, like the quack doctor who threw all his patients into fits because he could always cure fits.

It is not easy to adopt a particular portion of sound economic doctrine without being led to admit the rest. There is a certain unity and symmetry in the body of truth established in this department of knowledge, that exerts a steadily persuasive influence upon a mind once turned in the right direction. Thus the New York *Tribune*, confiding in the wisdom of President Harrison, heartily applauds his declaration that the dollars coined or stamped by the general Government ought to be of equal value, and concurs in the assertion that "the poorer dollar will do its first errand in paying some poor laborer for his work." But in its natural delight at being able to maintain true doctrine after the fatigue of a long course of protectionist sophistry, the *Tribune* is carried to unexpected lengths, and commits itself to a proposition that is fatal to the theory of protection. The price obtainable for the farmers' crops, it declares, "depends upon the price which foreign countries will pay for the great surplus to be exported." This is a point which the free-traders have always made much of, and it marks an important advance in the controversy when the protectionists are brought to admit that the price of our exports is fixed in the foreign markets. The consequences of this agreement of both parties to the controversy are very obvious, and the farmer will now be far better able than before to see the precise operation of the tariff. The price of what he sells is what foreign countries will pay, the *Tribune* tells him; but how about the price of what he buys? Altogether, this admission by the protectionists is a long step in advance, and, taken in connection with their delight in reciprocity, is a most hopeful indication as to the future.

Major McKinley was wise as a serpent when he gave the first place in his first campaign speech to the silver question. He was not so wise a few months earlier when he spoke at Toledo. We can but approve of the greater part of his last deliverance, and especially of his endorsement of the position of ex-President Cleveland. We put in parallel columns what he said on this subject at Toledo on February 12, of the present year, and what he said at Niles on Saturday last:

MAJ. M'KINLEY AT TOLEDO, O., FEB. 12, 1891.	MAJ. M'KINLEY AT NILES, O., AUG. 23, 1891.
During all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the Government he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our own great products, discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold. He endeavored even before his inauguration to office to stop the coinage of silver dollars, and afterwards, and to the end of his Administration, persistently used his power to that end. He was determined to contract the circulating medium and demonetize one of the coins of commerce, limit the volume of money among the people, make money scarce, and therefore dear. He would have increased the value of money and diminished the value of everything else—money the master, everything else the servant.	The danger of free and unlimited coinage has been pointed out over and over again by leading statesmen of both parties. The position of leading Republicans upon this question is so well known that I need not pause to quote from them. Let me call your attention to what the leaders of the Democratic party who are chief in its counsels say. No one has spoken with greater ability on the Democratic side than the ex-President of the United States, the Hon. Grover Cleveland. His letter written but a few months ago, taken in connection with his former utterances upon this subject, shows that nothing could be more disastrous, in his judgment, to the business interests of the country and to the best welfare of all the people, than the free and unlimited coinage of silver. Let me read you, etc.

There is something almost ludicrous in the joy over the abundant harvest in this country manifested by the protectionist newspapers. They have been watching the operation of the McKinley Act in a cold sweat of apprehension, and insisting that it would not check importations and was not meant to, that it would not raise prices, but lower them; and dwelling with especial emphasis upon the free-trade clauses of the measure. All the time they were desperately afraid that the result would be a deficit in the Treasury, which would infallibly arouse public indignation, while their silver legislation was forcing gold out of currency and out of the country. The prospect of an enormous surplus of agricultural produce for export in connection with a strong foreign demand is therefore particularly welcome to them. This surplus President Harrison seems to estimate at about $1,000,000,000, which would just pay for our last Congress, and the bounty of nature will thus atone for the folly of the party in control of the Government. It is a great piece of good fortune for the country, as it will enable us to import goods even under almost prohibitory duties, and perhaps will draw back our gold. It will be tiresome to hear the abundance of the harvest and the consequent activity of trade attributed to the tariff, but we shall hear little else from the protectionist organs during the next year.

Mr. William E. Bear, the English statistician, writes to *Bradstreet's* that later information leads him to mark up the European deficiency of wheat from 281,000,000 bushels (his first figures) to 320,000,000 bushels. This change in his estimate is due to later advices from Russia, and to unfavorable weather in western Europe, including England, since his last report was made. Upon this revised estimate the editor of *Bradstreet's* counts up the sources of supply for this deficiency as follows:

"North America, surplus, say, 190,000,000 bushels, which now looks to be full, and to mean holding reserves down to the minimum; southeastern Europe (exclusive of Russia, which is, according to the writer of the letter quoted above, not regarded as a wheat exporter of moment) 45,000,000 bushels; India 26,000,000 bushels, Australia and New Zealand 8,000,000 bushels, South America 5,000,000 bushels, and exports from elsewhere, say, 14,000,000 bushels; in all, about 288,000,000 bushels. This points to a nominal deficiency of 32,000,000 bushels, with probable export totals as high as they well can be, and with reserves drawn down the world over."

The opinion here quoted, that Russia is not to be regarded as a wheat exporter of moment is, however, offset by Beerbohm's estimate of a probable export of 64,000,000 bushels. This discrepancy between the highest authorities is sufficient to account for the nervousness of the American markets, which have been characterized during the week by rapid fluctuations over a narrow range of prices. Much exhortation has been bestowed upon the speculators not to put up the price so high as to check exports. This excellent advice will probably be heeded by the speculators, because they cannot do it if they would. If exports were stopped, the incoming rush would soon fill the warehouses, glut the market, and put down the price, to the confusion and heavy loss of the daring spirits who should seek to corner

wheat. At the same time, it is as well to acknowledge that they would all do it if they could, and that exhortations to them to forbear would be considered as mummery, like the prohibition of miracles by the holy coat of Treves.

We endeavor to keep the run of all the currency schemes that find expression in the councils of the Farmers' Alliance or elsewhere. A new one has been brought forward by one Alfred B. Westrup, editor of an Alliance newspaper. He proposes to issue money on the security of movable property such as horses, cattle, wheat, pork, cotton, etc., and to do this without asking any favors of the Government. Mr. Westrup holds that, if you make your money *good*, it will go without any legal-tender laws to help it along. It is really wonderful that this idea has not occurred to the Alliance leaders before. It bears a suspicious resemblance to the Scotch banking system, and that fact will probably suffice to secure its rejection upon careful scrutiny by the Alliance committeemen. Good banking consists in the issue of money on the security of property that is actually circulating in the community between producer and consumer. The only restrictions that the Government can profitably or properly impose upon it are such as aim to secure the public against bad working of the system, against blundering and rascality in the administration of the affairs of the banks. As Mr. Westrup desires to have his new currency so good that it will not need any law of legal tender to sustain it, he will no doubt desire the best security for his circulating notes. Government bonds are the best security now; but since these are disappearing it will be necessary to find some substitute for them. The American Bankers' Association, we feel sure, will gladly avail themselves of any suggestions on this point that any Alliance man may offer. It is rather depressing to learn that Mr. Westrup's ideas were coldly received at a meeting of the Alliance held in Topeka on the evening of the 18th inst. The objection raised against it, says a special telegram from the Kansas capital, was "its non-recognition of the powers of the Government." By endorsing the National Bank Act as it stands, this defect would be remedied.

Col. W. W. Dudley, following closely in the footsteps of Messrs. Quay and Dorsey, is out for Blaine as the Republican candidate in 1892. "The people demand Blaine," he says; "they are enthusiastic for him," but "they do not warm up to Harrison in any such way." If Blaine is the candidate, Dudley does not think the campaign will be fought on the lines of 1884, because—

> "All that was brought up against Blaine then has been condoned. He has given the country an idea, as Secretary of State, of his diplomacy, ability, patriotism, and statesmanship. He is much the largest American intellectually to-day. He would make a splendid President. He would look well after the interests of the whole country. If it seemed to him that protection stood between the country and its best interests, he would not hesitate to attack it."

Mr. Blaine will hardly thank Dudley for his method of disposing of the charges of 1884. If they have been "condoned," then the truth of them has been admitted, and the verdict of the country, according to Dudley, is: "Guilty, but as you have given the country an idea, we won't say anything more about it." There can be no question that Quay, Dorsey, and Dudley are the right kind of leaders for a campaign of a candidate with this peculiar moral equipment.

In speculating upon the Presidential election of 1892, Republican newspapers throughout the country always set down New Hampshire as a sure Republican State. But "Bill" Chandler does not take this view. In his latest article under his signature in his Concord *Monitor*, the Senator frankly confesses that the prospect is dubious. He points out that last year the Republican candidate for Governor had only 93 more votes out of 86,228 than the Democratic. He declares that "Jones and Sinclair [the chief managers of the Democratic party] have at their back the rum power, the power of $100,000,000 invested in the Boston and Maine and Concord and Montreal Railroads, and unlimited corruption money. They have continuously in their pay over 200 of the most active Republicans in the State, beginning with the higher Republican lawyers and officials, and descending to the lowest town and ward politicians; while no Republican leaders or interests have in their like employment a single Democrat. Jones and Sinclair will control our nominations for Governor, Councillors, and members of the Legislature. They will select the Chairman of our State Committee, and will know all the plans, and the secrets, if there be any, of our canvass." Such being the outlook, Chandler asks himself, "Can the Republican party successfully encounter these odds in 1892?" and answers, "It is a question of the gravest doubt." As nobody understands New Hampshire politics better than this authority, it would seem that the State ought hereafter to be put in the "doubtful column."

A curious phase of political movements in this State at present is the openness with which the party bosses, Hill and Platt, go about the business of arranging the tickets in advance of the meeting of the conventions. It has for many years been the custom to arrange the tickets in this way, but heretofore there has been some secrecy preserved in the work. This year neither side makes much effort at concealment. Gov. Hill allowed it to be known months ago that he had selected his candidates for Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and other offices, and that the work of the Convention would be entirely perfunctory, the delegates assembling merely to ratify the Governor's choice. Mr. Platt has been equally frank, and has been arranging the names on the Republican ticket with almost unrestricted publicity for several weeks past. He has, in fact, been testing the public taste in the matter by submitting to it several different combinations. Some of these have visible quantities of reform flavoring, others have imperceptible. The instructive feature of Mr. Platt's proceedings has been the general agreement that he was the absolute and controlling force in the matter, and was to decide upon the ticket which the Convention was finally to nominate. Considering that he is a private citizen, engaged in the express business, his autocratic power over his party is one of the most striking developments of modern politics.

Mr. David A. Wells has written a long and very thorough review of the wool tariff and its consequences for the *World*. Its value consists in grouping together all the facts that have been brought out since the McKinley Bill went into operation as a connected whole, showing how the new tariff, with its outrageous and perplexing regulations, has oppressed the manufacturers without the slightest help or benefit to the wool-grower. Among other resulting consequences of the duty on wool particularly mentioned, is the enormous increase in the importation and use of shoddy as a substitute for wool. This, however, is not a peculiar result of the McKinley Bill, but is common to all the tariffs we have had since 1867. Under the operation of the wool tariff of 1867 the importation of shoddy and waste rose from 512,000 pounds in 1870 to 8,662,000 in 1889, an increase of over 1,600 per cent. in nineteen years. But most of our shoddy is of domestic production. "According to the census of 1880," says Mr. Wells, "41 per cent. of the material that constituted the so-called woollen fabrics of the country was not wool." The effect of the substitution of shoddy and cotton in the manufacture of clothing upon the health of the people, Mr. Wells very properly considers highly deleterious in our changeable climate.

The McKinley tariff put a duty ranging from 350 to 1,400 per cent. on pearl buttons. The object of this imposition was not so much to promote the pearl-button industry here as to compel people to buy ivory, bone, and horn buttons, which are made here. In order that the latter should not be imported, the duty on those articles was doubled. It appears that the manufacturers of pearl buttons, for there were a few such before the McKinley Bill passed, imported a lot of contract laborers from Bohemia to work at the pauper wages of $4 per week. These wretched creatures, having been thrown out of employment at home by McKinley, thought that they might as well starve in America as starve there. So they accepted the offer made to them. But at this juncture the authorities of the Auburn Prison, being at their wits' end to find employment for the convicts, have put

them at work on pearl buttons, thus competing with the imported paupers. These facts were set forth in a recent number of the *Dry Goods Economist*, which said further:

"In the case of the reported importation of laborers under contract, it is to be hoped that, if the charge be sustained, the culprits will be heavily fined, whatever their standing, commercially or otherwise, may be, as it is of vital importance to the community that the laws relating to labor be enforced."

It is not unnatural for those who have been impressed with the beauty of the scenery of Vermont, and who saw the fine character of the people gathered last week at Bennington from the farms of that State, to wonder why its population shows no increase. There are many reasons for this, but perhaps one of the most potent is not sufficiently considered. It is the peculiarly inequitable system of taxation, which makes it practically impossible for men of wealth to make their homes in the State, unless they are willing to commit what the law regards as perjury. The burden of taxation is in itself light, but, owing to the practice of assessing real estate at perhaps not more than a third or a fourth of what it is worth, while personal property, especially if intangible, must be returned at its full value, together with the circumstance that personal property constitutes a comparatively small part of the wealth of the State, the rate of taxation is extremely high. In fact, a man whose wealth was invested in bonds bearing a low rate of interest would find that his income was practically confiscated. We have in mind the case of a gentleman who had made his home in the State from choice, and who had become much attached to it, but who was so unfortunate as to become possessed of a considerable fortune, all of which was invested otherwise than in real estate. As the rate of taxation in the place of his residence was 3 or 4 per cent., he found himself under the necessity either of paying four-fifths of his income in taxes, or of making an evasive return of his property, or of leaving the State. Very reluctantly he chose the latter alternative, and thus he was deprived of a pleasant home while the State was deprived of a good citizen and lost revenue instead of gaining it. If the people of Vermont would really like to see families of wealth and culture making homes for themselves in their beautiful State, they should revise their inhospitable and unjust code of taxation.

A case has recently gone from the Massachusetts courts to the Supreme Court of the United States that raises a curious question. The county and town of Nantucket cover the same territory, so that it is impossible to be an inhabitant of one without being at the same time an inhabitant of the other. In 1888 it was discovered that the town treasurer, Brown, had been stealing from the town by means of forged vouchers, and at a town meeting, which was very largely attended, it was voted to prosecute him. Accordingly, at the next session of the Superior Court for the County of Nantucket, a grand jury drawn by the Selectmen at a town meeting called for that purpose brought in an indictment for forgery against Brown. The trial jury was drawn in the same way. Thereupon the defendant claimed that both the grand and trial juries were incompetent because of bias and interest, and that the draft by the Selectmen was illegal because of their interest in the matter. The importance of these objections lies in the fact that the defendant could have been indicted only in the county of Nantucket, so that, if the objections were sustained, no other prosecution could have been had. The objections, however, were overruled, upon the ground that neither the jurors nor the Selectmen had sufficient interest in the result to make them incompetent. The defendant then pleaded to the indictment and was convicted, but upon the trial his counsel discovered that some, if not all, of the members of both juries had been present at the meeting at which it was voted to proceed against Brown, and he thereupon filed a plea of exception to the jurisdiction upon the ground that the members of both juries were incompetent because of their having prejudged the case, alleging, also, that, under the circumstances, an impartial jury could not be obtained in Nantucket, and claiming the protection of the Constitutions of the State and of the United States. The plea was overruled by the Massachusetts Supreme Court upon grounds so technical that it is possible that the decision may be reversed, and in that case Brown will escape. In most cases where two political organizations are conterminous, it is a city and not a town that coincides with a county, and there is no personal participation by the possible jurors in proceedings against offenders except in the case of members of the grand jury; and it has been the tendency, we believe, generally to hold that their interest is insufficient to disqualify them from finding indictments against those who have defrauded the county or municipality. It is, however, quite desirable that the constitutional question should receive a final decision.

The growing dissatisfaction in Germany with the sugar bounty laws has at last led to their practical repeal. A law of May 31, regulating the inspection of beet-grown sugar and its domestic taxation, provides for the gradual lessening and final discontinuance of the drawback and bounty heretofore paid to exporters of refined sugar. The bounty is to cease altogether at the end of five years. The bounty laws have undoubtedly extended the area of beet culture. The sugar-producers have also been benefited at the expense of the rest of the community, for while they were getting their bounty out of the public treasury, the English were getting all the cheap sugar. The authorities have at last grown tired of taxing Germans for the sake of lowering the price of sugar in England. The curious question remains, how long it will be before the other Continental countries that copied German sugar legislation will admit, as Germany now does, that it is all a delusion and a snare. The German precedent was freely cited by our own bounty advocates in the last Congress, who have nothing but contempt for the example of "abroad," except when it is a bad example and they want to follow it. Now that it fails them, they will doubtless disown all foreign models, and fall back on their favorite thesis that the United States are privileged to defy all the established canons of taxation and finance.

A noteworthy convention of farmers and landed proprietors was held in Naples in the middle of July, for the purpose of considering the depressed condition of Italian agriculture. The southern provinces are the ones particularly suffering, and it was from them that the majority of the delegates came. There was a good deal of foolish talk, of the sort furnished in abundance in gatherings of agriculturists in our own land, mostly in regard to the feasibility of a Government "agrarian credit" to furnish capital to the tillers of the soil. In the complaints on account of unremunerative prices for farm products there was, too, a failure to recognize the effect of natural causes in cheapening what the farmer has to sell. But there was a very clear and sound conviction on all hands that the one thing which was doing Italian agriculture to death was the Italian tariff. In fact, the statistics of Italian foreign trade, since the new tariff was put into force, are an unanswerable proof that the diminished demand for the oil and wine and silk which the Italian farmers have to sell, is directly due to the customs barriers raised against importations to pay for them. That the Convention was sure of this may be seen from the following resolution it passed: "The Congress shares the view expressed by the Society of Viticulturists at Rome, May 23, and petitions his Majesty's Government, in negotiating future commercial treaties, not to sacrifice the interests of agriculture to those of manufactures, and, above all, that a greater liberty and facility in the exportation of agricultural products be secured by *suitable reductions in our general tariff.*" Two things stamp this resolution as remarkable. It makes no mention of any concessions to be obtained from France, or elsewhere, in return for the reductions desired, but urges them absolutely and for their own sake. Furthermore, it makes no exception of the duties supposed to protect the farmer—those on grain and rice. But the delegates must have known that those duties would not be spared in a general cutting down, and therefore they practically say that they are ready to give up duties nominally in their own favor if only they can get rid of the taxes meant to stimulate manufacturing. These last are the intolerable burden which the Italian farmers have had to bear, and they have finally found it out.

POLITICS AND THE SILVER QUESTION.

PRESIDENT HARRISON'S Albany speech, in which he pledged himself to veto a free-coinage bill if one should be sent him, is evidently destined to produce a great effect in more than one direction. The first reflection of every reader was upon the assurance thus given that no free-coinage bill can become a law, for it is obvious that a two-thirds vote could not be obtained in the Senate for its passage over a Presidential veto. This is in itself a great gain for the country. Until Mr. Harrison spoke, there was room for doubt as to his action in case a free-coinage bill should reach him; and so long as this doubt remained, uncertainty as to the future must prevail throughout the business community. This uncertainty is now removed. Everybody knows that the silver craze can go no further at present, so far as legislation is concerned.

But the President's deliverance will, we think, accomplish more than this. It must inevitably do a great deal to arrest the silver craze itself. It is perfectly obvious that this craze has been largely the work of the politicians in both parties. Republican politicians in the West, and Democratic in the West and South, have been shouting for free coinage because they thought there was something to be made out of the issue for their respective parties. They do not care anything about the principle of free coinage. Their only concern about it is as an issue by which they can win votes.

Mr. Harrison's announcement that he will use the veto power, if he is given a chance, shows the Republican politicians in the West who have been demanding free coinage that they will simply dig their own graves if they keep up their shouting. Mr. Harrison is the head of the Republican party. He declares that he will veto a certain bill if it reaches him. The great majority of his party applaud this announcement of his purpose. The minority of the party can accomplish nothing practical in the way of legislation by continuing their agitation. Moreover, they cannot help their party in their own States, or their own standing in the party, by keeping up the cry for free coinage. They will simply array themselves against the overwhelming sentiment of their party, and will get nothing but abuse in return. In short, so far as free coinage in the Republican party is concerned, Mr. Harrison's deliverance shows that "there is nothing in it" for the party as a party, or for ambitious politicians as self-seekers; and that is all that was necessary to make them ready to drop it.

The effect of the speech will not be lost upon the Democrats. The situation for them is exceedingly simple: they cannot elect a President without carrying the State of New York; their only chance of carrying New York is on a sound-money platform. With a free-coinage plank in the Democratic platform, there would be no use in the party's making a canvass. The Republicans would be sure of the State, and so of the nation. The Albany *Argus*, which speaks with authority as a Democratic newspaper, said of this matter the other day:

"The question of the free coinage of silver in the current acceptation of the words is one that cannot be debated in New York State. It takes a difference of opinion to make a debate, and there is absolutely no difference of opinion here on the subject. One would find about as many advocates of the sub-Treasury scheme in New York State as of the independent free coinage of silver, and a corporal's guard could not be mustered for either. With the exception of one member, or at the utmost two members, New York's Democratic delegation in Congress has always been united against it. If there is a newspaper in this State consistently supporting the nominees of the Democracy which favors free coinage, we do not know its name or it has not ventured to advance its opinion. The reason for this unanimity of sentiment in the party lies on the surface. New York is the great commercial State of the Union, and anything which injures her trade strikes hard the members of the party, who make up the mass of the business men of the State and of the frugal workingmen and women whose savings would be threatened by currency fluctuations."

Mr. Harrison's Albany declaration has been endorsed not less heartily by Democratic newspapers like the Albany *Argus* and Brooklyn *Eagle* than by Republican journals. Such a spectacle will not go unheeded by the Democrats of the South, where the silver craze has raged most violently. The most earnest free-coinage Democrats in South Carolina or Alabama will see that to press the acceptance of their views in the National Convention would be simply to assure the defeat of their party. They would not hasten in the slightest the advent of free coinage, for they would only insure the election of a Republican President pledged to oppose it, while they would continue in power a party committed to the Force Bill policy. Southern Democrats, therefore, like Western Republicans, will soon perceive that "there is nothing in free coinage for them," and will be equally ready to drop it. A national convention does not meet for the purpose of adopting a platform which is certain to give the other party a victory, especially when the Convention has an issue at hand on which it can hope to carry the country. It is consequently only a question of time when Democrats throughout the country will accept the opinion expressed by the Brooklyn *Eagle* when it said, apropos of the Albany speech: "Assured beforehand that Gen. Harrison would return an unlimited-coinage bill without his approval, the only effect of the passage of it over his veto by the great Democratic majority in the House would be to make the question of a sound currency the leading issue of the Presidential campaign, and thus rob the Democracy of the winning card which they now hold in the tariff-reform issue."

"The President," says Mr. Bryce in his 'American Commonwealth,' "has a position of immense dignity, an unrivalled platform from which to impress his ideas (if he has any) upon the people." There could be no more striking illustration of the truth of this observation than is afforded by the speech of Mr. Harrison at Albany on Tuesday week. The President had a great opportunity, and he improved it. Good citizens throughout the country, without respect to party, cannot be too hearty in their recognition of the great public service which he has rendered.

REPUBLICAN TACTICS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

THERE seems to be no doubt that, but for the interference of Mr. Blaine's friends, the President would have suffered a most humiliating slight at the hands of the Pennsylvania Republican Convention last week. Senators Quay and Cameron had been at work openly for several weeks past preparing to administer this slight. They are dissatisfied for various reasons with the President, and are anxious to show him their power. Nobody believes that they are sincere in their professions of devotion to Mr. Blaine as a Presidential candidate, the universal opinion in Pennsylvania and elsewhere being that they are using him as the most convenient and effective club with which to make warfare on the President. They reasoned that if they could get a plank into the Republican platform of Pennsylvania declaring Mr. Blaine to be the choice of the Republicans of that State for the Presidency, it would be nothing more nor less than public announcement that the Republicans of the most powerful Republican State in the Union were not in favor of the President's renomination.

It mattered little to them whether Mr. Blaine would like to be made use of in this manner, or whether such use would be beneficial to his Presidential prospects. If in getting rid of Harrison they got rid of Blaine too, this pair of experienced political speculators could easily find some other candidate. But Mr. Blaine and his friends were not slow to see what the effect of a Presidential nomination of him at this time would be. They saw that it would inevitably force him to do one of two things —either decline absolutely to be a candidate, or retire from the Cabinet. As he was not willing to take either step now, his only course was to prevent the nomination. Thus it came about that the resolution which had been prepared and printed, eulogizing the "brilliant Administration," the "superb diplomacy," and the "magnificent achievements" of the State Department, and expressing the hope that the "Republican National Convention of 1892 may place in unanimous nomination for the Presidency—which nomination we feel assured will be followed by a triumphant election—the Honorable James G. Blaine of Pennsylvania and Maine," was altered in committee at the instance of Mr. Blaine's friends, and the hope above quoted was made to give way to a reaffirmation of the "loyalty and devotion of the Republicans of Pennsylvania to her most distinguished son, the Hon. James G. Blaine."

It must be said that Mr. Blaine has come out of the struggle with all the honors that were to be won in it. He will not be compelled to take any notice of this expression of loyalty and devotion, and at the same time he has the best of reasons for believing that if his friends had not interfered, the resolution in its original form would have been adopted. The President, on the other

hand, gets little comfort for himself. He has, to be sure, a resolution of approval, but so has Mr. Wanamaker; in neither case is it accompanied by anything resembling a Presidential nomination. Then, if the President reads the reports of the Convention's proceedings, or the comments of the Republican newspapers upon them, he will see that the sentiment of the Convention was overwhelmingly in favor of Mr. Blaine, and that no mention whatever is made of the existence of a sentiment in favor of Harrison's renomination. Even those journals which advocated the change in the Blaine resolution say it was done from motives of policy alone, there being no doubt whatever that Blaine is the first choice of Pennsylvania Republicans as the national candidate for 1892.

The disturbing question for Mr. Blaine and his friends is as to the purpose of Messrs. Quay and Cameron in taking Blaine up as their candidate now. That they meant harm to him in the resolution as first drawn seems to be conceded. It was designed to force his hand at a most inopportune moment. He has parried that move very skilfully, but he has not shaken their control of the Pennsylvania Machine. They are as certain now as they were before the Convention to control the delegation to the National Republican Convention, and any one who has followed the political careers of the two men will admit without discussion that they will use that control absolutely in their personal interest. The vote of the Pennsylvania delegation next year, as in the days of Cameron the elder, will be given to the candidate who will meet most fully the wants of Pennsylvania as represented by its political rulers. In other words, Quay and Cameron are moving for position next year, and a great many other "business Republicans" of the same type, including Elkins and Dorsey and our own Platt, are deeply immersed in the same occupation.

The one point in the situation which has been clear for some time, is, that many of these Republicans leaders are, for various reasons, doubtful about the wisdom of Harrison's renomination. They do not like him in the first place, and they have grave doubts about the possibility of his reëlection in the second place. At the same time they are not certain that they can do any better. They are not certain that Mr. Blaine will be either willing or able to run. Hence they are preparing now for emergencies, and are aiming to secure, first of all, a majority of the delegates in order to be in position to dictate the nomination when the time to make it arrives. Whether the President is to have it or not, they are determined that he shall depend upon them for his fate.

REVENUE UNDER THE NEW TARIFF.

The McKinley Bill was made law in the profoundest ignorance of what its effect upon the public revenue would be. Various solemn guesses were made by various Congressmen, it is true. Thus, Senator Allison, on September 2, 1890, put the reduction to be caused by the bill at $33,500,000, though three weeks later he had arrived at a revised estimate, namely, "forty to forty-five millions." When the Finance Committee reported the bill to the Senate, it stated that, according to the House schedules, a reduction of $71,064,774 was estimated, while, on the basis of the Committee's proposals, it would amount to $60,599,343. The nice calculation down to the very dollar was certainly edifying. However, at the very last moment before the new tariff was put to final vote, after the customary playing foot-ball with it in Conference Committee, Senator Aldrich was driven by Senator Gorman's nagging to give a last estimate. His figures were "forty-two to forty-three millions," though he included in that sum the reduction of $6,280,000 which it was expected to bring about in the internal revenue by the changes in the tobacco schedules. All this goes to show that Senator Carlisle was perfectly justified in beginning his final speech against the bill by saying: "It is not my purpose to attempt to state what the effect of this measure will be upon the public revenue, because it would be impossible to do so with any degree of accuracy." Thus the so-called "bill to reduce the revenues" was a leap into the dark.

But we now have ten months to look back upon, during which the law has been in actual operation, and are in a position to test prophecy by fact. The sums turned into the national Treasury from customs receipts in the ten months since last October amount to $168,755,985.38. For the corresponding months of the preceding fiscal year the collections were $195,416,296.36. Thus the apparent falling off is $26,660,310.98, or at the rate of $32,092,373.16 for twelve months. But two features of the McKinley Bill come in seriously to modify this showing—the sugar schedules and the tin-plate clauses. Sugar and molasses have been free only since April 1, and, so far as they are concerned, the full effect of the tariff has been visible during the past four months alone. Restricting the comparison to them, we find that the revenue derived from customs during that period, this year, was $54,224,031.33, while for the corresponding part of 1890 it was $82,551,083.22. Here, then, is a falling off of $28,327,051.89 in no more than four months, or at the rate of $84,981,155.64 a year. This would leave Senators Aldrich and Allison from forty to fifty millions under the mark.

But the tin-plate clause of the bill remains to be considered in its effects upon the national revenue. Going into effect no earlier than July 1 of this year, it leaves us with the customs returns of only a single month under the full operation of McKinleyism. In the first place, it is certain that an extra revenue has been derived from the extra importations made to anticipate the tax going into force July 1. A fair estimate of this would be not far from $3,000,000. This sum should then be added to the $84,981,155.64 given above. It may be objected that this deduction for tin plate will more than be made good when we resume importing under the higher rate. No true McKinleyite will make this objection, for he is bound to maintain that we are going to make our own tin plate. However, it looks very much as if we should have to continue importing, and we therefore will be perfectly fair, and leave the tin-plate revenue out of the account altogether for the present fiscal year, balancing the large stock on hand against the increased duties. In the following fiscal year (1892–3) probably the revenue from tin plate will be about $15,000,000, or twice what it was in 1889–90, which was a year of normal importation. This increase will, however, be more than offset by the bounties on home-grown sugar.

We do not say that the falling off of $85,000,000 a year which we thus obtain as the probable effect of the McKinley Bill on customs revenue is to be the absolute and final effect of that law. We simply say that it is the best estimate that can be made from four months of actual experience, and that such an estimate, faulty though it may prove to be, is worth more than blind guesses made beforehand. The future has too many uncertain elements, such as the possibility of increased imports at higher rates, to allow one to be dogmatical. But the basis of fact we have to go upon, narrow though it be, enables us to emphasize afresh the reckless and ignorant folly with which a bill of such tremendous though unknown effect upon the national income was enacted. Piling up appropriations to an unprecedented height, and then passing a tariff which will possibly cut off the revenue by $85,000,000, is the crowning proof of that "genius for legislation" which, we have been told, characterizes the Republican party.

THE SWISS CELEBRATION.

It seems a little strange that a people so fond as ours of celebrating the anniversaries of the beginnings of their institutions should have manifested so little interest in the recent celebration in Switzerland. This ancient republic has now represented the cause of freedom for 600 years, and, although not the direct source of our own institutions, has had a greater influence upon them than is generally recognized. During the period when despotism was most rampant, the Swiss gave shelter to the victims of political and religious persecution, often with much peril to themselves; and it is easy to trace the results in English and Scottish history of the sojourn of these reformers in Switzerland. Nor should it be forgotten that the primitive institutions of free government, from which the present institutions of the Teutonic races have been developed, are still flourishing among the Swiss mountains. As Mr. Freeman says, the Englishman passing through Altdorf on any first Sunday in May "may feel the thrill of looking, for the first time, face to face, upon freedom in its purest and most ancient form; for this is the land where the oldest institutions of our race still live in all their primeval freshness, in a country where an immemorial freedom puts to shame the boasted antiquity of kingly dynasties."

It is instructive to recall the words of the compact made in 1291, between the three forest cantons. They are substantially as follows:

"In the name of the Lord! Amen. It is for

the public honor and advantage that treaties relating to peace and security should be framed in a becoming manner. Be it known, therefore, to every one that the people of the valley of Uri, the members of the commune of the valley of Schwytz, and those of the commune of the lower valley of Unterwalden, in view of the troubles of the times, to the end that they may be able better to protect themselves and theirs, and maintain themselves in comfort, have bound themselves in good faith to render one another mutual assistance in succor, in counsel, and in goods, whether persons or things are involved, whether within or without the valleys, with all their power and with all their good will, against those, one and all, who offer any violence towards them or any one of them, who do them any wrong or injury either in person or goods: and each community promises the others to come to their assistance on every occasion so soon as necessary and at its own expense, to repel so soon as there is need the attacks of the evil-disposed, and to avenge injuries."

There follow provisions binding the confederates not to recognize any "judge," meaning probably an officer charged with the administration of justice by the German Empire, if he has bought his office or does not belong to the community, provisions for the settlement of disputes by arbitrators selected from the wisest, whose decisions are to be enforced by the confederates, and other clauses relating to the punishment of certain crimes. A few years later, in 1307, this agreement was confirmed by the oath of the three patriots who met, according to tradition, on the shores of the Vierwaldstättersee, near the stone converted some years since into a monument to Schiller, as the poet who had most worthily celebrated the deeds of William Tell. The famous victories over the Austrian Dukes at Morgarten and Sempach, and those over Charles the Bold at Granson and Morat, proved the power of the confederates, and canton after canton was admitted until, after many vicissitudes, the Union assumed its present form.

While there have been dark episodes in Swiss history, and while the constitutions of many of the cantons were until recently of a highly aristocratic character, the cause of human freedom has never lacked defenders in Switzerland. It was, however, in their enlightened recognition of the fact that freedom cannot maintain itself in small and disunited communities that the Swiss have taught the world their most valuable lesson. Because they would not consent to yield to one another, to relinquish their full independence, for the sake of the common defence against external foes, the Greek cities ended careers full of glorious promise to humanity, in misery and subjection. In the same way the Italian republics suffered the most terrible calamities rather than enter into any effective confederation, and finally sank under the yoke of tyrants more barbarous than those of Greece. But the rude mountaineers of Switzerland combined with their love of freedom a hard common sense that taught them that their little cantons would be conquered in detail by the powerful States with which they were surrounded, unless they abandoned their petty jealousies and made common cause against all aggressors; yet it was only gradually that the Federal Government acquired control of the army, and the tendency to centralization has been steadily held in check until recently, when the substantial unity of the country has led to a general recognition of the disadvantages attending too great diversity in cantonal legislation. It is not a centralization of administration, however, that exists, for the true governing body is the *Gemeinde*, or commune, just as the town is in New England.

The chief feature of the celebration which has just taken place was the performance of an historical play at Schwytz, much after the manner of the performance of the "Passion Play" at Ober-Ammergau, the situation of the theatre being one of the most picturesque in Switzerland. Three Helvetian families, in a semi-savage state, were represented as arriving in Schwytz 200 years before the Christian era, and from these families the hunters of Uri, the fishermen of the Lake of the Four Cantons, and the herdsmen of Schwytz trace their descent. Succeeding tableaux showed the signing of the League of 1291, the heroic deeds of Tell, the defeats of the Austrians and Burgundians, and other noted events. The costumes were intended to be historically appropriate, and the different scenes were relieved by instrumental music and popular choruses, while in the evening the whole country was illuminated. The final celebration took place upon the Rütli, where a scene from the second act of Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell" was performed by a choir of 750 male voices. Altogether, the celebration seems to have been worthy of the notable occasion and of the grand and beautiful surroundings, and to have aroused very lively interest throughout Europe, even the Austrian Minister being present.

OUR FEDERAL JUDICIAL ESTABLISHMENT.—II.

How many of the judges exercise jurisdiction in the places where they grew up professionally, does not appear except by inference. It is probable that most of them reached the bench in that ordinary way, though doubtless the war and the reconstruction troubles produced some aberration in this respect in the Southern States. But it is interesting to note that of the nine Supreme judges five are New England born or reared, two were born in New York, and two in the Southern States; but no man born in the West is now upon that bench, though Field, Brewer, and Brown are Western men in the sense that their professional training and experience were had in that section. Of the ten Circuit judges, one is a New England man, and upon the bench there; three were born in New York, two being upon the bench in that State, and one an emigrant to California; one each was born in Pennsylvania, Indiana, Maryland, and Tennessee, where, respectively, they grew up, so to speak, to the bench; one was born in Ohio, where he was trained professionally, and, settling after the war in Louisiana, was appointed to the bench there, succeeding another Ohio man similarly appointed to the Circuit bench in the South and then promoted to the Supreme bench, giving that State at the time three judges on that bench, and one, born in Virginia and trained professionally in Iowa, was, during the war, appointed by Lincoln to the District bench in Arkansas, and afterwards, and recently, to the Circuit bench from that State by President Harrison.

Of the sixty-four District judges, counting by the bare fact of birth, and following the conventional geographical divisions of the Union, there are twelve New England men, sixteen Middle State men, ten Western State men, twenty-five Southern State men, and one foreign-born. But, counting by professional training, and taking the two great political divisions which have, unfortunately, always existed, we have forty-five Northern and nineteen Southern men. In this enumeration, Bruce of Alabama, born in Scotland, but brought up in Iowa; Love of Iowa, born in Virginia, but brought up in Iowa; Deady of Oregon, born in Maryland; Woods of Indiana, born in Tenneseee; Ross of California, born in Virginia; Allen of Illinois, born in Tennessee, and Swayne of Florida, born in Delaware and brought up in Pennsylvania—all Northern men, in fact, by education and residence—are counted as such, although actually born in the Southern States; while Thayer of Missouri, born in New York, is, for the same reason, counted as a Southern man. Then we have the totals on this line of division—of the Supreme judges, seven Northern and two Southern men; of the Circuit judges, eight Northern and two Southern men; and of the District judges, forty-five Northern and nineteen Southern men, or a grand total of sixty Northern men and twenty-three Southern men in a total of eighty-three judges.

Of the Supreme judges, four Northern men exercise their Circuit jurisdiction exclusively in Northern States, and one Southern man exclusively in Southern States; one Northern man exclusively in Southern States, and one Southern man exclusively in Northern States; and two Northern men each partly in Northern and partly in Southern States.

Of the ten Circuit judges, six Northern men exercise their jurisdiction exclusively in Northern States; one Northern and one Southern man exclusively in Southern States; and one Northern and one Southern man each partly in Northern and partly in Southern States.

Of the District judges, there is no judge professionally trained in the Southern States exercising jurisdiction in any Northern State, except sometimes by special assignment in an emergency, though five of the judges of Northern districts were actually born in the South. But in the fifteen Southern States eight of the judges are Northern men by birth and professional training; and of all the thirty-four judges, Supreme, Circuit, and District, exercising the jurisdiction of the Circuit and District courts in those States, twelve are Northern men and twenty-two Southern men; while of the forty-two judges having the same jurisdiction in the Northern States, only two, Harlan and Jackson, are Southern men. The total result here is, that there are sixty Northern and only twenty-three Southern judges.

Counting the averages of population, the disparity between the North and South is still apparent. According to the population of the States by the census of 1890, of the whole eighty-three judges competent to hold the Circuit and District courts, the average gives a judge to every 744,442 people. The North should have a small fraction over fifty-three of them, say fifty-four, and the South a large fraction over twenty-nine of them. The North has, in fact, sixty and the South twenty-three, so that the South is six judges short in the present division. By a similar calculation the South is entitled to a small fraction over three of the nine Supreme judges, and has but two, the North having seven; likewise of the ten

Circuit judges there should be a large fraction over six for the North, say seven, and three for the South, while the latter has but two; and the South, by the average of population, should have twenty-three of the sixty-four District judges and the North forty-one; but the North has forty-five and the South only nineteen, so that the general result is that the South has one less of the Supreme judges, one less of the existing Circuit judges, and four less of the District judges, than her share according to the average of population.

This disparity of distribution is attributable, no doubt, to the war, but it is probably not the less distasteful to the Southern people, and perhaps accounts for much of the unpopularity of the Federal courts in that section, and the half-concealed unfriendliness to them that often exhibits itself in Congress. But it should also be noted that the South has, numerically, one more District judge than her share, albeit so many of them are Northern men. The share, according to population, of each is almost exactly forty-one and twenty-three of the existing list of sixty-four; the North has forty and the South twenty-four of them, which is, so far as mere numbers go, a remarkably even balancing of the service, though the disparity is so great in the other respects mentioned.

Of the nineteen Circuit judges that we shall have when the President appoints the new nine, the North, according to population, should have a small fraction over twelve, say thirteen; and the South nearly seven, say six. Of the ten Circuit judges now existing, the North has eight by professional training and the South only two. To equalize them, the North should have, of the new nine, five, and the South four, or one for each of the Circuits to which the Southern States are attached, except Delaware, which has heretofore been included in this analysis among the Southern States; or, again so including that State, one each for four of the five Circuits having Southern States, which would then give the North thirteen of the nineteen Circuit judges and the South six. This would also be, probably, a fair division on any other basis than that of population; and when it is considered that the North has so much advantage among the Supreme judges, who are likewise members of the new Courts of Appeal along with these Circuit judges, it would seem as if the mitigation of the existing inequality between the sections should wisely be regarded by the President as worthy of his attention.

Another interesting feature of the judicial service as exhibited by the Register of the Department of Justice, particularly since the President has shown a disposition to promote judges where it can be done consistently with other considerations, is the length of the service of the judges, as shown by the dates of their commissions. The facts as to the Supreme judges are already quite well known, but as to the others most people are perhaps not so well informed. The oldest in point of service of the Supreme judges is Justice Field, appointed by Lincoln in 1863, but, as will be presently seen, there are five other judges older than he in commission. Justice Bradley comes next, appointed by Grant in 1870; then Justice Harlan, appointed by Hayes in 1877; then the two appointees of Arthur, viz., Justices Gray and Blatchford, in 1881 and 1882 respectively; after these, Justice Lamar and Chief-Justice Fuller, appointed by Cleveland in 1888; and, lastly, Justices Brewer and Brown, appointed by Harrison in 1889 and 1890 respectively.

Here it may be noted that, notwithstanding the apparently long tenure of the Federal judges, as to whom Mr. Jefferson's often quoted taunt that "Vacancies by death are few, by resignation, none," is quite frequently remembered, only two of the Supreme judges antedate Hayes's Administration. Of all the judges there are only twenty-two (but little more than one-fourth of them) appointed prior to the Hayes Administration; in other words, three-fourths of them have been appointed within fifteen years. The data are not at hand for ascertaining the average length of service of the Federal judges, but it is doubtful if, taking them all together since the beginning, this average would be much higher than that of the State judges in those States having long terms of years as a tenure, and where the habit is to reëlect the judges once or twice until they die or are too old to serve. This would be an interesting comparison if some one had the patience to make it for a century of time in all the State and Federal courts. The more intelligent advocates of an elective judiciary agree that the terms should be long, and a reëlection certain if the judge be a satisfactory one in all respects. This would give to such a system all the advantage that comes from long experience, and, in the average, to the judge about as long a tenure in fact as he would probably have in the other. There are other advantages and disadvantages, to be sure, with either system; but sometimes the fact is overlooked that an elective Federal judiciary would quite destroy the reason of there being any Federal judiciary at all. The local influence in favor of a resident against a non-resident would be paramount in the election of the judge, and he might be subordinate to it; wherefore, since the non-resident may not vote for the judge, he can only exercise a choice about his selection through the common agent of both, the President. This consideration probably makes the selection of Federal judges by some common agency a necessity.

The Circuit judges were unknown prior to 1870, and of the original appointees by Grant in 1870, only Sawyer of California and Bond of Maryland remain; then comes Pardee of Louisiana, appointed by Garfield in 1881, who, with Boarman, one of the District judges in Louisiana, alone represents that Administration among all these judges; next are Wallace of New York, 1882, Colt of Rhode Island and Gresham of Indiana, both, in 1884, appointed by Arthur; next are Jackson of Tennessee, 1886, and Lacombe of New York, 1887, appointed by Cleveland; and, lastly, Caldwell of Arkansas and Acheson of Pennsylvania, 1891, appointed by Harrison, who has already, through factitious circumstances, appointed more judges than any of the Presidents except, possibly, Washington at the original organization, and Grant at the reconstruction period of the Union. He has within two years appointed two Supreme, two Circuit, and fifteen District judges—nineteen in all; and will probably exceed any one of the Presidents before his term expires, since he has a newly made set of Circuit judges to appoint, as Grant had, and the new States have nearly set off the reconstruction judges appointed by Grant.

The roster of the District Judges is as follows: Hoffman, California, 1851, by Fillmore; Love, Iowa, 1856, by Pierce*; Nelson, Minnesota, 1858, Deady, Oregon, 1859, by Buchanan; Jackson, West Virginia, 1861, Benedict, New York, 1865, by Lincoln; Hill, Mississippi, 1866, Dundy, Nebraska, 1868, by Johnson; Blodgett, Illinois, 1870, Locke, Florida, 1872, Dick, North Carolina, 1872, Shipman, Connecticut, 1873, Hughes, Virginia, 1874, Foster, Kansas, 1874, Bruce, Alabama, 1875, Parker, Arkansas, 1875, Billings, Louisiana, 1876, Hallet, Colorado, 1887, by Grant; Wheeler, Vermont, 1877, Bunn, Wisconsin, 1877, Hammond, Tennessee, 1878, Nelson, Massachusetts, 1879, Butler, Pennsylvania, 1879, McCormick, Texas, 1879, Morris, Maryland, 1879, Barr, Kentucky, 1880, Key, Tennessee, 1880, by Hayes; Boarman, Louisiana, 1881, by Garfield; Brown, New York, 1881, Webb, Maine, 1882, Seymour, North Carolina, 1882, Coxe, New York, 1882, Shires, Iowa, 1882, Paul, Virginia, 1883, Sage, Ohio, 1884, Woods, Indiana, 1884, Wales, Delaware, 1884, Carpenter, Rhode Island, 1884, Speer, Georgia, 1885, by Arthur; Severens, Michigan, 1886, Newman, Georgia, 1886, Simonton, South Carolina, 1886, Toulmin, Alabama, 1887, Ross, California, 1887, Thayer, Missouri, 1887, Allen, Illinois, 1888, Maxey, Texas, 1888, Phillips, Missouri, 1888, Jenkins, Wisconsin, 1888, by Cleveland; and Edgerton, South Dakota, 1889, Ricks, Ohio, 1890, Green, New Jersey, 1890, Knowles, Montana, 1890, Thomas, North Dakota, 1890, Hanford, Washington, 1890, Swayne, Florida, 1890, Bryant, Texas, 1890, Hawley, Nevada, 1890, Williams, Arkansas, 1890, Riner, Wyoming, 1890, Swan, Michigan, 1891, Reed, Pennsylvania, 1891, Aldrich, New Hampshire, 1891, and Beatty, Idaho, 1891, by Harrison. Summing up, we reckon: Fillmore one, Pierce one, Buchanan two, Lincoln two, Johnson two, Grant ten, Hayes nine, Garfield one, Arthur eleven, Cleveland ten, and Harrison fifteen. Leaving out the new States, Harrison has appointed nine of these judges within the first half of his term, which, at the same rate during the next half, would give about one-third of the whole body within a Presidential term; Cleveland, however, appointed only ten during his whole term, which, making allowance for newly created districts and judges, would bring his list very far below this estimate for Harrison, and below any average for all the Presidents suggested by existing lists. Vacancies by resignation or retirement are few, though in neither case is Mr. Jefferson's statement that "none resign" true; but, with Harrison, vacancies in the body of District judges have been increased by his policy of promotion, there being three of these; which, again leaving out the new States, somewhat accounts for his already larger list than the others.

While the facts might be accurately ascertained by a sufficient examination of other records, it may be here approximately estimated from the statistics obtainable in the Register, that at least one-fourth of the judges are changed during every Presidential term, as an average for the whole century and a little more, during the existence of the system. This would give, approximately, an average tenure of sixteen years, which may be little, if any, more than the tenure of reëlected judges in the Supreme courts of the States having the best elective systems; though, of course, the actual tenure of State judges of original cognizance would probably be found to be far less upon like averages, for it is with those judges, subject to narrower local conditions, that the elective system produces the most rapid changes.

There is no means of finding the averages of ages of the judges (though there should be) from the Register, even approximately; but since eight of the district judges (one-eighth of the whole number) were appointed prior to 1870, and these go back to Fillmore in 1851, in

*The deaths of Judges Hoffman and Love have been very recently announced.

one case, and since it is known that, until quite recently, elderly men were preferred for the bench, this average must be quite large, and, as a mere guess, from general appearances, would probably reach the age of sixty, or be very near that figure. The newspapers report one of these judges, Hill of Mississippi, who has just retired at the age of eighty, after twenty-five years of service, to be "hale and hearty," and there are six judges older in commission than he. The Grant judges must be mostly past sixty, taking forty as an average of the age of going on the bench—and it is perhaps short of the exact average some years—and many appointed since Grant must be likewise past sixty; so that that age is probably below, rather than above, the exact average.

Arranged more interestingly by circuits, and in the order of their commissions, this body of District judges presents the following result: *First Circuit*—Nelson, Massachusetts, 1879; Webb, Maine, 1882; Carpenter, Rhode Island, 1884; Aldrich, New Hampshire, 1891. *Second Circuit*—Benedict, New York, 1865; Shipman, Connecticut, 1873; Wheeler, Vermont, 1877; Brown, New York, 1881; Coxe, New York, 1882. *Third Circuit*—Butler, Pennsylvania, 1879; Wales, Delaware, 1884; Green, New Jersey, 1890; Reed, Pennsylvania, 1891. *Fourth Circuit*—Jackson, West Virginia, 1861; Dick, North Carolina, 1872; Hughes, Virginia, 1874; Morris, Maryland, 1879; Seymour, North Carolina, 1882; Paul, Virginia, 1883; Simonton, South Carolina, 1886. *Fifth Circuit*—Hill, Mississippi, 1866; Locke, Florida, 1872; Bruce, Alabama, 1875; Billings, Louisiana, 1876; McCormick, Texas, 1879; Boarman, Louisiana, 1881; Speer, Georgia, 1885; Newman, Georgia, 1886; Toulmin, Alabama, 1887; Maxey, Texas, 1888; Swayne, Florida, 1890; Bryant, Texas, 1890. *Sixth Circuit*—Hammond, Tennessee, 1878; Barr, Kentucky, 1880; Key, Tennessee, 1880; Sage, Ohio, 1884; Severens, Michigan, 1886; Ricks, Ohio, 1890; Swan, Michigan, 1891. *Seventh Circuit*—Blodgett, Illinois, 1870; Bunn, Wisconsin, 1877; Woods, Indiana, 1884; Allen, Illinois, 1888; Jenkins, Wisconsin, 1888. *Eighth Circuit*—Love, Iowa, 1856; Nelson, Minnesota, 1858; Dundy, Nebraska, 1868; Foster, Kansas, 1874; Parker, Arkansas, 1875; Hallett, Colorado, 1877; Shiras, Iowa, 1882; Thayer, Missouri, 1887; Phillips, Missouri, 1888; Edgerton, South Dakota, 1889; Thomas, North Dakota, 1890; Williams, Arkansas, 1890; Riner, Wyoming, 1890. *Ninth Circuit*—Hoffman, California, 1851; Deady, Oregon, 1859; Ross, California, 1887; Knowles, Montana, 1890; Hanford, Washington, 1890; Hawley, Nevada, 1890; Beatty, Idaho, 1891.

There is much other useful information in the Register concerning the Department of Justice. It gives the names, with other items of interest, of the Territorial judges, judges of the courts of the District of Columbia, the notaries public there, the other officials of the District connected with that Department, the Circuit Court Commissioners, the clerks and marshals of the courts, and like ready-reference knowledge that is often needed. But we have confined this notice of the publication to the Federal judicial establishment as it relates to the States, because of its importance to the country generally.

THE GREAT WAGNER FETISH.

BAYREUTH, August, 1891.

GREATER than ever this summer have been the crowds flocking to Bayreuth. The town is filled to overflowing, the hotels are charging what they please, every citizen with a room to spare has turned it to profit by taking in a lodger. The biggest bank in the place has become a ticket office, the druggists are selling Parsifal perfumery—the stationers, Wagner souvenirs—and all shopkeepers advertise the Holy Grail, in *Purpurglas und Metalfuss*, at the lowest possible price. Even the Bayreuth barmaid has figured as Kundry. In a word, as the most devout Wagnerites are admitting, the memory of the great man has been converted into a commercial commodity worked for all it is worth by the Fenstal Bank and the Sonne Hotel; the opera-house built by the Wagner societies of Europe has been made a rendezvous for Cook's tourists; and Bayreuth is already as exploited as Ober-Ammergau and Nizhni-Novgorod.

That it is not the music alone which attracts the crowd, goes without saying. So few cared for it before the opera-house was built that there was trouble enough, as is well known, to carry through the enterprise. Those few—musicians themselves, or honest, intelligent lovers of music—are to be found in Bayreuth, but they are in the minority. The large numbers who more than willingly pay their twenty marks, or five dollars, for one performance, understand as little about music as the tourists who flock to the national galleries of Europe understand about pictures. To discuss the relative merits of Wagner would be quite too late in the day, if these had anything to do with the phenomenal success of the annual Bayreuth festival. But even the initiated attribute this success chiefly to the perfect manner in which every performance as a whole is conducted; and praise of the artistic stage management has been repeated until it is accepted as an article of faith in the Wagner creed. I needed no proof of the musical greatness of the Wagner opera when I came to Bayreuth: it was, therefore, in the artistic presentation that my interest was most keenly aroused. The stage manager who is also an artist is not to be found every day.

Of course, one is specially anxious to see "Parsifal," as it cannot be performed outside of Bayreuth, and it was at "Parsifal" I received my first impressions. With the theatre itself no fault can be found. As there was not much money to be spent on it, the exterior has been sacrificed to the interior—which is as it should be, though the fact is to be regretted; for the building stands in a commanding position in the valley, of which it might be made the most striking feature. But when you first see it from the near hills, as I did coming into Bayreuth by the highroad from the Bohemian frontier, it looks like a big, bare, ugly barn backing up against the beautiful great greenwood behind it. What a glorious building an artistic architect with plenty of money to spend could have made! It does not improve in appearance when one comes closer to it. But the interior more nearly approaches perfection than any theatre I know of. The entrances and exits are most admirably arranged, and there is not a seat from which the stage cannot be seen. To be sure, from the gallery you have not such a good view as from below, and if you happen to be sitting there, you feel very doubtful as to the excellence of the plan of charging the same price all over the house. When Wagner was alive and in Bayreuth, and when the performance brought together members of Wagner societies from the world over, all in the first freshness of their enthusiasm, it was another matter. But now that the festival has degenerated into a commercial enterprise, principally for the benefit of the Fenstal Bank and the Sonne Hotel, I am irreverent enough to think that the scale of charges adopted by ordinary theatres would answer as well. Probably, general interest might grow less with the price; too many of the goods of this world are prized according to their cost.

The edifying hush that suddenly falls upon the audience, together with the beauty of the overture, heightens one's expectations. It is consequently something of a disappointment, when the curtain goes up on the first act of "Parsifal," to see a very commonplace woodland scene, neither better nor worse than that produced in the average theatre. My first thought was that Mr. Irving might give them a tip or two at Bayreuth. In this wood, with its decided attempt at realism, *Gurnemanz* and the knights and squires, posing in stained-glass attitudes, and grouping themselves into primitive compositions after Pinturicchio or Hans Memling, seemed as out of keeping as Claude Lantier's naked women rising from the Seine opposite Notre Dame. For the scenery is realistic according to the modern standard of realism, and yet the performers, one and all, are as stiff and stagy and unreal as the typical tenor of the opera of the past. There is scarcely a gesture of Grengg as *Gurnemanz*, not a movement of Van Dyck as *Parsifal*, not a pose of Reichmann as *Amfortas*, that is not conventional and academic to a fault. Materna as *Kundry*, lying on a palpably painted rubber air-bag which does duty for a mound, is no more natural or real. The flight on a wire across the scene of the swan, stiff and without a throe in its death agony, is simply funny; and its disappearance behind a bush, and the immediate entry of the knights with a stuffed bird, its neck twisted out of shape, savors too much of old stage tricks. Nor is there the least impressiveness or dramatic force in the famous walk of *Parsifal* and *Gurnemanz* through the woods. The renowned gradual shifting of the scenery, accomplished by jerks, is no better than it might be at a Sunday-school panorama, and Van Dyck and Grengg hardly increase the intended allusion by walking when the scenery stands still and standing still when it moves. But even they evidently appreciate their ridiculous position, and speedily vanish in the wings.

All this may sound like hypercriticism, but the Wagnerites have so loudly and so often insisted upon the artistic as well as musical perfection of the Wagner opera that they have led us to expect a high standard. It would be absurd to pretend that the opera depended upon the scenery for its greatness; all who have heard Mr. Theodore Thomas's interpretation of Wagner know better. It would be as sensible to run down the acting at the Théâtre-Français because the stage setting is so poor. But at the Comédie-Française no pretension to artistic or pictorial effect is made. When there is this pretension, then we look at a stage in an entirely different manner. Since Mr. Irving has shown how beautiful and artistic stage pictures can be, we must either have the thing well done or not done at all. Unfortunately, at Bayreuth there is an ambitious attempt which too often falls hopelessly short of our modern ideals.

It is even worse with the other scenes. At the Lyceum we have seen elaborate architecture perfectly and adequately rendered. In "Parsifal" the hall of the Holy Grail is but an impossible architectural hybrid, a species of Venetian St. Mark's, a Moorish scheme of decoration, while the perspective is so out that when the Knights of the Holy Grail come marching in they are taller than the distant

columns. One wishes almost that the background had been left as entirely to one's imagination as the scenery in Bottom's play, for the members of the chorus at Bayreuth have been marvellously well trained, and throughout the two hall scenes the solemnity and earnestness with which the services are conducted are as fine and dramatic as anything I have ever seen in any theatre. But even here there is much in the way of grouping and posing that an Irving might have improved; and in the first scene Van Dyck, in his desire not to detract from the central interest, stands so motionless that one begins nervously to watch him to see how long he can remain without moving hand or foot. It must be noted, too, that even the best effects are ruined by the electric light, which is thrown about on the stage with as much artistic feeling as there is in the regulation of a search-light in a man-of-war. The illumination of the Grail is really not up to the level of Niblo's or Drury Lane. Indeed, throughout, the lighting of the stage is as ineffective as that of the house is satisfactory. In the second act, where *Klingsor* summons *Kundry*, the blue light never once hits the smoke upon which it is intended to fall.

The palm for inartistic arrangement, however, must be given to the magic garden in the second act. Such gaudy coloring, such hideous crudeness, such artless composition, would hardly be expected outside of a Surreyside pantomime. It may be necessary that the flowers should be colossal in size, in order that the relations of the flower-girls to them may be duly observed. But the scene when *Parsifal* appears suggests nothing so much as the straying of a Gulliver into a Brobdingnagian garden; and, even if the flowers must be of such gigantic proportions, that is no reason why in color and form they should outrage every law of beauty. The height of ugliness is reached when Frau Materna, in a brilliant yellow satin gown, is shoved in on a wheeled couch, the flower beds having to be hauled up to the flies to make room for her, and one more inharmonious note is added to an already crude color scheme. Personalties are to be avoided in this personal age, and I shall content myself by saying that, in the scene which follows, if *Parsifal* and *Kundry* could be as effectually concealed from the audience as the orchestra is, the power of the music would gain rather than lose. Unquestionably, as an artistic spectacle, "Parsifal" does not deserve its present fame, though every Wagnerite will assure you that it far excels "Tannhäuser" or "Tristan," either of which can be as well seen in Dresden, London, or New York.

But what matter? To go to Bayreuth has been made the correct thing, and the public flock thither like so many sheep, though they could not themselves say whether the music is fine or the stage management artistic. Of course there are the few who really and genuinely appreciate the music; but to one-half of the rest of the audience the opera is a sacred rite at which they assist, as the Catholic assists at the sacrifice of the Mass, without a question, without a doubt, without a murmur; they are as much in earnest as the worshipper of Ibsen, or of Browning, or of Burne-Jones. To the other half it is a freak of fashion which it would not do for them to ignore, and they sit through the performance as conscientiously as they wear (if they are women) high sleeves and small bonnets, (if they are men) low-cut vests and linen shirts. They may be bored to death, but it is their duty, just as it is to see the "Passion Play" at Ober-Ammergau, or the Sistine Madonna at Dresden. And, after all, there is breathing-space in the three-quarters of an hour intervals, when the run on the two near restaurants is like that of hungry travellers at a railway station, the scrimmage only ceasing when the trumpeters, led by a man in a seedy top hat with an umbrella under his left arm, sound the summons to return to the holy place. But whether fashion or faith brings them to Bayreuth, all alike know beforehand exactly what will be their thoughts, their impressions, their emotions, and can tell you exactly what to admire, what to praise, what to feel; just as the American girls I saw the other day in the Munich Pinakothek were prepared by Baedeker to be "maddened" by the Murillos, though they had not a glance to spare for the Velasquez portraits in the same room.

Truly, this is an age of blither, and I am not sure that, of all, the most offensive is not the Wagner blither. That the Bayreuth performances have many good qualities, it would be senseless to deny; that Wagner cannot be as adequately rendered elsewhere, it would be equally foolish to pretend. That some of his best interpreters are to be heard at Bayreuth is true; but that their singing there without wage adds to their merit, when nowhere could they find a better advertisement or be more royally fêted, is but the sentimental fancy of a fashionably sentimental public. Of all the Bayreuth fallacies, however, none is greater than the belief that at the Wagner Theatre the problem of artistic stage management has been most successfully solved. N. N.

ANCIENT ALPINE GLACIERS.

LYONS, France, August 5, 1891.

EXTENSIVE as were the ice-fields of Europe during the glacial period, there was a wide belt untouched by glaciers between the Alps and the German Ocean. The Scandinavian glaciers barely reached the delta of the Rhine at Arnhem, in Holland, where there is a well-marked terminal moraine, behind which, to the Zuyder Zee, there is an uneven sandy accumulation much like many portions of southeastern Massachusetts, and betraying its northern and glacial origin by the frequent Scandinavian boulders which it bears.

Ascending the Rhine, I was shown by Prof. Schumacher of Carlsruhe finely glaciated boulders from the Black Forest some distance to the east of Freiburg, proving beyond dispute that during the glacial period these low mountains were a separate centre of glacial dispersion, though the glaciers did not extend more than half way down to the Rhine valley.

The ancient Alpine glaciers reached the Rhine at Schaffhausen, and evidently obstructed its drainage for some distance below, towards Basle, causing Lake Constance to rise much above its present level and to extend to the southern foot-hills of the Black Forest. The indications of this are readily seen, even from the railroad train, some time before reaching Schaffhausen, in coming down from the pass which leads to the head-waters of the Danube.

The whole valley of Switzerland between the Alps and the Jura Mountains is covered with irregular glacial deposits, which betray their Alpine origin both by their relation to the various valleys leading to the living glaciers of the high Alps, and by the characteristic boulders derived from the centres to which the valleys lead. On the upper part of Lake Constance, for example, the boulders are derived from the mountains about the head-waters of the Rhine and its tributaries, and it was long ago observed that they always keep upon the same side of the valley from which they were derived, as would be the case with such objects transported upon glaciers rather than on floating ice. The same thing has been noted also in the distribution of boulders brought down from the high Alps through the valley of the Rhone.

Upon the south side of the Alps the glaciated area is not as extensive as upon the northern side, but the moraines are in most cases more distinct and interesting. To the north the ice movement was obstructed and diverted by the Jura Mountains, which interferes somewhat with the simplicity of the problem of tracing out the distribution of morainic material. But in Italy there was nothing to interfere with the motion, and the mighty glacial currents filled all the narrow valleys leading into Piedmont and Lombardy, and deployed out upon the plains as far as their momentum would carry them. All the Italian lakes were channels of glacial movement, and all owe their origin to dams produced by the terminal moraines which were piled up in front of them.

The largest of the morainic accumulations in Italy is near Ivrea, at the mouth of the Dora Baltea, the valley which carried off the surplus ice from the southern flanks both of Mount Blanc and of Monte Rosa. The terminal moraine across this valley is really gigantic in its proportions. But travellers are most likely to see and be interested in the remarkable series of moraines which surround the southern end of Lake Garda in the vicinity of Verona. This series consists of three or four semicircular lines of drift hills, beginning near the end of the lake and extending with ever-widening enclosures until the radius of the largest is seven or eight miles in length. The railroad from Brescia to Verona intersects the outer moraine, on the west, at Lonato, and on the east at Somma Campagna.

From a military point of view, the southern end of this lake has been of great strategic importance, and Peschiera is now a strongly fortified town. But, long before the dawn of history, a natural line of defence had been thrown up by the ice of the glacial period in the semicircular moraines which I have just mentioned. In the campaign of 1859, when Louis Napoleon and Victor Emmanuel joined hands to expel the Austrians from Italy, it may truly be said that the ancient glaciers fought, but fought in vain, for the Austrians. The Austrian Army under Gen. Benedek were in possession of these natural fortifications referred to, and made good use of them. The centre of Benedek's army was at Solferino, at the southern border of the outer moraine. To the right, his troops stretched around to the end of the lake, sheltered behind the low earthworks which the ancient glaciers had so conveniently provided. To the left, the line had similar protection. The French and Italians were compelled to conduct their movements on exterior lines on the open, level plain. The Austrian General failed, however, to mass his troops sufficiently at the centre, and the day at Solferino was fatal to his cause. But it meant United Italy, and very properly the low summit of one of the moraine hills near the place occupied by the Austrian headquarters is now crowned with a noble monument to celebrate the victory and the great aspirations to which it gave free scope.

Westward from the Alps the ancient glaciers extended into the valley of the Rhone as far as Lyons, leaving a characteristic boulder seven or eight feet in diameter upon the hill upon which the upper part of the city is built. I was glad to see that it had been properly ap-

preciated by the city authorities and duly labelled by them. The accumulations of gravel in the vicinity of Lyons, corresponding to the terraces so characteristic of the streams similarly situated in America, also speak with unmistakable significance of the former reign of ice. In studying these grounds, I think I have made a discovery of much importance with reference to the origin of Lake Geneva.

As is well known, there has been a long controversy among geologists over the formation of the Swiss lakes, as over that of the fjords of Norway. One class maintains that they are mainly the product of ice erosion; the other, that they are due to water erosion. The discovery respecting Lake Geneva is that probably it is largely the result of a glacial dam like the lakes of Italy. Even the transient tourist can hardly fail to have his attention attracted by the extensive gravel plains a hundred feet or more above the water level surrounding the west end of the lake, and extending several miles to the Jura Mountains on the west, and indefinitely southwest. At Fort l'Ecluse, the Rhone is seen to cut through the limestone cliffs of the Jura in a narrow gorge unlike that occupied by streams which have had an indefinite period of existence. All this points to what we are so familiar with in America, namely, a buried channel somewhere, which has, in geologically recent times, forced the current into its present course. On reaching Seyssel, the problem seems to be solved. A straight line through a wide opening of the mountain leads from here to Geneva, and is occupied by glacial deposits. Here there is ample room for a buried channel, which, in preglacial times, might have lowered the level of the lake several hundred feet. I am confident that further investigations will confirm this hypothesis. While this may not wholly remove the ground of contention between the extreme advocates of glacial erosion and water erosion, it certainly reduces the terms of the problem to quite moderate dimensions, and leaves only a small portion of the lower depths of the lake to be accounted for.

These studies also strongly confirm the conclusions derived from the glacial phenomena of America—namely, that the recession of the glaciers of the great Ice Age was both paroxysmal and rapid. There were certain long periods of rest in the retreat, when vast lines of terminal moraines were piled up at the ice front. Then there were periods of rapid retreat, when the front did not remain stationary long enough for the formation of moraines. Certainly, during recent decades, there has been a marked recession in many of the Alpine glaciers. The Mer-de-Glace at Chamouni has withdrawn a third of a mile or more from its large terminal moraine, and its whole volume has shrunk to such an extent as to leave its old lateral moraines far up on the sides of the valley. The same condition of things is noticeable in the Bossons, and in the Fiesch glacier, as well as in the Talèfre, one of the upper tributaries of the Mer-de-Glace. According to a rough estimate made on the spot, from 1,000 to 2,000 years must have been required for the accumulation of the moraines about the front of the Mer-de-Glace and its tributaries, implying as long a period of stable conditions. But the period of present recession is so short that trees have hardly begun to cover the old moraines left behind in the retreat. The moraine extending across the valley two miles below the Argentière glacier, and just above the end of the Mer-de-Glace, is, however, densely covered with large trees. The valley of the Arve from Chamouni to Geneva contains no notable terminal moraines, a fact which indicates that when the ice began to melt back from the main valley of Switzerland, it proceeded in a pretty rapid and regular manner until reaching nearly its present limits, where it has remained for a long period.

When looking at the ruins of the noble Roman aqueduct which brought water from the hills twenty miles away to the fortified position on the eminence just west of Lyons, I was deeply impressed with the shortness of the historical period as compared with that separating us from the main events of the great Ice Age. There were these crumbling arches of substantial masonry reaching back in time nearly 2,000 years. But when they were built, the topography of the country was substantially what it is now. The valleys crossed have not been materially enlarged, and plants and animals have not suffered material change since the patient Romans constructed these cumbrous water channels! How much farther, then, must we go backwards in time to find palæolithic man struggling on the banks of these streams, both with the floods from the melting ice fields of Switzerland and with the strange array of fierce animals which soon after became extinct in Europe! Even upon the summit of the St. Bernard Pass, recent excavations have brought to light the foundations of an ancient temple and votive offerings which date back to 800 years before Christ, showing that thus early these mountain passes were as free from snow and ice as now.

The attentive observer cannot fail to see that all Switzerland is living on soil prepared and distributed during the great Ice Age. This goes without saying in reference to the great terminal deposits of the main valley, and to close inspection is equally evident in the smaller valleys of the high Alps. Geologically speaking, the Alps are recent in their origin—the principal part of the elevation having taken place since the Tertiary Age. There can be little reasonable doubt that the chief agency in eroding the minor valleys was water, acting continuously during the long period of time required for the mountains to attain their present elevation. Still, it is very clear that, with such an amount of elevation, the gradient is so steep that continuous and unobstructed water-action would have washed down all the soil from the steep sides of the valleys, and left them bare and rugged in the extreme. The obstructive and modifying agency required was furnished by the glaciers of the great Ice Age. These gave considerable lateral enlargement to the valleys, leaving them in U-shaped form, and spread over them with a good deal of uniformity the pulverized material of the ground moraine, while at frequent intervals in the retreat there was sufficient force to occasion an incipient terminal moraine, still further to obstruct the wash of the soil from the steep mountainsides. The V-shaped channels which the present streams are wearing in the bottom of the broader troughs modified by glacial action, furnish an important clue to an estimate of the period which has elapsed since the reign of ice in the region.

If only a small part of time and attention now in great part so aimlessly wasted by American tourists in Switzerland, could be wisely directed to a comparative study of the glacial phenomena of the two countries, important results might confidently be expected, while the pleasure of the tour would be greatly enhanced. The noble scenery of the Alps must lose half its value when the tourist fails with the mind's eye to see through existing forces the infinitely more majestic occurrences of the most recent of the geological ages.

G. Frederick Wright.

Correspondence.

THE ENFORCEMENT OF RESPONSIBILITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your last number contains another object lesson. It points to some suspicious circumstances in the relation of the Comptroller of the Currency to the Keystone National Bank, as shown in the report of Bank-Examiner Drew. It says that the Comptroller was invited to appear before the Committee of Investigation, but that the President and Cabinet decided that he should confine himself to a statement in writing, which, of course, contained only what he and they chose to admit; and it forcibly adds that this was far less satisfactory than an oral examination and cross-examination of the Comptroller would have been. There is, however, more than this to be said. Even if the Comptroller had appeared and been cross-examined in the most public manner, it would have been at the most only a "side show." Not one in ten thousand of the voters of the country would read the proceedings, or barely know of their existence, and the few who did read an account in the papers would conclude that it was entirely colored by the party passion of the particular journal; and, moreover, the distance between this and any action upon the subject by Congress would be so immeasurable that it would pass away like so many other current events, leaving "not a rack behind."

Now let us suppose a different treatment of the case. Of course, the direct responsibility for this, as for similar matters of administration, lies with the Secretary of the Treasury, and through him with the President. A rumor spreads through the country that the Opposition intend to make this a topic of attack on the Government at the next session of Congress. The members of that Opposition select their strongest man for a leader, and their other speakers in subordination, with as much care as for carrying a fortress by storm. The Government, well knowing what was impending, would prepare their case with equal care. Of course, the Secretary of the Treasury with his colleagues on the floor of the House would bear the brunt of the attack, but would gladly welcome the most available assistance on their side of the House. As soon as the session began, after the rush of business had been distributed to the committees, and Congress was in its usual position of having nothing to do, the leader of the Opposition would bring forward a resolution, and call upon the Government to name a day for its discussion. A thrill of excitement would run through the country, and when that day came, the telegraph would hold millions of auditors in breathless suspense. As the fierce conflict progressed, shouts of enthusiasm would hail every successful blow, and equally merciless would be the cry that awaited defeat. Nothing but unsullied purity of intention could serve a Government in a struggle like that. Any exposure of corruption would bring the *pollice verso* as surely as cowardice or weakness in the Roman amphitheatre. If ever we hope to uncover the dark places in our Government administration; if ever we expect to enforce that purity and singleness of purpose which alone can ensure the permanent

stability of our institutions, it must be done, not through the criticism, however scathing, of newspapers, either party or independent, but by the joining of blade to blade in single combat, with no quarter asked or given, upon a public arena, and in the face of the nation as spectators. Then we should begin to realize that of which we have now no conception, the force and power of public opinion. G. B.

LAKE PLACID, ESSEX CO., N. Y., August 20, 1891.

BOND OF UNION IN THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When an adult is baptized in the Episcopal Church, he declares that he "believes all the Articles of the Christian Faith as contained in the Apostles' Creed"; when a man is admitted to the Priesthood he promises to "give faithful diligence always so to minister the Doctrine and Sacraments and the Discipline of Christ as the Lord hath commanded, and as this Church hath received the same according to the commandments of God"; he further promises to "be ready, with all faithful diligence, to banish and drive away from the Church all erroneous and strange doctrines contrary to God's Word." In the Litany we pray to be delivered "from all false doctrine and heresy"; in the Prayer for all Conditions of Men we ask that men "may hold the faith in unity of spirit and the bond of peace," but we ask that they may "hold" it (the faith), and that "they may be led into the way of truth."

Now do these words and others like them really mean that the Episcopal Church cares little *what* we hold as the faith, and cares only about *how* we hold *something*? That is about the substance of Mr. Palmer's letter, I take it, when one really gets at the bottom of the meaning of its principal paragraph.

The facts mentioned in the Apostles' and Nicene Creed may be true or false—it is our business to face boldly all that can be said against them; but is it *honest* for me or any other clergyman, whatever my ethical aims and loving charity may be, to mean by an article of the Creed what no one in the past ever meant, to use words with a sort of esoteric explanation that the ordinary, intelligent, plain man would call a twisting or an inversion of their meaning?

"Let us face facts and dare to meet results wherever they lead us, but let us be honest in our obligations to the churches to which we belong." This I understand to be your position, and with it both Mr. Palmer and myself would assert our cordial agreement; but his language about "commercial contract," "common apprehensions," "community of aim," etc., seems to me to wrap up any practical application of honesty to the Episcopal Church in a mist of words and a swirl of vague generalities which make any amount of dishonesty the easiest thing in the world.

EDWARD M. PARKER.

CONCORD, N. H., August 15, 1891.

THE JEWISH QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Unless your readers can find anything in my first reply to "L. N. D." indicative of sympathy with the practice of flogging women to death, or with any act of cruelty on the part of the Russian Government, their justice will class that charge with the imputations of receiving Russian rubles and of being animated by habitual contempt for the weak and oppressed, which were before cast upon me, and both of which seem now to be abandoned.

Whatever I have said in the way of justification or excuse was said on behalf of the Russian people, not on behalf of the Russian Government, with regard to the acts of which I believe we are still imperfectly informed. Mr. Arnold White, Baron Hirsch's delegate to Russia, seems, as I said before, to have been allowed every facility for inquiry. He reports to the London *Times* that "many of the stories of acts of tyranny have been distorted versions of what really occurred, and that what is represented as having taken place all over the country is often to be taken as meaning that one man, the late Prince Dolgorukoff, ordered certain acts of severity while he was in the command of the police at Moscow."

That there are three Jews who have not practised extortion on the Russian peasantry does not prove that there are not many who have. The revolt of the peasantry, however culpable in its excesses, will, if it is entirely groundless and inexcusable, be, I believe, about the first peasant revolt in history that has not had a substantial cause.

I must beg leave to decline further discussion with an opponent whose favorite argument seems to be the imputation of base motives, and who, when an aspersion which he has cast upon the character of his antagonist is shown to be inconsistent with facts, finds a refuge from apology in insult.

I propose to say no more upon this thorny though momentous question till I can treat it more fully and in a more historical form, doing the justice which I think needs to be done to our Christian ancestors, who, whatever their delusions and aberrations may have been, were the fathers and founders of our civilization.—Yours faithfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, August 22, 1891.

LIGHTNING-ARRESTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter of W. J. Roberts, in your Vol. 53, No. 1363, page 122, issue of 13th inst., imputes unwarranted mismanagement on the part of the electric street-railway officials in Keokuk, Iowa. From its contents, too, one might infer that the Thomson-Houston Electric Company made the only lightning-arrester on the market capable of protecting car-motor armatures or those of the dynamos at the station. Their arrester is an excellent one, but that there are others equally good I can testify from personal experience, having been on electric cars over and over again when they were struck, without any damage being done to apparatus or cars. These arresters can be purchased by the Iowa Company at any time.

It may be well to state that I have no connection, direct or otherwise, with any manufactures of electrical apparatus.

Yours truly, F. O.

August 19, 1891.

Notes.

LONGMANS, GREEN & Co. have nearly ready 'A School Atlas of English History,' edited by Mr. S. R. Gardiner as a companion to his 'Student's History of England.' It is more extensive in its scope than the British Isles, and in addition to the maps are plans of important battles and sieges. The same firm announces an English translation of the Memoirs of Baron de Marbot, of which our French correspondent has been giving an account. Their edition, which is to appear in the autumn, will be in two volumes, and will include the two volumes already issued in French, together with a third not yet published.

Mr. William Andrews of No. 1 Dock Street, Hull, England, author of 'Bygone Lincolnshire' and other antiquarian works, will issue to subscribers an illustrated 'Bygone Northamptonshire.'

T. Fisher Unwin's list of fall publications includes 'The Real Japan: Studies of Contemporary Japanese Manners, Morals, Administrations, and Politics,' by Henry Norman, with photographic illustrations; 'The Land of the Incas,' travels in Peru, by Blanche Clark, with illustrations; 'The Autobiography of an English Gamekeeper (John Wilkins of Stanstead, Essex),' edited by Arthur H. Byng and Stephen M. Stephens; 'Names, and Their Meaning,' by Leopold Wagner; 'Stammering: Its Nature and Treatment,' by Emil Behnke; 'Concerning Cats,' a book of verses, by many authors, edited by Graham R. Tomson; 'Hard Life in the Colonies,' edited by C. Carlyon Jenkins, and 'Kolokotrones: Klepht and Warrior,' from the Greek, by Mrs. Edmunds.

The Dunlap Society has tardily sent forth to its subscribers as its first volume for this year, and as the thirteenth of its series, a collection of addresses, chiefly on theatrical subjects, by Mr. William Winter. 'The Actor, and Other Speeches' contains a portrait of the author. Among the addresses, in the preparation of which Mr. Winter is seen at his best, are eulogies of Mr. Edwin Booth and of the late Lester Wallack and the late Henry Edwards. The most important oration is the first, on "The Actor and his Duty to his Time," delivered two years ago before the Actors' Fund Society at its annual meeting in New York.

'Lapsus Calami,' by "J. K. S.," is the title of a clever volume of English university verse, which has just reached a second edition (Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes). Its author is a son of Sir James Stephen. He is an inordinate admirer of the author of 'Fly-Leaves,' and the first poem in the book is "To C. S. C." Among the skits here collected, those of most general interest are "The Ballade of the Incompetent Ballade-Monger" (with the refrain "But I hope I have kept to the rules"), a set of equally amusing "Triolets Ollendorffiens," and a pair of poems on England and America—great countries both, with most objectionable citizens now and then.

Among the latest volumes of the cheap and comely Camelot Series (London: Walter Scott), is 'The Plays of Richard Brinsley Sheridan,' edited, with an introduction, by Rudolph Dircks. The editor wisely omits "The Camp," which Sheridan did not write, although it has been strangely included in not a few editions of his works. He also leaves out "The Relapse," which Sheridan altered from Vanbrugh. His introduction is a biography of Sheridan, brief and brisk, and better in manner than the most of the lives of Sheridan, who has suffered severely at the hands of bookmakers like Dr. Watkins and Mr. Percy Fitzgerald.

The second volume of Thorpe's three-volume 'Dictionary of Applied Chemistry' (Longmans) appears within a year after the issue of the first. Its 714 pages cover the ground from Eau de Cologne to Nux Vomica in a manner which amply fulfils the promise of the first volume. It is a thoroughly creditable and useful work, characterized by great accuracy and every evidence of careful editing. Of the thirty-three names given in the list of contributors to this volume, eighteen appear for the first time in connection with the Dictionary. No American

chemists have as yet contributed to the work, although the announcement in the original preface led one to expect articles from some of our eminent specialists. Indeed, the work is thus far almost entirely the product of English hands, only two of the forty-nine contributors to the first two volumes being foreigners—Profs. Lunge of Zürich and Witt of Berlin. Some of the more important articles, with the names of the authors and the number of pages occupied by each, are: Explosives (34), by W. H. Deering; Fermentation (31), by P. F. Frankland; Coal Gas (35), by Lewis Wright; Glass (20), by W. Ramsay; Iron (14), by Thomas Turner; Lead (44), by P. P. Bedson; Matches (34), by E. G. Clayton; and Naphthalene (65), by W. P. Wynne.

A book which merits the attention of all who are interested in practical work in the chemical laboratory is the 'Anleitung zur Darstellung Chemischer Präparate,' by Dr. Hugo Erdmann. The author aims to do for inorganic chemistry what Levy, Fischer, and Cohen have already done for organic chemistry by their little volumes on chemical preparations. It contains directions for making more than eighty preparations, chiefly inorganic, including compounds of all the more common elements. A brief statement of the reactions involved, and directions for testing the products, follow in each instance the description of the process of making. The choice of preparations is varied and good. Inexpensive substances and laboratory residues and by-products are employed as far as possible; and the resulting preparations are mostly such as are constantly needed in laboratory work. All the methods which are given have been carefully proved in the university laboratory at Halle, where Dr. Erdmann has been for several years the assistant of Prof. Volhard.

The State University of Iowa has issued its 'Historical Monograph, No. 1,' being an account of the "Amana Society." This industrial and communistic organization had its rise in Germany, and its derivation and differentiation from mysticism and pietism are traced at much length in the pamphlet. Then follows the story of the migration to this country, the first settlement at "Ebenezer," near Buffalo, and the subsequent acquisition of the present site of the Society in Iowa. The constitution of the organization is printed in full, and the social and religious beliefs and practices of its simple-minded and worthy members are described sympathetically. No previous writing about these people has been so authoritative as this one, which is the work of Prof. Rufus Perkins and Mr. B. L. Wick, both of the State University.

The importance of the Platæan finds of the American School at Athens in 1889 and 1890 is receiving gratifying recognition. The Latin preamble of the Edict of Diocletian regulating prices throughout the Roman Empire, which was lately published by Professors Tarbell and Rolfe, has just been issued in a beautiful photographic facsimile by the London Palæographical Society (Facsimiles, Second Series, Nos. 127, 128). Prof. Mommsen has prepared an edition of the Greek fragment of the Edict, with English notes; it is now in press, and, with Dr. Lolling's careful facsimile, will appear in the next number of the *American Journal of Archæology*.

The Dante Society has lost its President in the late Mr. Lowell, but his name still leads the list of officers and of the Council in the tenth annual report just distributed. In this document we read of the awarding last year of a prize to Mr. Charles Sterrett Latham for a translation of the Letters of Dante, with an historical and critical comment, executed in a condition of paralysis which ended the life of this promising young scholar before the award could be made known to him. The translation will be printed. Three new topics are offered for the Dante prize of 1891-92. Appendixes to the report contain a list of additions to the Dante collection in the Harvard College Library, and a valuable reprint of Latin texts of documents concerning Dante's debts and his public life. The Harvard collection now exceeds 1,200 volumes, and, under certain restrictions, may be used by members of the Society remote from Cambridge, as well as by the public on the spot. It deserves, therefore, to be increased by gifts from every quarter of the country. The Secretary and Treasurer is Mr. George Rice Carpenter of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston.

Collectors of book-plates will be glad to learn that the English Ex-Libris Society has begun the publication of a monthly magazine of twenty broad pages devoted wholly to essays, correspondence, and notes concerning book-plates. The first number of the *Ex-Libris Journal* (London: A. & C. Black) bears date July, 1891, and contains a list of members of the Society. Apparently this periodical is intended to supplant the *Book-Plate Collector's Miscellany*. Announcement is made that future numbers will contain a bibliography of book-plates by Mr. J. R. Brown and Mr. H. W. Fincham.

The August number of the *Author*, the organ of the Incorporated Society of Authors, edited by Mr. Walter Besant, the founder and mainspring of the Society, contains a full report of the speeches made at the dinner given by the Society in London on July 16 to celebrate the accomplishment of international copyright between Great Britain and the United States. In the same number is also an announcement that an Authors' Club is about to be established in London, somewhat on the model of the club of the same name in New York, but on a far more ambitious scale.

The second paper of the series on "Britannic Confederation," which the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* is publishing, is by Prof. E. A. Freeman, who had given him for his subject "The Physical and Political Basis of National Unity." After a frank avowal that he is altogether opposed to Confederation, he dwells at some length on the meaning of the word Nation, defining the ideal nation as one "where a continuous territory is inhabited by a people united under one government, and all of them speaking the same language—a language which is not spoken by any other people." This ideal, however, is not attained by any people; Italy, perhaps, coming nearest to it. He then discusses the various schemes of federation, and, while acknowledging the theoretical possibility of all which exclude India, he shows that each of them has defects which would make them practically unworkable. If any scheme, however, should be set in action, he confidently asserts that sooner or later disunion would result. He closes, characteristically, with these words: "If it is proposed that the great and historic assembly which King Edward called into being in 1295 shall keep its six hundredth anniversary by sinking to the level of the Legislature of a Canton of a Britannic Confederation, then I shall be driven, however much against the grain, to turn Jingo and sing 'Rule Britannia.'"

Dr. Max Nordau, in the *Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review*, treats the partition of Africa by the European Powers within the past fifteen years as a veritable "Rabies Africana," an unaccountable epidemic. He is not wrong in saying that recently acquired African possessions have no money value as such to the respective governments, and that all commercial advantages could have been gained as readily without annexation as with. Nor can his assertion be denied that the general result of European intercourse with the negroes has been deleterious to them. But he injures the tone of his article, which contains nothing novel but its title, by dividing those who are interested in the development of Africa into two classes, hypocrites and cynics. He also takes no notice of the fact that Central Africa is fast being depopulated, and that the intervention of Europeans is the only possible check to the slave-hunters' raids.

To the August number of the *New Review*, Mr. Paul Bourget contributes an interesting paper on the element of love in fiction. In the same number Capt. Eyre M. Shaw, the head of the London Fire Brigade, has an article on theatrical fires, wherein he gives a list of those which occurred in 1890, somewhat shattering our belief in his accuracy by recording two slight fires in Paris at the Théâtre-Français and a third at the Comédie-Française! Capt. Shaw seems to be ill-informed as to American legislation for the prevention of fires in theatres, since he speaks of the Spanish law of 1888 as the first step towards a proper building law for theatres, ignoring the admirable (although doubtless not perfect) law of this State, under which five or six safe places of amusement have been erected in New York city. It is not the first time that the head of the London Fire Brigade has closed his eyes to what is going on in New York, although he has slowly adopted more than one of the devices which have approved themselves on this side of the ocean.

In his Providence *Book Notes* of August 15, Mr. S. S. Rider adds a few more sprigs of laurel to the wreath on Roger Williams's brow. He shows how Massachusetts owed to the diplomacy of her exiled son her escape from an overwhelming combination of hostile tribes, at the time of the Pequot war. This is not denied by many historians of Massachusetts, who still do not bring it out in its "real light," Mr. Rider thinks, while its deliberate suppression by Hubbard and Hutchinson "makes a lie of history." It was Williams, too, who devised and communicated to Gov. Winthrop the plan of attack on the Pequots which was adopted with such success, and of which "the credit has been given wholly to others." Another point concerning which "all writers are silent" is Williams's prevention of an Indian alliance against the colonies for forty years after the Pequot war; when the alliance was at last brought about under King Philip, the English were strong enough to sustain a shock that might have been fatal at an earlier date.

—The Salem (Mass.) Press Publishing and Printing Co. has just issued a second series of notes and additions by Mr. John J. Babson to his valuable 'History of Gloucester'—186 pages, including the index. A third of the contents consists of extracts from the diary of the Rev. Samuel Chandler, from 1751 to 1764, which supplies no little entertainment, along with much genealogical information. This clergyman was "pretty much not well" (as he phrased it) a good deal of the time, particularly in the year first named, when for his fever and ague he was, on September 11, "taking cortex peruvianus" in red wine every three hours. On the 27th he was so far convalescent that he "supd at Lieut. Collin's on Stewed Goose and Roast Duck"; on the 29th he "preached, had gt freedom and enlargement

of heart"; but on the 5th of October he had another ague fit, "fainted & fell down." In September, 1759, he left his sick-bed to pray with the family of a dying parishioner, and fainted away in the act. His call to the parish was decided in this way: "they voted by walking; those that were for me were desired to walk east, wh were 59 or 60; those opposed to walk west, which were 2; and 7 or 8 sat still." Mr. Chandler notes the preaching at Gloucester of "Mr. Whitfield" on October 29, 1754, and his is the only record of this incident. An entry of April 23, 1755, shows the diarist's miscellaneous engagements: "Dined at Dr. Rea's; an entertainment at the weaning of a child; wrote a letter to a deist; planted cucumbers." And there is a glimpse of Satan at work in this entry: "April 30 [1756]. I visited Mrs. Collins, tempted; and Mrs. Paterson, bereaved of her mother, Mrs. Cradock, who has for some months been in distress of mind, and despairing, tempted, and assaulted; and last Saturday, about one o'clock, she hanged herself with a single strand of fishing-line." Earthquakes are frequently noted, and by May 8, 1756, the news of the Lisbon catastrophe of November 1, 1755, had reached Massachusetts, so that a thanksgiving was observed, all the more because "New England was spared in a very great shock which shook off Chimney Tops and wares from shelves."

—Mr. A. L. Mayhew's 'Synopsis of Old English Phonology,' just published in the Clarendon Press Series (Macmillan), is a book that represents a great deal of patient and well-directed labor. The author, whose previous work had well prepared him for such an undertaking, has given us, in less than 200 pages, a comprehensive summary of the established facts concerning the relation of West-Saxon sounds to those of cognate languages and of the original "Indogermanic." Unlike Sweet's 'History of English Sounds,' the 'Synopsis' contains no discussion either of general phonetics or of phonetic change, and no attempt to fill in the gap between Old and Modern English. Furthermore, Mr. Mayhew offers us no new facts or theories; his aim has been merely to collect the results of the best German and English scholarship in the field that he has chosen. Almost every statement is accompanied by a reference to a special authority. Among the many names cited, those of most frequent occurrence are Sievers, Sweet, Kluge, and Brugmann. Two long tables, somewhat similar to those in Sweet's 'History,' enable the reader to find the modern equivalents of old English words and sounds, and *vice versa*. There is, moreover, at the back of the book an "Index of Words," comprising sixty-seven pages. The whole volume is clearly and beautifully printed.

—The lecture on 'Aristotle on the Art of Poetry' read last winter before the Alexandrian and Philosophical Clubs of the University of Glasgow by A. O. Prickard of Oxford, and lately printed (Macmillan), commends itself to all lovers of what is best in literature as well as to students of Aristotle's writings. It well fulfils its purpose of giving a plain account of Aristotle's chief judgments on the poetical literature known to him, and of indicating among these such as are of lasting value and application. Difficult places are clearly explained, and many of Aristotle's dicta are defended, always with acumen and appreciation. Especially deserving of mention are Mr. Prickard's treatment of the famous definition of Tragedy, and his analysis of the principle of Katharsis there included, wherein the lines laid down by Bernays are followed. The wealth of apt citations in prose and verse, drawn from recent writers of the utmost variety, not only lends brilliancy to the lecturer's discourse, but serves well to impress upon one how modern, because perennially true, is much of the great master's thought. In these days of the popularity of cheap interpretations and misinterpretations of ancient life and literature, it is a refreshment to come across a scholar who gives the evidence we find in Mr. Prickard of that happy union of careful learning, delicate taste, sympathetic insight, and grasp of principles which is absolutely essential for the performance of the task of seeing and showing things exactly as they are—at once the most difficult and the most imperative of the duties of the scholar.

—Canon Cheyne, in 'The Origin and Religious Contents of the Psalter' (Bampton Lectures for 1889; New York: Thomas Whittaker), brings the Psalms under the light of historical, and only secondarily under that of linguistic criticism, and accordingly finds them to be largely exilic and post-exilic. Archaic forms (in language) could not fail to be reproduced by later poets, who constantly recited the ancient documents, and this accounts for much of the Davidic style, while Aramaic forms which appear throughout could not well have appeared in pre-exile literature, and the historical characteristics point to the exile and post-exile period, most largely to the Maccabæan. This last great epoch must surely have produced some psalms, and many of them have survived to us in the Psalter. The most striking characteristic (because the newest) in these lectures places Canon Cheyne in advance of contemporaneous English exegetics. No one in England has anticipated him in the closer application of Zoroastrianism to the subject. Astonishing as it may seem, while scholars in England have talked for a decade about the importance of Assyriology to Biblical criticism, no one seems to have become aware of the necessity of the Zend Avesta to it. Canon Cheyne justly says that no one should be regarded for the future as a competent critic in the Old and New Testaments who does not study that one religion which, whether as teacher or taught, stands more closely related to the Holy Scriptures than any other. With book after book of the Bible dating from Persian reigns, with a Persian restorer, Cyrus, "the Lord's anointed," with Persian names, and with the literal mention (in the Apocrypha) of an Avesta demon, Asmodeus (Aêshma-daeva), with the Magi and Simon Magus, with the seven spirits (the seven Amshaspands), etc., it is no wonder if Zoroastrianism stalks through the Bible. The doctrine of God and Satan, of the creation of clean and unclean (the uncleanness here gets its first explanation: "The unclean animals were such because the Evil Spirit made them"), of angels, of immortality, of resurrection, notably of judgment, of rewards in heaven or on a restored earth, and punishments in hell, with other features too startling to be mentioned here, identify the Persian theology in many essential features with the Jewish, whether as original or derivative, and Canon Cheyne holds that the Persian was largely the original used by the Divine Spirit as the human instrumentality in imparting the ideas. Canon Cheyne disclaims special Zend studies, but he practises his usual thoroughness in the use of materials, having examined the views of all parties and schools, and relying, as is natural, with confidence on the Oxford Avesta (in the "Sacred Books of the East"), by Prof. Darmesteter and Dr. Mills.

—If ordinarily we do not look to the sodality of the Society of Jesus for anything revolutionary in religion, *à fortiori* we do not in science. In point of fact, scientific progress of the modern type is usually remarked in almost every other quarter. But the unsafe nature of such generalizations is apparent from the fact that recent days have brought to light a discovery, or invention rather, which two reverend fathers of this Society residing in Georgetown have been the first to develop in successful form, and which bids fair to revolutionize that important art of the astronomer known as "taking transits." The tediousness and in some sense unsatisfactory character of this operation are now greatly mitigated by means of a little telescopic accessory which they call the "photochronograph"—a rather unfortunate designation, as this word was originally coined years ago, and is already applied to another and entirely different apparatus. This need not hinder the effectiveness of the instrument, however, as it will doubtless do its work faithfully until a new name can be found for it. In short, it seems to be capable of freeing a large class of astronomical and physical research from the uncertain influence of "personal equation"—that dread and often indeterminable element which always lurks in observational work—where high precision is aimed at. Some novel adjunct of the standard equipment of laboratory and observatory whereby transits could be recorded with a simple, photographic automaton has long been sought by English and German scientists; but American astronomers, who nearly a half-century ago invented and first applied the chronograph to this sort of work, greatly increasing the ease and rapidity of doing it, are again to the front with the first published results of star-transits taken by photography. It should be said that the original experiments in this direction were conducted at the Harvard College Observatory by Prof. Pickering.

—A correspondent writes to us from Munich:

"Press paragraphs cleverly managed by a certain group of Americans in Paris, and the widely notorious refusal, based on political grounds, of French artists to exhibit, have made the International Art Exhibition in Berlin seem the most prominent held out of France this year. But really of more artistic interest is the Jahres Ausstellung in Munich, to which all the best men from all countries, except America, have sent their most important work. However, it is just now chiefly notable for the fact that the French, despite their patriotic scruples, have contributed to it. It is not easy to explain how this has been managed. Whether the public stand they took when invited to contribute to the Berlin exhibition satisfied their consciences, or whether individual Frenchmen are not responsible for the present show in Munich, and this is due to enterprising art-dealers or Government authorities, is an open question. The French artist cannot, after all, be blamed for his seeming childishness in this matter. It is difficult in England or America to realize how dependent he is upon the State for recognition and advancement. To take one conspicuous instance: Puvis de Chavannes has received all his most important commissions from, and executed his finest designs for, State and municipal authorities. How could he, then, afford to fly in the face of public opinion, whatever might be his own feelings and sympathies? But, as if to make up for their absence from Berlin, the French are delightfully represented at Munich, even Corots, Daubignys, Troyons, and Millets being included in the collection, as well as several fine Manets and less noteworthy Claude Monets which one has not the chance to see every day. The rest of their exhibit is made up of the principal pictures seen in the later Salons. Puvis de Chavannes, Gérôme, Besnard, Bonnat, Billotte, Montenard, Carolus Duran—in a word, all the leading French painters, contribute. The other striking features of the exhibition are the good showing made by the Eng-

lish, thanks really to the younger Scotchmen, who are so little appreciated at home and who so seldom receive a fair chance in the London galleries; and the new proof given of the artistic strength of the Scandinavians, who, owing greatly to the marvellous display of Kroyer and Thaulow, seem even more vigorous here than in Berlin. It would be a great pity were not every effort used to induce the Danes to exhibit in the coming World's Fair in Chicago. With the exception of the French, their work has more character than that of the artists of any other nationality. The Americans practically are unrepresented. The Salon pictures of Dannat, MacEwen, and Charles Sprague Pearce are hung with the French. Whistler exhibits with the English. A cattle piece by Bisbing is in one German room; "In the Dunes," by Melchers, in a second. Others, notably Carl Marr, are scattered here and there, but they are absorbed in the groups with which they have chosen to classify themselves."

HELPS TO READERS AND STUDENTS.

The Best Books: A Reader's Guide to the Choice of the Best Available Books (about 50,000) in every Department of Science, Art, and Literature. By William Swan Sonnenschein. 2d edition. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891. 4to, pp. (18), vii-cx, 1009.

A Guide Book to Books. Edited by E. B. Sargant and Bernhard Whishaw. London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xvi, 344.

A Guide to the Choice of Books; for Students and General Readers. Edited by Arthur H. D. Acland, M.P. London: Edward Stanford. 1891. 8vo, pp. xviii, 128.

THE three volumes above mentioned have successively made their appearance, in the order named, since the beginning of the present year, the first in the list being, however, a second and enlarged edition of a work issued in 1887. The most modest of the three is Mr. Acland's, a thin octavo, easily held in one hand, descending to no gradations of type smaller than brevier, equipped not only with an alphabetical index at the end, but with a table of classification at the beginning, which is well discriminated and effectively displayed. His plan is one of extreme condensation, whether in citing publisher or author and title, but is consistently carried through the book, and with noticeably few misprints; while the taste and judgment shown, in what is mentioned and what omitted, make the volume a singularly successful one, in its aim as a "guide to the choice of books."

In their considerably larger volume, Messrs. Sargant and Whishaw offer us what is avowedly a coöperative work; and in their list of more than 175 coöperators there are not a few names which carry decided weight. Thus we have good reason for satisfaction in what is here offered us by such men as Sir George Grove and Mr. J. Norman Lockyer, in their respective departments, as well as by the competent hand from whom we have the excellent list under "France: Language and Literature." For some of the other departments not so much can be said—in fact, the book's unevenness is its most striking characteristic; nor, indeed, for the work of the editors themselves. Among the eccentricities of their procedure is the disregard of titles of nobility of all kinds. Thus, the late Earl of Iddesleigh is simply and only "Northcote, S.", and Sir Henry Thompson always "Thompson, H." While the entries are in most particulars unabridged, as regards full name and imprint, for some unassignable reason dates are not regarded as important. A reader looking for a work on bridges finds therefore Haupt, on 'Bridge Construction,' but without the slightest intimation that it is now about forty years out of date; and on a subject where timeliness is a ruling consideration, as Africa, one might pass entirely by White's 'The Development of Africa,' although it has been published within the present year. Indeed, from language used on p. 285, it would appear that a book published in 1850 is only "a trifle out of date."

Mr. Sonnenschein's volume, which also describes itself as a "guide," is not open to the exceptions just noted. Nor does he share the error of Messrs. Sargant and Whishaw in supposing the entry of one only out of several page-numbers to be sufficient as an index-reference; nor the kindred error of making an index-reference to consist of page-numbers and nothing more. In order to cite the titles within sufficiently short compass, abbreviations are very largely employed, but with real skill and entire adequacy; and, consequently, a reader looking for one only of the nearly fifty book-titles under Professor Freeman's name is not led on a wild-goose chase through every part of the volume. In short, Mr. Sonnenschein apparently regards the relation of a key to a lock as no more essential than that of a good index to a work of this kind. His "Author and Titles Index," occupying nearly eighty four-column quarto pages, in closely printed type, is followed by a "Subjects Index," covering twenty-three pages more. From the present edition, however, he has omitted the separately printed skeleton of classification, or "Synopsis of Contents," which occupied thirty-six pages in the edition of 1887. Pressing as must have been the need of economizing space, there is very much in the present book which the reader could have spared with much better grace than this "Synopsis."

For, to speak plainly, the fundamental defect of the present edition is its over-inclusiveness. Not only was the 1887 edition far wider in compass than the earlier compilations of Perkins, Jones, and others, as well as those of Acland and Sargant mentioned above, but the difference between the two editions themselves is scarcely less striking. Over against the less than 750 pages in 1887 are the more than 1,100 pages in 1891, of larger size and in smaller type. But, far more to be regretted, in place of aiming "to select as carefully as possible what is essential, and to omit all the remainder"—to quote from one of the writers above cited—we find a sifting process with meshes so coarse as to admit into this select company of "best books" such works as 'Every Man's Own Lawyer' and 'Man and His Maladies,' such astounding achievements in biography as those of Blanche Roosevelt and Miss McCray, and in science as a volume on 'Moses and Geology,' of which the editor frankly tells us: "Its science is almost peculiar to itself"; the 'Monday Lectures' of Joseph Cook, and Clews's 'Twenty-eight Years in Wall Street.' When, moreover, one reflects that, while the earlier edition found space to mention only about 25,000 volumes, the present one pours out a torrent of about 50,000, the reader can be pardoned for feeling surprise that there are so many "best books."

"The best books" must indeed be considered by far the least felicitous portion of the book's title, suggesting in somewhat painful contrast the 'Best Hundred Books' of Sir John Lubbock and his fellow-critics. But the book is also described on the title-page as "a contribution towards systematic bibliography"; and the scale on which the work is planned is such as would tend inevitably to supply welcome assistance, as well as information, to the reader or student who uses it. Yet it would almost seem as if, with the expansion of the book itself, had expanded its opportunities for conveying the most varied misinformation, typical instances of which we shall briefly notice. For one thing, we are far from sharing in Mr. Sonnenschein's somewhat too generous commendation of what he calls the "substantial accuracy" of his printers, for few books have ever been more studded with glaring misprints. Some of these, as "Cornstock" (Comstock), are grotesque; others, as "Salvigny" (Savigny), "Maddison" (Madison), "Lesquereuse" (Lesquereux), are annoying; others, again, as "MacLellan" (J. F. MacLennan), are distinctly misleading. Others indicate an almost ingenious perversity, in distorting, for instance, Mr. G. E. Woodberry's name into "Woodbury" in the 1887 edition, and into "Woodbery" in the 1891 edition; and in printing the Cornell philologist's name three times as B. T. Wheeler, twice as B. J. Wheeler, and only once in the correct form, B. I. Wheeler. And yet we do not feel warranted in putting the entire blame upon the printer, for there are certain specific forms of misprint which occur with such regularity as to command attention, namely, the repeated substitution of one initial for another. Thus, an American general's name appears as "J. B." McClellan instead of G. B. McClellan, in every instance, and in both editions of the work; and confusions of an analogous order occur in the case of C and G, J and I (no less than seven times), F and T, and others. The reader is puzzled also by certain extremely deceptive transpositions. Who, for instance, will readily recognize the name of Dr. Howe, the philanthropist, in the distorted form, "Howe, G. S."? The reader who should send for "J. Farley Lewis's" work on 'New Bulgaria,' on the strength of Mr. Sonnenschein's entry (p. 340), might repeat his order many times before learning that the true name is J. Lewis Farley. In the index, where, of all places, the proof-reading should be accurate, misprints have been allowed to create an uncomfortably large number of false references to page-numbers. In the use of accents, diacritical marks, etc., the book is sadly disfigured, not only with such instances of omissions as "Plante" and "Friedlander," but of superfluities, as "Seguïn" and "Schürman," (and, in the index, "Müllin" and "Tholück"), and of mistakes as "Gayarrè" (p. 450). To give the printer his due, it is entirely probable that he is responsible for such fastastic work with the name "Adam" as in presenting the name of the abbot of Evesham as "Adam Abbott of Evesham," (p. 410), that of Adm. Parry of the British Navy, as "Parry, Adam Sir W. E." (p. lx), and that of Henry Adams, as "Adam, H." (p. 406). To heighten the puzzle, there is a certain ingenious device of the editor, with a view to economizing space, whereby, in the index, all punctuation is invariably omitted between the author's entry and the book-title immediately following. Whether to be able to master such a perplexing sequence as, for instance, "Argyll, Duke of *Primev. Man*" (p. ix), is really worth the expenditure of nervous energy required, may be seriously questioned. Another of the editor's "economies" is the expression of joint authorship by a cumbrous use of mathematical symbols, sometimes in such a form as "Stewart + Tait, Prfs. B. + P. G." (p. 115); sometimes in even more involved form. As no space is saved in the "Stewart" instance, above, it is difficult to see what is gained, beyond the reader's bewilderment; but it is doubtless owing to this bad habit asserting itself in the wrong place that the name of the Innsbruck

political economist is printed as if it were that of two persons, "Böhm+Bauerk, Prf." (p. 239).

In the entry of proper names, abbreviations such as "Dr.," "Rev.," "Prf.," "Adm.," etc., are repeatedly employed to indicate the person's position in life; "Am.," "Austral.," etc., his nationality; "C. E.," "R. C.," "Unit.," etc., his religious belief; and surely for such help towards identification or discrimination one ought to be duly grateful, were it not that these also are made additional agencies of misinformation. Thus the erroneous label "Am." is affixed to such names as Dr. Charles Taylor of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Lawrence B. Phillips, compiler of the biographical dictionary; numerous misapplications of the ecclesiastical abbreviations occur, as in the cases of Dr. William Carey and Dr. William Jenks, where they are exactly exchanged; and that of "Rev." precedes the names of men never entitled to it and never claiming it, as in "Murray, Rev. T. C.," and "Thompson, Rev. R. W." If the nature of the work cited in the two instances just mentioned be considered, the bestowing of the epithet would seem to be a purely inferential "guess" based thereon. Precisely the same sort of unwarranted inference appears to have been exercised in Mr. Sonnenschein's author-entry of 'A College Fetich,' the writer of which, it is to be feared, will regard his labor as all in vain if he is to be known as "Adams, *Prf.* C. F." (p. 292). Only an exceptional ingenuity could make possible the entry of Mr. and Mrs. Thwing's joint work, 'The Family,' in which the Christian name of the latter, "Carrie," becomes a separate surname (p. 389). The sexes are still further confused in making (Miss) E. A. Youmans the author of a volume properly entered under (Mr.) E. L. Youmans as editor, namely, 'The Culture Demanded by Modern Life'; but still more in the entry, "Sweetser, *Mrs.* M. F.," as the author of the series of 'Artist Biographies.' Yet even this does not quite reach the absurdity of the entries in the index, under "Preston H. W.," making the feminine author of 'Troubadours and Trouvères' (*Miss* Harriet W. Preston) identical with Mr. Howard W. Preston.

A well-known penchant of our English cousins for taking "a part for the whole," in citing proper names, often leads them to extend this treatment to others than Englishmen —as when "Mr. Cabot Lodge" is cited in the *Saturday Review* of the current summer. So also, in the pages of Mr. Sonnenschein's volume, one finds "Hunt, Wm.," instead of the more extended name, in the case of a well-known American and artist. But, unfortunately for the reader, Mr. Sonnenschein has in many cases abandoned uniformity as well as fulness. Thus, on one page, "Siemens, Sir W.," and, on another, "Siemens, Sir C. Wm.," refer to the same person, as do also "Thompson, Prf. Silvanus," and "Thompson, Prf. Silv. P." To the reader, who has not always the means of discriminating between cases like the above and others where no identity exists — as "Mayor, Prf. J. B." (of King's College, London), and "Mayor, Prf. J. E. B." (of the University of Cambridge)—such a practice is necessarily confusing. So it appears to have proved in a strikingly large number of cases to Mr. Sonnenschein himself, thus corroborating in an unexpected manner the not wholly unreasonable preference of a cataloguer for fulness and uniformity. Thus, two of Mr. Charles Wyllys Elliott's works having been cited in the text—neither of them under the full name —the list of Elliotts in the index gives us one of these under "Elliott, C.," and the other under "Elliott, W.," both having been mechanically reproduced from the body of the book, which has no entry "Elliott, C. W." So mechanically, indeed, have the names been alphabeted in the index that a well-known American orator having appeared once in the text as "Webster, Dan.," and again as "Webster, D.," reappears in these two forms in the index as two persons. An American cataloguer might perhaps have stumbled naturally into entering "Ball, R. S.," and "Ball, Sir R. S.," as two distinct persons, through not having heard of the astronomer's knighthood; but that the distinguished achievements of Sir A. H. Layard should not have availed to prevent an English cataloguer from breaking him up into two, "Layard, A. H.," and "Layard, Sir Henry" (page xlviii), is indeed cause for wonder. After this instance of the prophet without honor in his own country, it is not so easy to feel surprise at finding the two Americans, John H. Allen and Joseph H. Allen, made one, under the heading "Allen, J. H.," nor even at finding three persons made one, under "Brown, Dr. John," though one of the three is James, and not "John"; nor at the editor's failing to distinguish between the two American writers, John Bartlett and John R. Bartlett, in attributing the dictionary of 'Familiar Quotations' to the latter. But the limit of incongruity is perhaps reached when the indexer places in the list of Phillips Brooks's writings a speech on the occasion of the Sumner assault, by Preston S. Brooks of South Carolina. Kinship is a fruitful source of danger, where a cataloguer is no more cautious than Mr. Sonnenschein, who not only enters O. W. B. Peabody's Life of Israel Putnam under W. B. O. Peabody (a brother), the writings of Samuel A. Drake under Samuel G. Drake (his father), but also volunteers the gratuitous misinformation that Mrs. Elizabeth C. Agassiz, instead of being the wife of Louis Agassiz, is "Mrs. A. Agassiz" (page 517), and that George Washington Greene is son (rather than grandson) of Gen. Greene (p. 461). In both text and index, the 'Essay on the History of English Church Architecture,' by George Gilbert Scott, the younger, published in 1881, is made his father's work, regardless of the fact that the latter died in 1878. The distinction of "Jr." and "Sen.," in fact, is one to which Mr. Sonnenschein appears to have surrendered at sight; and where he has to do with the "hereditary names," as they may perhaps be called, of Josiah Quincy, Charles Francis Adams, Richard Henry Dana, and Theophilus Parsons, he has achieved some glaring confusion of identity under each one, in the last-named instance making one man into three.

A very natural hesitation to point out omissions needing to be remedied is inevitable, in view of the over-inclusiveness which does so much to vitiate the book, yet the list of omitted titles which must occur to almost every reader is neither brief nor unessential. Nor are they confined to Continental publications, such as Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte,' nor to those of this country, as Hannis Taylor's 'English Constitution,' but comprise English publications in every department, from Poole's 'Ecclesiastical Architecture in England' to 'Mackay of Uganda.' When one remembers that it is chiefly an English-reading constituency to which the work addresses itself, it is surprising to find Legouvé's 'L'Art de Lecture' cited in the French original only, with no mention of either of the two English translations (1879). It is a real pleasure to be able to speak emphatically of the service rendered the reader by the numerous instances where analysis has laid open the contents of a composite book; but to do this twice for the same book—*e. g.*, Evelyn Abbott's 'Hellenica,' pages 394 and 872—is assuredly an error when the space is needed for so much else.

All the books under notice purport to be "guides to the choice of books." The purpose avowed by one of the editors in his preface—namely, to be serviceable "to the committees of the smaller free libraries, to the educational departments of workingmen's" (and other) societies, etc.—is doubtless shared also by Mr. Sonnenschein, who, in his preface, expresses the still more definite hope that his volume will be accepted by public libraries, in both England and America, as supplying "the best general catalogue." It has not been a pleasant task to point out—by typical instances only, for a simple enumeration of every specific instance would require many pages—the widely various ways in which this ambitious design falls short of even the more modest function of a trustworthy "guide." We find it easy to agree with Mr. Sonnenschein's declaration, in his preface, that it was an error to undertake the single-handed performance of a work like this; for not since Leibnitz, to paraphrase the pregnant words of one of the soundest thinkers of our time, has it been possible for one man to drive *all* the sciences abreast. However, if such a work were to be undertaken by any one man, it is difficult to conceive of a situation more favorable, and conditions more auspicious, than those under which Mr. Sonnenschein has prosecuted it — in London, at the centre of things, having at his command not only the great libraries, but the wealth of trade bibliography in the offices of the great publishing-houses. Nor can we regard it as otherwise than discouraging in the extreme that so signal an opportunity as that of revising the 1887 edition for the present one should have been so ill improved. Certain errors of the first edition were, indeed, corrected—such as the erroneous interpretation of the pseudonym, "Olphar Hamst"—but far too large a number of the worst of them are brought bodily over to the present edition (witness the entry, under "Argentine Republic," of Hayes's 'New Colorado'), while, more melancholy still, an extraordinary heedlessness has disfigured with every variety of error, in 1891, a long list of entries which were correctly printed in 1887—"St. Columbia," for example, for "St. Columba" (p. lv). There is, in fact, no sound basis for supposing that anything better than this will appear for some time to come to serve as a "general catalogue" of literature, and accordingly this "guide" will in all probability be put to that use in many libraries. Those who consult it, accordingly, should be warned that without thorough and laborious marginal corrections it is sure to prove but "a blind guide."

Ein Jahr Meines Lebens, 1848-1849. Von Alexander, Grafen von Hübner. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1891. 8vo, pp. xii., 379.

Count Hübner is one of the distinguished band of diplomats and soldiers whose patriotic exertions have barely sufficed to save the Austrian Empire from extinction during the political and military crises which have convulsed the European continent for the past half-century. From 1849 to 1859 he filled the difficult post of Minister to France, and it was to him that Louis Napoleon made the famous New Year's speech which was generally accepted as an informal declaration of the war of 1859. He is now in his eightieth year, but apparently in the enjoyment of great intel-

lectual vigor. It is, indeed, worthy of note that so many of the great men who were with him in the service of Austria attained an extreme old age. To mention only a few prominent ones: Count Joachim von Münch-Bellinghausen, who for twenty-five successive years presided over the German Diet as representative of Austria, died in 1866 at the age of ninety; Field-Marshal Radetzky, who conducted the victorious Italian campaign of 1848 at the age of eighty-two, lived to be ninety-two; Prince Metternich was eighty-six when he died, in 1859; Gen. Clam-Gallas attained his eighty-fifth year in 1890; Gen. von Wallmoden, in 1812 a British General, but back in the Austrian Army after 1815, died in 1862, aged ninety-three; Field-Marshal Nugent Westmeath, an Irishman by birth, and also for a time in the English Army, took part in the battle of Solferino at the age of eighty-two and lived for three years after; Wessenberg, who was Minister for Foreign Affairs during the critical period from May to November, 1848, was eighty-five when he died, in 1858. This list could be greatly extended by adding the names of such comparative youngsters as were cut off just before reaching the age of eighty. The number of those who served against Napoleon I. and lived to serve again against Napoleon III., is sufficiently large to put us on our guard against the hasty generalizations of some recent writers on the increasing longevity of the race. What is true of a new and comparatively poor country may be quite the reverse when applied to a community which for centuries has possessed inherited wealth and culture. And while early retirement from public service may be the rule in republics, it is not so in monarchies. On a smaller scale a similar phenomenon is found in the fact that among us a greater number of veterans is employed in private establishments and corporations than in our civil service. An intelligent employer, whose own interest is at stake, will always give the preference to an old employee over a new one; an office-holder, who is himself only a passenger, as it were, will take care of his friends and let the service take care of itself.

Like several other Austrian magnates, Hübner has a decided taste and talent for literature. He has published a number of books, the best known of which are a 'Journey around the World' and a Life of Sixtus IV. Like most German diplomats and statesmen, he writes a much more agreeable and readable style than the professional and professorial German men of letters. It is curious, however, that instead of *Januar*, he writes *Jänner*, an exclusively Austrian locution; but this is about the only trace of dialect in the book before us, which, as its name indicates, is the diary of a year, or, more precisely, of thirteen months, from February 18, 1848, to March 19, 1849. An allowance of 379 pages for 395 days seems liberal indeed, and one shudders to think what the history of the world would be if executed on as ample a scale; but the book is not merely a diary—many pages are filled with reflections on public affairs. The author has the courage and the candor to print now the opinions which he entertained then, and many of which, although comparatively very liberal in view of the time, the country, and the surroundings in which he had been reared, have been utterly confuted by subsequent events. For instance, it was quite natural for him to believe that there could never be a united Italy, and that the Pope could not be shorn of his temporal power without impairing his authority as head of the Church. That he confesses these opinions, now that the events which he regarded as impossible have become accomplished, is, of course, only to his credit.

His diary is divided into two parts. The first deals with his residence in Milan, where for 106 days he was held as a hostage by the insurgents, though, apart from the detention itself, not put to serious inconvenience except when, for a brief space, he was exposed to the fury of a street mob. He entertains a high opinion of the native urbanity and kind-heartedness of the Italians, not excluding those of the lower classes, and intimates that their bark is worse than their bite. He says that while, on paper, they shed Austrian blood as if it were water, in practice they were much less cruel, and, in their intercourse with the hostages and with other subjects of the Emperor, were always polite and considerate. The following passage may serve as an exposition of his sentiments and also as a specimen of his style:

"I love Italy, and I also love the Italians. Among their many excellent qualities, I esteem particularly their facility of apprehension, and, what there is no German word for, their urbanity. The former continually strikes me, whether in intercourse with the higher circles, or with the middle class, or with the common people. To speak only of these last, let me assume the case of a traveller who speaks but imperfectly the language of the country in which he is sojourning. A German will laugh at his mistakes, a Frenchman will correct them, an Englishman is disconcerted, colors, utterly fails to understand, and walks off. The Italian guesses, if he does not understand, what the foreigner means, and, in order to make himself understood, speaks with his fingers, hands, arms, and, a born mimic, with his face—all with the utmost good-will and the politest manner. For the Italian not only apprehends with ease, but he possesses another gift—urbanity. This virtue is not to be confounded with civility. Civility is acquired by education, and is, therefore, more or less the privilege of the well-bred. Urbanity is inborn, or, rather, it is the inheritance of antiquity, handed down from generation to generation; in the course of centuries it has abandoned its exclusiveness and become the common property of the nation. Civility wishes to please, urbanity fears to displease. Nothing is more repugnant to it than the possibility of annoying one's fellow-man, or, still worse, of wounding his feelings. Civility facilitates intercourse among men, urbanity makes it pleasant and safe — safe in the sense that one never has to fear an offensive word. Foreigners who occasionally find that words do not correspond with actions accuse the Italians of insincerity. This is an error. They avoid touching disagreeable subjects, and, when that is impossible, assume that their obliging phrases will not be taken for more than they are—a polite way of preserving intact the questioned or disputed subject. From whatever point of view one regards Rome and Italy, in them is the cradle, and in the Italian the first-born son, of civilization."

The second part of the diary, dealing with the exciting events in Vienna in the autumn of 1848, possesses greater historical interest than the first. Hübner was directly instrumental in bringing Prince Felix Schwarzenberg from Milan to Vienna, where the latter soon took the reins of government into his hands, and, by his genius and energy, contributed in no inconsiderable degree to save the monarchy. Hübner served as his right hand, and composed all the proclamations, diplomatic communications, and other public documents which the political situation evoked. He was necessarily brought into intimate contact with the most important actors on the public stage, and his book abounds in striking characterizations of generals and statesmen, as well as of some leaders of the revolution; and there are not wanting skilful descriptions of stirring scenes.

William Wordsworth. By Elizabeth Wordsworth, Principal of Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford. London: Percival & Co. 1891.

It is inevitable that some scepticism should mingle with the pleasurable anticipation with which one approaches a fresh literary portrait of a poet who has challenged the best efforts at portraiture of more than one generation of writers. This latest attempt at making permanent still another impression of the mild yet august personality of Wordsworth justifies almost equally the scepticism and the anticipation. Miss Wordsworth is one of the few persons living who can remember, not the poet himself, but the wife who outlived him by almost a decade. She has listened to reminiscences of the thrifty habits of the most homely of men of genius from the lips of an old retainer, and has had access to some intimate family letters not published in memoirs or lives. But she must not, for these reasons, be supposed to lean too much to the side of the familiar or the trivial. Nor, on the other hand, does she represent her immortal relative solely by the pure light and "perfect witness" of his genius. "It may be mentioned," she writes, "that this [Dorothy Wordsworth's] journal is full of allusions to William's being 'ill,' 'tired,' and the like. . . . The task of composition seems to have been frequently attended with physical discomfort and uneasiness, and especially to have affected his sleep, as his poems themselves show." Yet these were the really vital moments of his life. What puts him among the immortals is the "visionary gleam" that came when he was lifted, by a power he could not command, above the usual even tenor of his way, when the mood fell for which he could not arrange in plans for poems in parts and books, and from which he came back "trailing clouds of glory" over the ordinary level of his verse.

Patiently and appreciatively as Miss Wordsworth has studied his poetry, and interesting as much of her criticism is, it is, on the whole, less the poetry than the man as seen through it that most completely fills the measure of her confidence and security. "The vision in the temple is made real to our minds by the fact that the prophet has shown his sincerity and trustworthiness in matters of which we ourselves can judge." Throughout his long life of eighty years, he gave rise to no need for the apologists who have been found for the lives of less serenely balanced poets. Of the theme of his exemplary virtues his grandniece does not weary: "The heart, though deeply, very deeply, stirred, is always controlled by the masculine will." In brief, he loved his sister, his wife, his children, the liturgy of the Church, and the "Authorized Version." His parochial duties, also, were not left undone; and finally Miss Wordsworth writes: "How one would like to have seen him being drilled" in a Grasmere volunteer corps!

If Miss Wordsworth has not found a new valuation for the poet whose work stands most in need of anthologies and selections, she has given between the lines, without the least undue use of the personal pronoun, a distinct and delightful impression of her relation to the young Oxonians (if the term may be applied to the sex) of the Hall of which she is the head. Her pages more than hint her keen sympathy with the readings of Plato, the studies in classic poetry, the eager search for English equivalents for difficult passages, and with the rest of the burning questions of "term-time." They show also a broad and liberal culture that extends beyond the palmy days of Grasmere and Rydal Mount.

Evolution of the Ordinance of 1787, with an Account of the Earlier Plans for the Government of the Northwest Territory. By Jay A. Barrett, M.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

THIS book is the first fruit of the Historical *Seminar* in the University of Nebraska. It is a very painstaking performance, and the author, without having had access to original sources, has worked over, in a thorough and independent way, nearly all the existing materials on the subject of his study. Adhering strictly to the documentary evidences, and rarely mixing inferences with the recorded facts, he gives to the documentary evidences a juncture and series which make them tell the story of "the memorable ordinance" with a clearness and accuracy not before attained. And, besides, the writer has no set thesis to maintain, beyond and above the recorded facts, as to the greater or less share which Dane or Cutler may have had in its authorship and enactment.

The government of the Northwest Territory passed through an evolutionary process. "The army plan" for settling a new State with officers and soldiers disbanded at the close of the Revolutionary War came first in order, because the needs of an impoverished soldiery were then most clamorous. The fiscal necessities of the Government came next to create what Mr. Barrett entitles "the financiers' plan." A clear perception that all plans for profiting by "the natural secretions of landed wealth" must depend for success on social security and political order, came in the end to pave the way for the ordinance of 1784 as drafted by Jefferson. As the ordinance of 1784 began to be studied in connection with the needs of free labor, and with the dread of State multiplication at the West to the damage and disparagement of the Atlantic States, it was seen by "men of reflection" that the number of States contemplated by that ordinance should be reduced, and that slavery should be restricted in them. These views finally culminated in the ordinance of 1787.

It is because this ordinance was in large part the product of an evolutionary process that its genesis is involved in so much obscurity. It is because the Continental Congress, in caring for the unoccupied West, was obliged to "feel its way blindly along the dark path of implied powers," that the problem was so difficult. The quarrel over the "back lands" began even earlier than Mr. Barrett hints. The question was pronounced from the first to be the article of a standing or falling Union. "Gentlemen shall not pare away Virginia," exclaimed Harrison, only three weeks after the Declaration of Independence. "Until these western lands are cut off, Pennsylvania will not confederate," rejoined Wilson. The munificent cession of Virginia, following the lead of New York, finally gave a solid footing to projects for the government of the northwest territory, and the successive stages of this movement are clearly sketched by Mr. Barrett.

Of most interest to us is the writer's minute discussion of the ordinance of 1784, as originally drafted by Jefferson, and as finally passed. Illustrating his study by maps, he thinks it a mistake to say, as most writers do, that this ordinance, as adopted, provided for the creation of ten States. The mistake, if it be a mistake, is very old, as it was shared by Rufus King in 1787 (Elliott's Debates, vol. v, p. 281.) Mr. Barrett refers to the "amusement" which in later times has been created by the fantastic names given to these Western States in Jefferson's first draft. The amusement dates from the first publication of that draft. The newspaper wags of the time proposed that the States formed by partition from the old States should also be euphemistically named—that Vermont should be called "Epithalamia," Kentucky, "Parthenissiona," and that the Wyoming region, if admitted to the honors of Statehood, should be called "Polu-phloisboia." The writer marks the first emergence of the words "Charter of Compact," as found in all these early organic acts, but he does not explain their origin and significance. They were made necessary by the fact that the assumption of Congress to legislate under the Articles of Confederation for the government of the Territories was, as Madison and Hamilton confessed at the time, without a shadow of authority, and had to depend for its legal obligation on compact between the contracting parties. Mr. Barrett thinks that the fugitive-slave clause foisted on Rufus King's anti-slavery resolution of March 15, 1785, and finally incorporated in "the Ordinance of Freedom," must have come from some "outside pressure" not now discoverable. He dismisses, with reason, the precedent found for it in the compact of 1643, between Massachusetts, New Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven for the rendition of runaway "servants." That would indeed be "a far cry" when we can find a nearer slogan for it in an agitation which, from 1784 to 1789, prevailed in Georgia for the mutual rendition of slaves between herself and the Spanish possession of Florida. The Continental Congress (John Jay, the Foreign Secretary, being its organ) made itself the ready instrument of these reclamations (Diplomatic Correspondence, etc., 1783–1789, pp. 249–51, 262–3, 376–9, 416). What seemed so "consistent with good neighborhood" (the phrase is Jay's), as between the slave States and a foreign nation, could not have been deemed at that time a hardship as between slave States and free States in the same Union. The apathy of the "fathers" on this subject is unintelligible to-day because of the moral progress which has left the barbarism of slavery so far behind us.

Mr. Barrett forbears to discuss "the political reasons" which induced the Southern members to vote for the ordinance. That they had such reasons is frankly avowed by Grayson of Virginia. Indeed, it would not be difficult to make an argument in support of the proposition that "the planting States" were gainers by the compact. Besides the recapture of fugitive slaves, they gained a reduction in the number of free States that could be carved out of the territory north of the Ohio. The territory west of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia had not yet been ceded, and its future partition into States could be controlled by the acts of cession or by the proprietary States themselves. The attempt made by the commercial States in 1786 to wink at the occlusion of the Mississippi River for twenty-five years, and during that time to prevent the settlement of the Southwest, had been balked. The whole Mississippi Valley was virgin soil for the occupation of "the planting States." Hence the bitter opposition waged by Grayson against the adoption of the Constitution. He based that opposition avowedly on the ground that the Constitution, by its enlarged grants of power, made a new deal as between the Northern and the Southern States in "their contest for empire"—the stakes of that contest being the Mississippi valley. If Grayson had "political reasons," as he said he had, in voting for the ordinance on the 13th of July, 1787, he was true to those reasons when, a few months later, he vehemently opposed the ratification of the Constitution by the Virginia Convention, from motives drawn from the balance of power between the North and the South. If anybody supposes that the ordinance of 1787 was passed in an era of Arcadian politics, he has but to turn to the debates going on at that very moment in the Federal Convention sitting at Philadelphia, with the panic fears expressed by Northern delegates that the Western States might come "by degrees to outvote the Atlantic States," and with the exultant prospect looming before Southern delegates that "the people and strength of America were evidently bearing southwardly and southwestwardly" (Elliott's Debates, vol. v., p. 288 and p. 309).

Very interesting are the detailed references made by Mr. Barrett to the sources from which the several clauses of the ordinance seem to have been derived by its compiler. If, as the result of this inquiry, Nathan Dane comes to his own again, it is not because of any injustice done to Manasseh Cutler. Indeed, something less than full justice is done to Dane's zeal on this subject, for no mention is made of his elaborate discussion of the Western territory question in a speech delivered before the Legislature of Massachusetts in November, 1786. The report of that speech was published at length in the Boston, Hartford, and Philadelphia newspapers of the day, and we fail to find in it any evidence of the "provincialism" ascribed, on what grounds we know not, by Mr. Barrett to Dane.

It is a pity that the proof-reading of this excellent monograph should be so careless. The important resolution of Rufus King for the restriction of slavery is not printed with textual accuracy. The same resolution, as revised by the Committee to whom it was referred, is said to have been reported on the 26th of April instead of the 6th. The names of some of the men who enacted the "ordinance of '87" are cited only to be misspelled. Samuel Holten of Massachusetts masquerades as "Samuel Hal'er," and John Haring of New York as "John Herring," while James Schureman of New Jersey figures alone in the list without any Christian name. There are other inaccuracies.

The Epic of the Inner Life. Translated anew, and accompanied with notes and introductory study, by John F. Genung. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891. Pp. 352.

THIS book is an expansion of an article, "The Interpretation of the Book of Job," which appeared in the *Andover Review* for November, 1888, and was favorably received. Such need was there of such a book—a hearty appreciation of the Old Testament poem, written without academic formalism or scholastic pride, making its appeal to a wide popular intelligence—and the book presented has so many admirable qualities, that it is a very great pity to find it falling short, in some important particulars, of the best results, and aggravating the popular prejudice which it should have helped to correct. It is made up of two parts: "The Introductory Study" and "The Poem." In the former, after certain preliminary observations on the right way of studying the poem, in which there is some natural exaggeration of the futility of all previous attempts, "the central and ruling idea" of Job is brought forward with more show of opposition to former critics than is justified by the amount of difference which is disclosed when at length "the central and ruling idea" is announced as follows: "There is a service of

God which is not work for reward: it is a heart-loyalty, a hunger after God's presence, which survives loss and chastisement; which, in spite of contradictory seeming, cleaves to what is godlike as the needle seeks the pole, and which reaches up out of the darkness and hardness of this life into light and love beyond." This interpretation is opposed to that of Delitzsch and many other critics—nearly all—for whom the question, "Why does suffering on suffering befall the righteous?" is the sole interest involved. Prof. Genung cannot of course deny that this question is uppermost in the great debate between Job and his friends, but the novelty of his contention is that the answer does not come out in the argument but in the experience of Job, in the development of his spiritual nature under the stress of suffering and sorrow. In Job we have a Teufelsdröckh of the early world fighting his way, like Carlyle's hero, through the everlasting no to the everlasting yea. The comparison is Prof. Genung's, and his several returns to it are as illuminative of his meaning as anything he writes. The promise of this transference of the unity of the poem from a system of thought or reasoning to a person is so pleasing to our ear that it is extremely disappointing to find it broken to our hope. It is so broken; for it is only by what Job says that we get any knowledge of what he is at heart, and there is nothing in his words that gives the sense of spiritual development ascribed to him. Yet Prof. Genung is right in his contention that in the great debate we have more than a mere intellectual argument. However it may be with his friends, Job is a living man, storm-swept by great emotions, and his thinking is for the most part done with his passionate and broken heart. This is the substantial truth that underlies Prof. Genung's exaggeration of the personal centre of the poem.

His classification of the poem as an epic is a matter of no great importance except as it involves his special point of view and the integrity of Job as it has come down to us. It is so different from any typical epic or any typical drama that perhaps we should come nearest the truth by calling it a lyrical dramatic epic. But, so calling it, we should imply the integrity of the poem if we did not make it plain that we only speak of it as it now stands. Prof. Genung is nowhere less satisfactory than in his treatment of this matter of integrity, the connection and continuity of the different parts of the poem. He exaggerates the peculiarity of his position as a defender of the absolute integrity of the book, and especially as the defender of the Elihu part as in agreement with the rest. It is, therefore, all the more strange that, imagining all critical flesh opposed to him, he does so little to beat down its arguments. Certainly no one who ever had a doubt, however faint, of the integrity of the poem, whether in regard to the prologue and epilogue, or the speech of Elihu, or chapter xxxviii., would have his doubt removed by anything offered here. There is a painful suggestion that only the ignorant are addressed, who will not know how weak the statement is. It is, too, a great injustice to represent the doubts as to the integrity of Job as arising from foregone conclusions as to the purpose of the book. Prof. Genung's defence of its integrity has much more the appearance of arising in this way. He might give up Elihu, but, without the prologue and epilogue, his occupation would be gone. If we are not mistaken, a much better case could be made out for a theory of many authors than for the theory of one. As the name of David attracted successive collections of Psalms, and the name of Solomon successive collections of Proverbs, why may not the name of Job have attracted various treatments of the problem of suffering righteousness? There is able scholarship in defence of this teaching. It posits the prologue and epilogue as the original base, makes the debate of Job and his three friends the next instalment, the speeches of Jehovah a third, and that of Elihu the fourth. This may be heroic treatment, but it is delightful in comparison with the evasive shiftiness of those arguments by which the speech of Elihu and the epilogue, especially, are retained as consistent portions of the book.

We cannot follow Prof. Genung into his translation and the commentary he has made upon it. Both of these have many admirable traits. The translation is wonderfully fresh and strong and beautiful. It may be asked, "Why retranslate a book in which the Revised Version made more changes than in any other, and with good effect?" The answer is that "there is a strong tendency in a company translation, made in the interests of the Church and Christianity, to make every clause at all hazards a source of spiritual and homiletical edification." These are hard words, and in melancholy contrast with them is the translation of the most critical passage in the book, "I know that my redeemer liveth." The foot-note says: "*My redeemer*—so it seems best to translate here, rather than disturb the associations of the passage, because not enough would be gained by the more accurate term *avenger* to pay for the change." Thus the author is false to his chosen principle, and his "sermonizing instinct" gets the better of him at the most critical moment. And the translation of the remainder of the passage, with the commentary on it, is the most doubtful feature of the book. The translation, bringing out the expectation of a future life, is equally at variance with the general drift of the poem and the "consensus of the competent" respecting this most difficult passage. Yet on this individual translation and interpretation, at the best extremely uncertain by his own confession, Prof. Genung has based the climax of his exposition. It would be hard to find a worse example of critical artfulness than this. To harmonize such a translation and interpretation with the remainder of the poem is impossible. The attempts to do so are the plainest proofs of this; and the impossible is intensified by the date which Prof. Genung assigns to the book—the eighth century B. C., much earlier than has been lately reckoned. Prof. Toy assigns it, with the body of the Wisdom literature to which it is allied, to the third century before the Christian era. Even then the idea of immortality would have been unlikely, but far less so than five centuries before.

The Criminal Jurisprudence of the Ancient Hebrews. By S. Mendelsohn, LL.D. Baltimore: M. Curlander. 1891. 8vo, pp. 270.

PUTTING aside the preface, index, etc., and the reprint of an essay on the Talmud by the same author, only 180 pages are left for the work named in the title, less than one-third of which is text, the rest footnotes. We know nothing of the practical workings of the criminal law among the Hebrews, except in the shape which it assumed, in the later times of the second commonwealth, in the hands of the Pharisaic Rabbis or Judges (for Rabbi was identical with Judge). Of the Sadducees we know only that they servilely followed the written law in all its blood-curdling severity; but they have left no literature of their own. The Talmud, the outgrowth of Pharisaic learning, refers sometimes to the Sadducean rulings, *e. g.*, to their literal enforcement of "eye for eye, hand for hand," instead of awarding moneyed damages for the loss of the eye or limb. But our author does not mention the Sadducees at all; the jurisprudence he gives us is solely that of the Talmud.

After the destruction of the Temple in 70 A. D., no Jewish tribunal was deemed competent to inflict the death penalty; indeed, jurisdiction in capital cases was wielded but for two short periods of two or three years out of the fifty preceding that event. But aside from the Apocryphal story of Susannah, there is no older written document about Jewish jurisprudence of any kind than the Mishnah, as collected by Rabbi Jehudah at Tiberias during the reign of Elagabalus, say 220 A. D. Until his day, the "oral law" was handed down by word of mouth only; and, notwithstanding the respect paid to tradition and authority, the Rabbis discussed points of criminal law which had become a mere matter of history, with the same freedom as if they were passing as judges upon cases coming before them for trial; and in this way they must have often taught and proclaimed, not how the law had been administered at Jerusalem, but how, in their opinion, it ought to be administered if Jewish independence were restored. And the same process went on during the subsequent discussions of the Rabbis on the Euphrates on the text of the Mishnah, which went on for nearly three hundred years, before they were written down in the Babylonian Talmud. The further away we get from the time when the criminal law had to be enforced in the interest of social order, the more we find of those subtilties which make the lawful punishment of even murderers and thieves, as well as blasphemers and Sabbath-breakers, utterly impossible; and a new rabbinical criminal code, with imprisonment and excommunication for its penalties, had to be constructed and projected into the past, in place of the old-fashioned sentences of death and of stripes of the Mosaic dispensation. Our author, in one of his notes (68), while speaking of the "previous warning" (*Hathrādh*) against the commission of the crime, without proof of which the penalty of death or stripes, according to the Talmud, could not be lawfully imposed, admits that this rule could certainly not have prevailed when the Jewish courts alone had to preserve the peace in Palestine against robbers and cutthroats; but he fails to notice that the refinements which render the enforcement of the law nugatory are carried much further in the Gemara or Talmud than in its foundation, the Mishnah, which, aside from being much older, and therefore better historic authority, is also the work of much more sober-minded men. Our author generally loses sight of this distinction, and, even when he quotes the Mishnah, he refers to it by the page of the Babylonian Talmud in which it is inserted.

But, making allowance for all the refinements or exaggerations of later times, enough remains to convince the searcher after truth that the Pharisaic judges of the Asmonean and Herodian times administered the law against persons accused of crime, in a spirit of fairness and humanity which has never before this nineteenth century been reached by any nation, and even in our own time is confined to the United States and the British Empire. The procedure is always accusatory, never inquisitive, the prisoner is never called

upon to criminate himself, his confession is never regarded, except in so far as it might, in offences against property, relieve him from a penalty. (But this is probably one of the Talmudical afterthoughts.) No conviction can be had upon the testimony of less than two witnesses — so says the written law; and these witnesses must be free male Israelites over thirteen years of age, of unblemished character. In capital cases the court is composed of twenty-three, in other criminal cases of three "expert" judges, who are drawn from the "disciples of the learned." Any "disciple" in the court-room may argue a point in favor of the accused (Mishnah Sanhedrim, ch. v, §4—a passage which the author seems to have overlooked when he says that advocates were not allowed to confuse the court). But none of the "disciples" were allowed to argue against the prisoner; this only the judges could do, after withdrawing for consultation. After an acquittal there could be no new trial, even upon the discovery of new evidence, though there might be after a conviction. The witnesses were in all cases confronted with the defendant; they were separated; they were closely cross-examined, first by set questions as to time and place (*Hakirah*), then at large in our English-American style (*Bedikah*); and in very early times a thorough cross-examination, in the interest of a wrongfully accused person, was made the most sacred duty of the judge.

Men were disqualified for seats on the bench if of kin to the accused or to the prosecuting witnesses; also (Sanh., ch. iii, §3) "dicers [professional gamblers], usurers, *pigeon fanciers* [our author omits these], and traders in fruits of the seventh year"; also, like jurors under the common law, for "ease and favor." Altogether, there were few, very few executions; no mutilations; no torture; no confiscation. The penalties of stoning or burning were inflicted so as to save the very letter of the law, but so as to render death almost instantaneous and painless. For here the Pharisees applied the Golden Rule, which they deduced from "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," while the Sadducees burned or stoned their victims with a cruel thoroughness worthy of Torquemada. While our author fails to compare the mildness and humanity of the Talmudic law with the ferocity of the Sadducees, he draws many parallels between the system described by him and the laws of Greece, of Rome, and of England. For Greece and Rome he relies mainly on Smith's Dictionary, on W. W. Fiske, and on Gibbon; for English law on Blackstone and on Roscoe's 'Criminal Evidence'; but he tells us in his preface that he has consulted none of the many German works on the branch of Rabbinic lore treated by him, because he wished to draw at first hand from the original sources. It has been said, however, that he has made free use of a work on the subject by Dr. Fassel, published at Vienna, a charge which we have not the means to verify. He nowhere mentions John Selden, whose 'Synedria Veterum Hebræorum' teaches all that is worth knowing on Talmudic jurisprudence with remarkable thoroughness and accuracy. If he has really, at first hand and without assistance from his predecessors, gathered all his extracts from the Babylonian and the Jerusalem Talmud, the Commentaries (*Mechilta*, *Sifra*, etc.), and the codification of Maimonides (*Yad hahazakah*), he has performed an amount of work quite disproportionate to the result.

We consider the author's want of discrimination between the Mishnah and the later documents a serious mistake. Another blemish in the eyes of many readers, though a recommendation with some of his Jewish friends, is the continual tone of praise which pervades his book: as the common law is to Blackstone the perfection of human reason, so Talmudic criminal law is to our author the perfection of justice and mercy. But the author's unidiomatic English and unfortunate choice of modern law terms also detract from the merits of the work. And for the crisp style of the Talmudic law maxims he has no taste—at least he has not the pluck to reproduce it. The law of self-defence, which, literally rendered, reads, "He who comes to kill thee, get up early to kill him," he tamely travesties thus: "Kill the one attempting unlawfully to kill thee"! We recommend the book as likely, in these days of anti-Semitism, to dispel many unjust prejudices.

War. By Col. F. Maurice, R.A., Professor of Military Art and History in the Royal Staff College. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. 155.

THIS reprint in book form of Col. Maurice's excellent article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' would be useful and timely in any event; but the addition of an essay on military literature and a list of books with brief comment makes it an indispensable handbook for the military student. The author's summary of the changes in the conditions of strategy and tactics made by repeating weapons of precision and long range, is as authoritative as we are likely to have till the next great and dreaded collision of European armies shall change theory into science and conjecture into knowledge.

The essay on military literature is full of the soundest suggestions as to what and how to read, and gives a wise analysis of the reasons for the supreme value of military history in the soldier's education. Col. Maurice finds the military lessons of our civil war more useful to the European student than some other contemporary writers have seemed willing to admit, and in the campaigns of the German Army since 1865 he finds proof that the German officers have not neglected the study of our history. He sees more clearly than some others have done that the changes in tactical offence and defence, in strategic combinations as affected by railroads and telegraphs, and especially in the moving and subsistence of armies in the field, were all either worked out or clearly foreshadowed in the American campaigns from 1861 to 1865.

Famous Golf Links. By Horace G. Hutchinson and Others. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS is a delightful book for the elect—that is, for golfers—but we fear it will be caviare to the general. Excluding the links at Quebec and Montreal, which are herein described, Rockaway is the only place on this side of the Atlantic where the enthusiastic golfer (all golfers are enthusiasts) can indulge in his favorite game. That such a condition of things should exist in this nineteenth century is, perhaps, due to the McKinley Bill or the fear of unlimited silver coinage; but, in any case, it is discreditable to American sportsmen. For golf is one of the very best games that the mind of man has devised. One might say of it as the Bishop in the story said of the strawberry: "Doubtless the Lord might have created a better game, but doubtless he never did." It has been played in Scotland for centuries, but became popular in England only of late years—probably because Englishmen still look with suspicion upon anything that emanates from "gentlemen of the Caledonian persuasion." But no sooner was this prejudice overcome than the whole population, young and old, male and female, took violently to golf, with the result that in England to-day golf-links are as plentiful as blackberries, and the quondam supremacy of cricket and lawn tennis is seriously threatened. In these days, when we carefully imitate so many English customs more honored in the breach than the observance, it is to be regretted that we do not take up golf as we have taken up polo. Of the two games, considered as such, golf has the immense advantage of being within reach of all, whereas polo is for the few who can afford to keep ponies. And then there is a soothing satisfaction that follows a good afternoon's golfing which is rarely attained by any other process. At such times a man feels at peace with himself and all mankind, and comes near to realizing that halcyon period spoken of by the jester—

> "When the Rudyards cease from Kipling
> And the Haggards ride no more."

Shakespeare vom Standpunkte der vergleichenden Litteraturgeschichte. Von Dr. W. Wetz. Erster Band: Die Menschen in Shakespeare's Dramen. Worms: P. Reiss.

THE title of this work, so far at least as the first volume is concerned, is somewhat misleading. The author gives us next to nothing of "Shakspere from the standpoint of comparative literary history," but instead of that several hundred pages of psychological observations upon Shakspere's characters. The ultimate object of his treatise, he tells us, is to develop the laws of Shaksperian tragedy, and to show how that differs from the tragedy of other modern poets. His method is to be that of "comparative literary history"—something new in Germany, he assures us. He argues for the possibility of a comparative method, quite different from anything hitherto exemplified, that shall rise to the dignity of an exact science. A somewhat prolix introduction attempts to set forth the *modus operandi* of this new method; but one reads it all the way with the mental comment *déjà connu*, and wonders what all the fuss is about. Dr. Wetz informs us that he follows in the footsteps of Taine, and has no predecessors among German writers, for Brandes, being a Dane, does not count. With respect to this manifesto, however, an honest critic owes it to the public to call attention to one important difference between Dr. Wetz and his famous models: Taine and Brandes are never dull.

The bulk of the volume is made up, as already remarked, of comments upon Shakspere's characters; comments that are occasionally suggestive of real critical power, but are on the whole disappointing on account of the absence of the very thing that is promised, namely, historical criticism. The discussion proceeds tamely, with an infinite deal of quotation, and very much as if the plays had fallen from the sky ready made.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, E. L. The Universality of Man's Appearance and Primitive Man. Edinburgh: David Douglas; Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Aristotle. Constitution of Athens. Translated by E. Poste. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Bikelas, Demetrios. Seven Essays on Christian Greece. London: Alexander Gardner.
Böhm-Bawerk, Prof. E. V. The Positive Theory of Capital. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Cheyne, Prof. T. K. The Origin and Religious Contents of the Psalter. Thomas Whittaker. $4.
Codrington, Rev. R. H. The Melanesians: Studies in their Anthropology and Folk-lore. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $4.
Cyr, Mrs. E. M. The Children's Primer. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Daudet, A. Trois Contes Choisis. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 15 cents.
Euripides. Iphigeneia at Aulis. Edited by E. B. England. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1891.

The Week.

It was in August of last year that Balmaceda made his first surrender to the Congressional party. The struggle at that time had not gone beyond the methods of peaceful debate in Congress, though even then the tension was so great that a warlike outbreak seemed imminent. The President yielded, however, though it is now evident that he did so only to gain time and prepare himself for the resort to arms which he had determined upon. It has taken but a year, therefore, for the verdict of battle to go as strongly against him as that of parliamentary debate had previously gone. The worst that has ever been said of his opponents is that they were an oligarchical group, representing the wealth and best families of the country, who were unwilling to relinquish the political predominance they had long enjoyed. But this charge may very easily be a hostile version of the fact that they stood, as they claimed, for time-honored and constitutional methods. At any rate, they have won their victory under a banner bearing that device. It must be a humiliating reflection to Americans that the influence of our Government, though nominally neutral, has really been cast throughout upon the side of illegality and despotism. The indications are strong that this was brought about through a secret understanding arrived at by the State Department and Balmaceda. The latter appears to have openly boasted that he had the power of the United States at his back, and to have used that fact, or assumed fact, as a whip to keep his supporters in line, and thus as the means of prolonging the warfare. Two years ago he was the man of all men who brought to naught Mr. Blaine's plans in the Pan-American Congress. His sudden veering about suggests powerful motives which could probably be made public by a Congressional investigation. Mr. Blaine has no reason to desire a repetition of the inquiry into his performances on the west coast of South America: the one of nine years ago was an experience to satisfy any man's ambitions in that line.

According to the Washington correspondent of the *Times*, the *Itata* case is the subject of considerable speculation in Washington "as to whether the new Chilian Government will demand the payment of heavy damages by the United States for interfering with the delivery of the arms carried from the United States in that vessel." The correspondent goes on to say:

"If Balmaceda had been victorious, there would never have been any question raised as to the propriety of the course pursued by the United States, inasmuch as his side profited by the failure of the *Itata* to carry out her mission as well as by the prolonged absence of the *Esmeralda*, which went north to convoy her down and was delayed at Acapulco while waiting for coal. That the action of the United States in not allowing arms and munitions of war to be transported without interference to Chili hampered the insurgents somewhat is undoubted, but it is said by some authorities on international law that they will have no good claim for damages against the United States, for the reason that the *Itata* was not finally seized in the harbor of Iquique, but was given up by the insurgents as the result of diplomatic correspondence. If this view holds good, the insurgents can have no claim, it is said, even if the United States court at San Diego should decide that the original detention of the vessel in that port was unwarranted."

But suppose the *Itata* had been captured on the high seas by the *Charleston*, as Secretaries Blaine and Tracy, with the warm support of the *Times*, were proposing in May last, would not the new Chilian Government have a very pretty claim against the United States at this moment?

The rule established, or sought to be established, by Secretary Tracy in the Barrundia case has borne fruit in another quarter. News comes from Central America that the authorities of the republic of Salvador sent an officer of police on board the Pacific Mail steamer *City of Panama* to arrest five persons, four of whom were native Salvadorians and one an American citizen. This occurred on the 8th of August in the Salvadorian port of La Libertad. Capt. White of the *Panama* refused to surrender these persons. Then the commandant of the port went on board the *Panama* to arrest the men by force, but, the narrative proceeds:

"Capt. White's indignation was aroused at once, and, without waiting to discuss the matter at all, he told the commandant that if he did not leave the steamer immediately, he would throw him overboard. The commandant evidently perceived that Capt. White was disposed to carry out his threat, for he withdrew from the steamer without any further discussion. A short time before the steamer sailed from La Libertad, Capt. White was informed that President Ezeta had been notified of the occurrences on the *City of Panama*, and that he had gone with a large armed force to Acajutla, the next port in Salvador at which the steamer was to stop. The Captain's information was to the effect that Ezeta intended to await the arrival of the steamer at Acajutla, and to take off the refugees at all hazards. Capt. White accordingly determined not to go to Acajutla, and as there was no other port in Salvador at which the steamer was scheduled to stop, he proceeded to San José de Guatemala, arriving August 11."

In examining the Barrundia case we cited the despatches of Secretaries Everett, Marcy, Frelinghuysen, and Bayard, and the textual opinion of Mr. Soley, the present Assistant Secretary of the Navy, to the effect that a merchant ship in the harbors or waters of a foreign Government is subject in all respects to the jurisdiction of that Government unless exempted by treaty. Mr. Soley, in his article on International Law in the 'Naval Encyclopædia,' says: "Public officers may go on board such vessels, their officers or seamen may be arrested on board, writs may be served, and crimes occurring on board, by whomsoever committed, are triable in the local courts." That is to say, if the attempt had been made by the constituted authorities of Salvador to arrest Captain White himself instead of certain passengers on his ship, he could not lawfully have resisted such arrest. This is simply like saying that if the authorities of New York find or believe that the Captain of the *Etruria* has committed an offence against our laws, and if he is in our waters, he may be arrested, and that he has no right to resist arrest; and so *a fortiori* as to any passengers on his ship. But our "spirited foreign policy," for which we are no doubt indebted to Mr. Blaine, has reversed, for the time being, all the precedents of the State and Navy Departments, and has instructed our merchant captains that they are to disobey and defy the jurisdiction of foreign Governments in their own waters, and told our naval commanders that in cases where the merchant captains fail so to disobey and defy, they shall come forward and make good the deficiency to the extent, for example, of forcibly taking charge of a refugee who has not asked their protection.

The reciprocity idea is working as might have been expected, but more rapidly than the most sanguine free-trader could have anticipated. At the Maryland Republican Convention on Thursday, ex-Congressman Mudd announced that he had been thinking a great deal about reciprocity; and, as he evidently did not see why we should trade only with South America, he proposed that the idea should be extended to other countries. It was an absolute necessity for southern Maryland, he declared, that England, France, and Germany should reduce their import duties upon tobacco, in return for which this country should reduce its import duties upon their products. These sentiments were embodied in a resolution by Mr. Mudd, which was adopted unanimously by the Convention. It is a remarkable thing to see how eagerly the principle of free trade is swallowed when it is disguised under some other name. "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet," and if the Republicans will commit themselves as enthusiastically to a rational reform of the tariff as they did last week in Maryland, it does not make much difference whether it is done under the name of reciprocity or free trade. It is not impossible that Mr. Blaine may live to see the little fire that he has kindled in the south end of the temple of protection, extend itself until it consumes the whole structure.

According to Mr. Lodge of Massachusetts, whose prophecies are written in the September *Forum*, the dominant issue in the election of 1892 will be the question of the free coinage of silver. The tariff, he thinks, is a dangerous thing for any party to meddle with. The Democrats got up the Mills tariff

in 1888, and the country was so displeased with them that they lost their majority in the House of Representatives. Then the Republicans passed the McKinley Bill, and "in the skilfully wrought panic which ensued about high prices, the Republican party suffered severely." In 1892, therefore, the Democrats will pass another tariff bill in the House, and the country will be again disgusted with them and vote for the Republicans. From these premises, by a logical process that we are unable to follow, Mr. Lodge draws the conclusions that a majority of American voters are in favor of a protective tariff, and that neither party can make the tariff "a leading issue in 1892 if any more exciting question arises." In the language of another eminent character, "an two men ride of a horse, one must ride behind." The silver question is more exciting than the tariff, and therefore the election of 1892 will turn upon it. The next Congress will pass a free-silver bill, which the President will veto, and on this issue the parties will go to the polls. "Whatever differences may exist within the parties upon this question, the conditions are such that one must sustain and the other oppose it. They cannot both get upon the same platform in regard to it, and it therefore seems inevitable that the free coinage of silver will be the leading issue in the next campaign, the one upon which most popular feeling will be excited, and upon which most votes will turn." At all events, Mr. Lodge concludes, the question of free silver or cheap money must find its final and only settlement at the hands of the voters of the United States. Mr. Lodge's reasoning is not clear, and he fails to consider that the free-silver men among the Democrats may be brought to see that, if they insist upon their scheme, they will split their party and fail of their desire.

The Republicans of Maryland are very much exasperated because the Democrats of that State did not favor the free coinage of silver in their platform. Accordingly, they passed a resolution at their own State Convention, which we take leave to print side by side with the Democratic resolution on the same subject:

MARYLAND REPUBLICAN PLATFORM.	MARYLAND DEMOCRATIC PLATFORM.
(3.) We denounce the Democracy of Maryland for its meaningless silver platform, while its leaders unite with the Democracy of Ohio and Iowa in demanding the free coinage of cheap silver dollars to cheat labor of its daily wages and the farmer of the value of his grain. The Republican Silver Law is now rapidly increasing the currency to meet the wants of the people, while it guarantees a dollar—silver, gold, or paper—worth 100 cents, honest money, the same every day in the year, in the pockets of our people.	(9.) No State can coin money, or make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts. Congress only can coin money and regulate the value thereof. The dollar is the unit of value in the United States. The power of Congress to coin gold and silver ought not to be so exercised that gold coin or silver coin will become a commodity and so disturb the operations of trade, but in such manner that the dollar in gold coin and the dollar in silver coin shall be of equal exchangeable value in all the markets of the United States. Any attempt to depreciate by legislation either of these metals ought to be deprecated and condemned.

It is very clear that both of these platforms mean the same thing, and run to the same conclusion, which is, that the Government ought by some means to maintain the gold standard. Keeping all kinds of money at par with each other means keeping them all at par with gold. Yet the Democratic platform expresses this intention more directly and decisively than the Republican. The latter merely recites that "the present silver law guarantees a dollar—silver, gold, or paper—worth 100 cents, honest money, the same every day in the year." A captious man might ask what kind of 100 cents are here referred to, there being a difference between 100 cents silver and 100 cents gold, if we look at their metallic value only. Moreover, the silver men contend that 100 cents in their favorite metal is just as "honest money" as 100 cents in gold. The Democratic platform declares flatly that the dollar in gold and the dollar in silver should be kept at equal, exchangeable value. If there is any difference between the two platforms, it is in favor of the Democrats—in this particular instance.

Some of the newspapers seem to be trying to make a sensation over the practice of accumulating gold followed by the Sub-Treasury in this city. One of them represents that Secretary Foster has artfully induced or cajoled the New York bankers who had occasion to send money to their Western correspondents, to deposit gold or gold certificates, while the Treasurer slily remitted greenbacks, thus increasing the supply of gold in the Treasury by nearly $12,000,000 in two months. The simple-hearted bankers, having just found out the game that was being played upon them, are now indignant at Mr. Foster's trick, and, according to this authority, have obliged the Treasury to ship West at least half the gold it receives. The motive of the New York bankers in thus driving gold away from this city is not explained, nor is it easily explainable. It does not appear that there is any occasion for excitement, surprise, indignation, or remonstrance in this matter. The facts are simply that the express companies have a contract with the Government for the transportation of money, by the terms of which the Government is charged a much lower rate than other customers. The business of the Government is so large that this is a perfectly justifiable proceeding. Accordingly, when a Western bank sends an order to New York for money to help move the crops, the New York bank, instead of sending the money by express itself, takes it to the Sub-Treasury and gets it sent by Government. If the Sub-Treasury had insisted that the banks must deposit gold if they wished to avail themselves of the Government's low express rates, it does not seem that the bankers would have had much reason to complain. They were under no compulsion to hand over their gold to the Treasury, for they could have kept it and remitted notes instead at a very trifling expense. The idea that the New York bankers suddenly "got their eyes open" to the nature of this transaction early in the week, is certainly refreshing. Such guileless simplicity is not commonly attributed to this astute class of men, and the whole story is more amusing than credible.

Lieut. Foote of Washington, whose address upon the abuses in our pension legislation we commented upon recently, has followed up his words with deeds that may have important consequences. With some other old soldiers, he has organized the "Society of Loyal Volunteers," the object being to compel a revision of the pension system, to the end that only those who are actually in need shall receive money from the Government. This end is to be attained to a considerable extent through voluntary and unpaid work on the part of members of the new society. It is proposed to have branches, if necessary, in every county, each branch to keep a list of all pensioners residing in its county, showing the amount of the payments and the claims which have been granted. In cases of fraud the society is to coöperate with the Government in securing the cancellation of the pension and the conviction of the guilty persons. Each society is to recommend guardians when requested, to act without compensation for the families of soldiers, and to employ attorneys, at its own expense, to protect the rights of those who are unable to protect themselves. It is impossible to say whether this scheme will succeed, but it would be very encouraging if it should. What is unfortunate about it is that it should have been so long delayed. The Grand Army has now grown very strong, and will regard the new society with hostility, it is to be feared, for it is formed to do what the Grand Army ought to have long since undertaken, but has hitherto neglected.

Another test of the color prejudice, not on geographical lines, was had in Philadelphia on Wednesday week at the annual meeting of the Patriotic Order of Sons of America, an organization whose object is stated to be "the perfecting of American institutions," the point of discussion being a motion to strike from the constitution the word "white," by which colored citizens are barred from membership. A majority report was presented in favor of the change, but the minority of the Committee vigorously defended the constitution's existing form. The vote when taken stood 58 to 36 in favor of admitting colored men, but it required a four-fifths vote to make the change. A strong plea for the black man was made by the president of a "camp" of colored men organized in Philadelphia. "Slavery," said he, "is a thing of the past, thank God, and now all we want is, that you put us in an equal position, not socially, but that we may be able to uphold equally with you our American institutions, for they are our inheritance. Try us, and you will see that

our color will not rub off and that you will not suffer for your pains; and when the old flag is assaulted, either from nations abroad or from strife within, none will rush to its defence quicker than we. We will protect your homes; we will protect everything American. We will stand shoulder to shoulder with you in every advance you may make for yourself." The delegates who refused to be convinced by this argument came from States like Colorado and Illinois, where pleas for "negro rights" in the South are heard yearly from every Republican stump.

The report of the Government scientist in charge of the microscopical station for meat inspection at Chicago calls attention to the good work done by women at the station, and dwells upon the opportunities for women in investigations of that description. This ought to occasion no surprise. Members of the superior sex have often alleged, as proof of their superiority, that women are incapable of the highest scientific generalizations. Many recent achievements in science go to show that she is rapidly acquiring the power to generalize with the best. However that may be, no one can deny her deftness and delicacy of touch or keenness of observation, and these are the qualities most in demand in microscopic research. Her advantage over the heavy-fingered lords of creation in the former particulars is, in fact, indisputable, and the proverbial quickness of a woman in detecting minute variations in another's dress might easily pass, it would seem, into special skill in observing abnormal appearances in the slides under a microscope. That instrument has come to play such a prominent part in medical and biological research that, if women develop aptitudes in its use, it must mean a considerable enlargement of their opportunities for work. It might even happen, on the theory of ex-Speaker Reed in regard to women's influence on an election where the tariff is involved, that they could get the barbarous McKinley taxes on microscopes reduced or abolished.

The English papers are commenting upon an event that illustrates in a striking manner the almost invincible resistance opposed by custom to the demands of scientific theory. It is maintained by some persons that the wheels of the Roman chariots were five feet apart, evidence for this view being furnished by the ruts to be found in the stone gateways of the camps on the Roman Wall. At all events, Stephenson found that five feet was the distance between the wheels of the wagons that were in use when he built his first railway, and the "standard" gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches, the distance between the rails, was therefore adopted by him—just as the railway carriage was a frank adoption of the coach body. But the great engineer, Isambard Brunel, a man who fairly captivated commercial bodies and fascinated Parliament by the brilliancy of his genius, declared that a gauge of seven feet would permit of a greater speed with less oscillation, and would also provide far more comfortable accommodation for passengers, and the Great Western Road was constructed according to his designs. It is undeniable that the latter end was attained to a degree that is now for ever hopeless, for we shall no more abandon the standard gauge than we shall adopt Volapük as a language; and that greater speed was in the first place attained by the passenger trains on the Great Western Road than by its rivals. But it was found that the expense of the broad-gauge railway was much greater than that of the standard gauge, and that it was difficult to provide axles of the required length without a dangerous diminution of their strength. For a time the battle of the gauges was doubtful, but it was not long before the standard gauge showed that it must prevail. Its greater cheapness in moving freight overcame whatever advantages the broad gauge had in transporting passengers. The number of miles of broad-gauge railway has steadily decreased of late years, and now it is announced by the Chairman of the Great Western Railway that on the 20th day of May next all that remains of the system in England will come to an end, as it has already done in this country. Mr. Brunel's prestige was, perhaps, not greater than his abilities would explain, but we can hardly go to the length of the *Daily News* in saying: "It is merely the irony of fate that, after many triumphant struggles with physical difficulties and many brilliant conquests, he should be popularly remembered only by two splendid failures—a Brobdingnagian steamship and a Utopian railway."

The budget for 1892 submitted by the Argentine Minister of Finance shows receipts estimated at $44,740,000 in gold and $16,720,000 in currency. The estimated expenditure is $27,640,000 in gold and about $51,000,000 in currency. If currency is taken as worth one-third of its face in gold, the currency revenue would be equivalent to less than $6,000,000 and the expenditure to $17,000,000. Hence a surplus of about $6,000,000 in gold may be anticipated. The expenditure includes the cancellation of $15,000,000 of paper money, but seems to make little provision for the interest upon the public debt. But, of course, the first step towards solvency lies in the direction of reducing the excessive supply of "legal tenders." The imports for 1890 were valued at $142,000,000, those of 1889 having been $164,000,000. The exports for 1890 were $100,000,000, or about 40 per cent. more than in the previous year. The Minister predicts that in the two years 1891 and 1892 the exports will amount to $240,000,000 in gold, and that the value of the imports will not be more than $145,000,000, making a balance in favor of Argentina of $95,000,000. In the figures for imports the value of railway material is not included, for the strange reason that it is paid for by European capitalists. It is difficult to believe that the anticipations of the Minister of Finance are not too sanguine as to the future extent of Argentine commerce. The sudden check to the inflow of capital cannot fail to compel marked changes in the habits of the people. A country of less than 5,000,000 inhabitants that imports in a single year from France alone over $10,000,000 worth of wines, and $2,500,000 worth of perfumery and "notions," while it cannot pay its debts, is in a bad way. We learn through the *South American Journal* that the moratorium act has been repealed by the Senate, which has also voted to create the new Bank of the Argentine Nation. If the capital of this bank is to consist, as proposed, of an issue of $50,000,000 of notes, the proposed withdrawal of $15,000,000 by the Government would scarcely improve the situation. The reports are, however, so confused that it is impossible to speak positively at present in regard to the outlook.

In this connection may be mentioned a plan for the collection of duties upon imports into the Argentine Republic and for the payment of interest upon its debt, that has much to recommend it. The transfer from Buenos Ayres to Europe of the funds required to meet this interest, which is practically all payable abroad, is a matter of some difficulty and cost, as well as delay. If customs duties, or a part of them, could be collected on merchandise at the ports of shipment in Europe through the Argentine consular agents, a considerable saving might obviously be effected. This suggestion led to a further one, that the duties might be collected through the sale of stamps, to be used in the manner devised by Mr. Wells for the collection of our own internal revenue, and finally a still broader scheme was developed. It is now proposed to establish in London an institution to be called the Foreign Customs Bank, which shall have the especial function of collecting duties for the various States that have large payments of interest to make in London, and of applying to those payments the duties so collected. The existing financial agencies of these States may not look with favor on a scheme of this kind, which would deprive them of their customers, and there are some features in the scheme (which is known as the Holmes-Malcom plan) that are objectionable. To combine the operations of a "Real-estate Trust" with the functions of such a bank does not suggest sound finance. But the principal idea, that of collecting revenue where it is to be disbursed, is ingenious and not impracticable. Unfortunately, the borrowing States are generally afflicted with corrupt governments, the members of which would view with alarm the transfer of the lucrative business of the customs service to foreign shores. But borrowers sometimes have to submit to terms which they dislike, and it is not at all impossible not only that customs duties will be pledged for debt in the future as at present, but that their collection will be transferred to the residence of the creditor.

THE SILVER QUESTION IN NEW YORK.

THE attitude of the Democratic party in New York as to the silver question is now the most agitated and agitating question in State politics, overtopping the question who shall be nominated to the several State offices. Indeed, the question who shall be elected to these offices depends very much upon the kind of platforms adopted by the two parties on this particular matter. If the public are convinced that business interests require the maintenance of the gold standard, they will vote for the party which best represents the gold standard. It is to be remarked that the present revival of activity in Wall Street dates from the very day on which President Harrison said, at Albany, that he felt himself pledged to keep all the different kinds of money in the country of equal value with each other. Nor can there be any doubt that the President's speech was the cause of the turning tide. Until then a cloud hung over the financial horizon which not even the magnificent crops, the increased railway earnings, and the alluring prospects of foreign trade could dissipate. Stocks would not rise, bonds would not sell, business would not move except in the hand-to-mouth way that had characterized it ever since the great Baring disaster of last year. The cause of such anomalous conditions was nothing else than the doubt which overspread the commercial heavens—the doubt as to what would be a dollar six months or a year hence. The few words which the President let fall lifted this cloud for the time being They gave the assurance that the gold standard would not be abandoned without the utmost possible resistance on the part of the Chief Executive. While this was not an absolute assurance, it created a general belief that the basis upon which business and bargains now rest would not be changed during President Harrison's term of office. And this was just enough to remove the weight that had rested on the spring of business.

The Democrats are not usually as good observers of the undercurrents of political life as the Republicans, but they can hardly fail to perceive the coincidence between President Harrison's Albany speech and the revival of confidence in commercial circles. That this coincidence was a real causal relation, we have not the least doubt. The renewed activity in Wall Street was only a symptom of the improved condition of trade in general. It was the outward and visible sign indicating that investments would be safe for some considerable time at all events. The Democratic party in New York has been generally wise on financial questions. It has been fortunate in having leaders who understood these questions and had the courage of their convictions. Seymour, Tilden, and Manning represented the best traditions of the party, and their influence kept it out of dangerous bogs as long as they lived. The question now is, whether those traditions have lost their weight and those illustrious leaders their authority. We shall soon see.

Meanwhile the *Tribune* reprints the speech made by Gov. Hill on the silver question at Brooklyn on the 23d of September last, from which the inference is drawn that the coming State Convention of the Democrats will "squint toward free silver coinage." Of course we cannot predict what the Convention will say, but it is not exactly fair to Gov. Hill to say that his Brooklyn speech squints towards free silver coinage, unless the same may be said also of Senator Sherman's recent speech at Paulding, Ohio. Each of these speeches shows some tenderness for silver, as is due from a careful politician who does not know how far away he may be from a Presidenial nomination. Both of them favor international bimetallism. The only important difference between the two is that Gov. Hill attacks, while Senator Sherman defends, the present Silver Law (the Act of July 14, 1890). Gov. Hill says that "this Act puts a heavier strain upon our resources than free bimetallic coinage without foreign coöperation would do, and obstructs our progress towards that end, which we all desire to reach—the free coinage of silver upon a proper international ratio." He went on to tell what he considered the proper international ratio to be, deciding in favor of 15½ to 1, because that is the ratio at which the larger part of the silver coin of Europe has been struck. There is nothing in the speech which warrants the belief that Mr. Hill is in favor of free coinage without international agreement. His remark about "the heavier strain upon our resources than free bimetallic coinage" may be correct or incorrect as a matter of opinion. It does not commit him to free coinage, while everything else in the speech commits him against it unless it shall be undertaken in concert with other nations.

It scarcely needs to be said that Gov. Hill's views are not in any case conclusive upon the Democratic party of New York. We have given thus much attention to them, in connection with the coming convention, because Gov. Hill is the only important personage in the party as to whom some doubt has been expressed.

RAILWAY CONSOLIDATION.

PRESIDENT C. P. HUNTINGTON of the Southern Pacific, in the current *North American Review*, under the title "A Plea for Railway Consolidation," states his well-known view that the remedy for all our railroad ills is the amalgamation of American roads into one gigantic corporation. There can be no doubt that consolidation would help the public in removing many of our present abuses. There would be no more secret rate-cutting, the source of all our dangerous and unjust discriminations. The different shipping interests could be adjusted fairly towards each other. A most important result would be the saving of the present wastefulness in operating expenses, brought about by the competition of a number of roads, each having equipment and facilities enough to handle the traffic which all are now carrying. Since railway charges cannot be made materially higher without loss to carriers as well as to shippers, the question of economy in operation is a most important one, whether it be secured through consolidation or not. President Huntington puts these possible advantages none too strongly. It is fair to say that under existing conditions the railways need protection as much as the public.

But Mr. Huntington leaves untouched the question which the Grangers will be sure to ask. The "accomplishment of this [consolidation into one controlling corporation] would reduce the cost of transportation to the minimum, which would *admit* of the lowest possible rates to shippers and passengers." True enough; but would shippers and passengers receive these lowest possible rates? In short, allowing all that may be said in favor of consolidation, can we do without competition in some form among carriers any more than among traders? This is not to say that things should be left as they are; that we should continue to forbid the pooling of railway traffic, for example, for regulated pooling would not stifle rivalry but would change it from rates to facilities. The destruction of all competition, however, would be another and much more serious matter.

Some of the minor points made by President Huntington do not seem well taken. "We have yet to learn," he says, "of a single instance where it has been considered advisable, either by those financially interested or by the public, to disrupt a system thus consolidated, or to make any part independent of the others"—which leads one to wonder whether he has forgotten the Wabash. "Lean ores," he continues, "should be moved at a small profit over actual train expenses, but this cannot be done under the present law." Fixing the rate of transportation for precious ores on a sliding scale, according to percentage of silver, is a not uncommon thing on Rocky Mountain roads. After consolidation, "when a fair return upon invested capital has been received, the people, through the courts, can prevent rates from going up, and thus restrict the earnings of a railroad to reasonable figures." Courts of law interpret statutes, but do not make them. Does Mr. Huntington mean that our judges would take the active supervision of railway matters of their own original motion? If not this, then, apparently, the only alternative would be Federal ownership, or, at the very least, such a decisive control as would amount to the same thing. The theory that a fair return upon invested capital can be a measure of the rightfulness of railway tariffs, is one which can easily be pressed to a dangerous extreme; for a rate is primarily a commercial question, and is to a great extent independent of the after results upon the bonds and stock.

But it is not necessary to follow the theory to the end, for there is no consolidation of the kind in sight. Mr. Huntington is not quite definite enough about this point. He quotes the well-known instance of the New York Central, made up of a dozen little local roads forming one continuous line of rails between New York and Buffalo. But to argue from this to a consolidation of competing roads is to confuse an important distinction. It might

be even praiseworthy, from the public point of view, to unite the New York Central with the Lake Shore, since the exigencies of geographical position admit of a close alliance in any case; but to amalgamate the New York Central with the Pennsylvania, for example, might not deserve the same praise. Precisely this latter kind of amalgamation is the most difficult of accomplishment; so much so that the most ardent anti-monopolist need have no fears. A striking instance of this truth is furnished by President Huntington himself. He cannot agree with the Missouri Pacific and the Atchison people as to the values of their respective properties for the purpose of consolidation; and yet these three systems touch each other at many vital points; could, if combined, "dictate rates" in their common territory (that is, could get all that commercial conditions make possible); could, if involved in a war of rates, almost destroy each other. If to these statements we add that the control of these three vast systems rests with but half-a-dozen men, it is obvious that we have a railway situation exceptionally favorable for consolidation. If a few men of experience and ability cannot, under such circumstances, come to an understanding with each other as to what share of a consolidated corporation each shall have, it is not necessary to say that the immense multitude of shareholders of all our railroads, scattered throughout the United States and Europe, will not easily agree as to the values of all these properties, no matter how many arguments favorable to the theory may be put forth.

THE PROPOSED ADIRONDACK PARK.

THE special report of the Forest Commission of New York, which, although rendered to the Legislature last winter, has only recently been circulated, is a very well-considered document. After reviewing the legislation and attempts at legislation that have taken place, the Commission refers to the unanimous approval with which the proposal to establish a State park in the Adirondack region has been received, and proceeds to consider the conditions of the undertaking in detail. It is unnecessary, they say, to lay again before the public the familiar results of scientific forestry. It is to be assumed that the desirableness and the necessity of maintaining areas of forest are beyond question, and the present investigation relates to the method by which this result may be best attained.

The principal questions that the Commissioners put to themselves are four in number:

(1.) Is the establishment of a State park in the Adirondack wilderness feasible?

(2.) If it be, what shall be the area of the park?

(3.) What lands shall be embraced within the park?

(4.) How shall the lands, not now owned by the State, that ought to be included in the park, be acquired?

The area of the Adirondack Wilderness, which in earlier times was estimated at 12,000 square miles, has now been reduced by clearings to about 5,600 square miles, or 3,600,000 acres. This includes lakes, ponds, and rivers, overflowed lands, and some clearings and settlements. It also includes many outlying parcels of land, which, although wild, would not fall within the limits suitable for a park. Of this wilderness the State has now acquired title, under various tax sales, to but a comparatively small portion, some 765,000 acres, and these lands do not lie in a compact mass, but are interspersed among lands held for different purposes by individuals and corporations. It is plain that these scattered parcels do not of themselves constitute a park, especially as many of them are in the outlying regions above mentioned. Two methods have been suggested by which an area suitable for a park might be acquired by the State. One method is for the State to condemn the lands required, under its right of eminent domain. The Commissioners are of opinion that an attempt of this kind would arouse hostility from so many interests that it could not be carried out. The other method is to acquire the lands by purchase, which would be practicable if the owners would sell at a price which the State could pay. Unfortunately, these lands are no longer to be obtained at moderate prices, and some of them are not for sale at all. The owners of lands no longer allow them to be sold for taxes, and the expense of purchasing the whole area required would probably be greater than the Legislature could be induced to incur.

It becomes necessary, therefore, in the opinion of the Commission, to adopt a modified form of State proprietorship. The clubs, and hotels, and wealthy individuals that have purchased lands in this region for pleasure-resorts of various kinds, have no purposes that really conflict with those of the State. A prominent representative of the owners of these private reserves stated their case as follows:

> "It does not appear to me that there is any good reason why private clubs or associations having in view precisely the same objects which the State has in founding this park, should be in any way interfered with so long as they assist in preserving the fish and game, and cut lumber only in such a way as to preserve the forests. Should any club or organization at any time undertake to clear the land by wholesale, for making charcoal or for any purpose other than a small, necessary clearing for cultivation, then the State might, with propriety, step in and prevent their so doing."

It appeared that if certain privileges were conceded to them, these owners would be unanimously in favor of the park. It was also intimated to the Commission that if the park should be extended around the private reserves, the present somewhat vexatious regulations forbidding trespassing would be abolished.

A different class of interests was encountered in the case of the lumber and wood-pulp companies. With them the question was one of a purely business character. They have bought land and erected mills, and very properly insist upon making something out of their investment. As to these parties, the Commission protests against the injustice of a wholesale condemnation of their industry. In many cases it is carried on in accordance with the precepts of forestry, and the tendency to cut timber only in such a way as to secure a renewed growth is decidedly increasing. At all events, these industries are too powerful to be attacked. If the park is to exist, there must be a compromise of some sort, which the Commission does not regard as difficult of attainment.

In the first place, much land owned by lumbermen in the heart of the wilderness could be obtained advantageously by the State in exchange for the outlying tracts which it owns and which are not suitable for park purposes. Much land can also be had by the State upon the condition that the "soft" wood growing thereon—pine, spruce, hemlock, and tamarack—may be cut when of a prescribed size and under State regulations. The heavy timber upon lands already owned by the State might also be exchanged for lands desirable for the park. In this way large tracts of land could be gradually acquired by the State at a comparatively small expense, most of which could be met by the sale of timber. As already stated, the owners of the private reserves are willing to allow their lands to be thrown into the park upon conditions that are not regarded by the Commission as unreasonable; and, these owners being quite as much interested in preserving the forests as the State, and the preservation of the forests being the main end, there is no reason for disagreeing with the report. As to the first question, therefore, the answer is that the establishment of an Adirondack park is feasible. We may add, also, that forestry gives no countenance to the sentimental idea that trees should never be cut down. Sooner or later they will fall and decay if left to themselves, and their removal when mature defeats none of the objects for which the park is required. It is to be remembered that lumbermen take out only the "soft" wood; so that after they have "lumbered" a tract the inexperienced eye would not discover that they had been at work.

As to the area of the park, suggestions have been made ranging from 1,000,000 to 4,000,000 acres. The smaller area would not be sufficient to produce much effect upon climate or rainfall, and would not include all of that portion of the Adirondack region covering the mountains and lakes at and around the headwaters of the rivers. Probably 2,300,000 acres would be as little as would answer the purpose, but we do not observe that the Commission limits itself to any fixed number. That, however, is the area indicated by their map, and if from this be deducted 57,000 acres covered by water, 64,000 acres of improved lands, 341,000 acres of private reserves, and 512,000 already owned by the State, there remain about 1,326,000 yet to be acquired. For the location of these lands, the map accompanying the report must be consulted; but, as the Commissioners say,

> "The park as here projected includes the chief lakes and headwaters of the principal streams fed by the Adirondack forests; the highest mountain peaks and ranges; the most desirable portions of the wilderness for sanitary and recreative purposes; the best localities for fish and game preservation, and the larger part of the virgin forest of the Adirondacks."

Upon the whole, the showing of the report is hopeful and gratifying.

THE FRANCO-RUSSIAN DEMONSTRATION.

PARIS, August 17, 1891.

IT is impossible to overrate the importance of the manifestations which have taken place in Russia on the occasion of the visit and the review of the French fleet at Cronstadt. The visit had been premeditated for some time, and the French Government was fortunate in the choice of Admiral Gervais, who was to represent France in all the circumstances attending such a demonstration. Admiral Gervais is a cool man, a man of much tact and sense, and it must be said to his credit that he never lost his head during all the ovations paid to him, that he did not indulge in any chauvinistic tirades, and never pronounced one of those unhappy words which sometimes have disastrous consequences. M. de Laboulaye, who had been for some time our Ambassador in St. Petersburg (he is the son of Laboulaye, well known in America and author of 'Paris en Amérique'), had just retired from the diplomatic service for family reasons, but, much to his own inconvenience, he was asked to return to St. Petersburg, to present Admiral Gervais and the officers of the fleet to the Russian Emperor, and to enable Admiral Gervais to profit by his great knowledge of the Russian court and of Russian society. The new Ambassador who had been appointed, M. de Montebello, would have been of little use in the difficult circumstances of the French visit.

Between them, M. de Laboulaye and Admiral Gervais succeeded in maintaining the correct character which the visit was to have; but their wisdom and moderation detract nothing from the spontaneous outburst of political passion which has characterized the visit. There is nothing in it which ought to surprise any one who has followed the development of events during the past few years. Ever since the Congress of Berlin, it had been evident that Russia and Germany had become completely estranged, and that, notwithstanding the differences in their political institutions, Russia and France were, so to speak, instinctively drawing together. It was thought for a long time that there could be no serious understanding between the Emperor of Russia and the leaders of Republican France; people remembered how angry the present Emperor, who was then the Tzesarevitch, was with the lawyer who dared to say to his father, who was going down the steps of the Palais de Justice, "Vive la Pologne, Monsieur!" Only a few weeks ago the "Marseillaise" was a forbidden song in Russia; but political and national interests are stronger than all prejudices, all personal likes or dislikes. Gen. Le Flô, who was for a few years French Ambassador at St. Petersburg, and who was himself *persona grata*, was once talking with the Emperor of Russia on the situation of Europe. The Emperor is a man of few words; he merely said to him: "Make yourselves strong" (*Faites vous forts*). This was clear enough; if France were strong, the door might be open to negotiation; as long as she was not strong, there was nothing to be done with her.

Under the Presidency of M. Grévy, the political antipathy arising from the difference of institutions remained very marked, though France was making herself stronger by degrees, and though her army had become every day more formidable. M. Grévy had no personal prestige, and the painful incidents which brought about his forced resignation had for a time a detrimental influence. The choice of his successor was a fortunate one, and, ever since he has been President, M. Carnot has behaved in the most proper manner, and has gained the esteem of every government in the world by his unimpeachable attitude. At the same time, for a while, his position at home left diplomatic relations as they were before, on account of the extraordinary instability of the Cabinet. It seemed almost impossible for a foreign minister to become acquainted with the French Ministers, as they were changing every three months. The extraordinary popularity of Gen. Boulanger was another disturbing element; nobody could see clearly what would be the future of France if Gen. Boulanger became master of the country, and for a moment it seemed not only possible but almost probable that he would be a new Bonaparte. Since the emotion caused by the Boulangist campaign, the Republicans have felt the necessity of giving more stability to the Administration, and it was almost a watchword during the last session to avoid, at any price, a ministerial crisis. M. Constans, who is the man of the day, the man who instituted the trial of Boulanger, and who conducted the last electoral campaign, is more firmly in power than any Minister has ever been for twenty years.

We have now, therefore, better conditions for entering into close relations with foreign Powers: a respectable, dignified President, who is essentially what the English call a safe man; a lasting Cabinet, having at its head a man who, whatever may be said of him, has shown much intelligence and firmness. It was natural that France should reap the benefit of such a situation. The renewal of the Triple Alliance furnished the occasion. Notwithstanding the downfall of Crispi and the visible signs of some reluctance in the public opinion of a part at least of Italy, the Alliance has been renewed for five years. England has not positively joined the Alliance, she has kept entire liberty of movement. Lord Salisbury has repeatedly declared that he had not much faith in alliances when they were not in exact accordance with the interests and feelings of the people at the moment when they were to bear their immediate results; at the same time, England has given a sort of moral support to the Triple Alliance, in so far as this alliance means the preservation not only of peace, but of all the existing territorial arrangements. There has been much talk about the equilibrium of the Mediterranean, which means practically that England will see with satisfaction whatever tends to increase the importance of Italy, as opposed to France. An English sailor, a man well known in the military circles of England and France, said candidly the other day to a French friend: "I am very fond of France [which means that he is fond of going to Paris], and I wish her well; but you must consider two things: in spite of all the revolutions, the personnel of the French navy has remained almost the same; it is admirable, it has traditions. As for Italy, the personnel of her navy is very inferior, but she has some magnificent ships. If the French made a *coup de main*, and seized the whole of the Italian fleet and manned it with their own men, they would become too formidable even for us." Do not believe that this is an idle dream; there was a real panic created in Italy at one time by the rumor of an attack on Spezia.

There are certainly two currents in England. There is a new French current formed by all who are drawn towards the French democratic ideas; but there is always the old current, the traditional attraction of England towards Germany, who has been for centuries the soldier of England on the Continent, her ally against the omnipotence of Louis XIV. and Napoleon. There was a French party even at the time of Napoleon; it was composed of a small number of men, some very remarkable, but they had no real influence on events, and they did not leave a permanent mark in history. What would be the policy of England in case of a new European struggle? Strong as may be the sympathy for France, it would be counterbalanced by the sentiments which England openly professes towards Russia. Russia is to her an "Erbfeind": she meets Russia everywhere—in Europe, in Asia; her sentiments, her principles are at utter variance with Russian culture, if you may give the name of culture to what is almost the reverse of Occidental culture. It is therefore not to be wondered at if the review of the French fleet at Cronstadt really excited more uneasiness in London than in Berlin; certainly more than in Vienna.

In the face of the constellation, "Northern Germany, Austria, Italy," there rises the new constellation, "France, Russia." The feelings of popular enthusiasm which have manifested themselves in Russia have been reciprocated in Paris. Everything Russian is the order of the day. The Grand Duke Alexis, who came here incognito to take quietly the waters of Vichy, has much difficulty in escaping the indiscretions of the reporter. It is difficult to judge at a distance of the value of the Russian enthusiasm, of the degree of control which the Government could possess over this enthusiasm in a given emergency. But, if we have a right to an opinion on what is going on under our own eyes, it is impossible to deny that the enthusiasm for Russia which is now dominant here, is really a new form of what used to be called chauvinism: it is the expression of a sentiment of revolt against the standing and formidable menace of the Triple Alliance, as well as an expression of the belief in the increasing strength of France. It is needless to say that such a sentiment may breed many illusions; it is obvious that the desiderata of France and Russia have nothing whatever in common. France made war against Russia for the protection of the Turkish Empire, but this war was purely dynastic; it gave to Napoleon III. the alliance of England and the position among the sovereigns which had at first been grudged him. But even at Sebastopol, after so long and terrible a struggle, as soon as the armistice was signed, the French and Russian officers fraternized and fell into each other's arms.

"Major a longinquo reverentia." France really knows little about Russia, and this ignorance allows her to have great expectations which may perhaps never be realized. It is impossible not to be somewhat uneasy at the outburst of unconscious sentiments which have no direct object, and which, if you analyze them carefully, have for their foundation only common fears and common hatred. The course of civilization is altered. France makes me think at times of a train which is off the track. Occidental culture implies naturally some harmony among all the Occidental nations. There is really much more in common between France and Germany than between France and Russia; but the conditions of the peace of 1871 have been such that France has been thrown, so to speak, into the arms of an Oriental nation, and that the two extremes of

European civilization and European barbarism have found themselves united.

ITALY ON THE SEA.

ITALY, August 15, 1891.

UNTIL quite lately the Italians were more than satisfied with, they were proud of, their navy; and when we remember the condition of decrepitude into which the fleet had fallen during the ten years following on the disaster of Lissa, so that in 1876 Italy scarcely counted in the list of naval powers, they may be pardoned for some elation when, ten years later, they found themselves in possession of a navy that became at once the admiration of Europe, heard their *Duilio* and *Dandolo*, their *Italia* and *Lepanto*, praised by "intelligent foreigners" as the biggest and swiftest battle-ships, carrying the biggest guns in the Old World or the New, and saw themselves placed third on the list of naval powers. But during the last four years, when England, Russia, and France have been reinforcing their fleets with such extraordinary energy, each nation striving to bring up the strength of the navy to a level with its own special requirements, keeping in view the relative strength of rival powers, the spectacles through which the Italians view their sea-girt shores are not of that rose-colored hue which gave enchantment to those former years, and they begin anxiously to inquire whether their navy is really in a condition to fulfil its several duties, which, though not as vast or as far-reaching as those of the British navy, are quite as vital, if not more so, for the supreme necessities of home defence. Italy has few colonies or foreign dependencies to protect, nor has she, alas, commerce to protect on foreign seas; but she has to defend an enormous seaboard, the unprotected towns and villages on her coast, to prevent the debarkation of a hostile fleet, to coöperate as a defensive weapon in all the operations of her land forces, to cover the flanks of her army in the valley of the Po, to debark masses of troops in support of these, and be able at any moment to contend against a powerful foe who would probably make a simultaneous attack by land and sea.

"The first necessity of a United Italy," wrote the great Napoleon, "is to become a great maritime power, in order to maintain the supremacy of the seas, to defend her numerous islands and her coasts"; and when we look on the map of Italy, the duties of her fleet appear at once to be of a most serious nature. The coast line of France is but 2,535 kilometres; that of Italy is 6,341 kilometres, or 3,424 geographical miles. Her continental coast line extends from the confines of France at Nice to the Magra, 314,000 metres; from the Magra to Torre Scilla, 1,055,554 metres; from Torre Scilla to Cape Leuca, 731,460 metres; from Cape Leuca to the Austrian possessions on the Adriatic, 1,112,110 metres. Then come the chief islands: Sardinia, with 1,098,147 metres, and Sicily, 1,016,635, Elba, and a host of coast islands, bringing the number of miles to be defended up to the aforesaid 3,424 geographical miles.

Nearly all Italy's great cities are on the sea, if we except Turin, Milan, and Bologna. The great railway arteries of Italy run for a long extent along the sea coast, exposed to the shots of the enemy's fleet. France, England, and even Austria, with her ports at Trieste and Fiume, can communicate with every point of their territory independently of the sea; but if Italy were to lose dominion of the sea, she would lose in great part that of the land. Hence, for Italy to possess a powerful fleet, and a fleet absolutely adapted to meet all these requirements, is a question of "to be or not to be." The once favored design of girdling peninsular Italy with strong works has been entirely abandoned, denounced as useless to repel maritime attacks, and quite beyond the power of her finances, even in those halcyon years when she believed in surpluses and voted for all the proposals for armament on land and sea. To secure the combined action of the fleet and the field forces, to perfect the mobilization of her armies of reserve, is her objective point, and for this a thorough understanding between the services is her constant aim. Without this, say her military authorities, "an enterprising enemy might throw her mobilization schemes into extreme disorder, make bold raids along her coastline against unprotected centres of commerce, arsenals, military districts, manufacturing districts, depots; while, again, he might debark considerable forces at almost any point of the extensive coastline and thence move either to effect temporary objects or to conquer the country." And as early as 1832 Baron Félix de Beaujour wrote: "An attack by the gulfs of Naples or Tarentum only strikes Italy at her extremities, but an attack by the mouths of the Arno strikes at her heart and cuts her in two."

All these considerations were present to her naval chiefs when they laid down the lines of her naval programme with these chief objects in view. Admiral St. Bon, Secretary of the Navy between 1870 and 1876, who occupies the same position to-day, must be regarded as the creator of the present Italian navy. Finding that it was not possible for the young country to build the same number of ships as her maritime rivals, that she could not compete with them in the amount of tonnage, he affirmed that, autonomy, speed, and power being the desiderata, her best policy was to create a fleet of a few great battle-ships, larger, stronger, swifter, and more heavily armed than any afloat, to insure secure bases, such as Spezia, Venice, Taranto (his successor added the Island of Maddalena), then an attendant fleet of rapid cruisers and torpedo-boats. Seeing that Italy was at that time almost devoid of metallurgic industries, it was notorious that the preparation of her war fleet would engender a vast outlay; but the nation, especially after the seizure of Tunis by France, has never until the present moment permitted the word "economy" to be uttered in the discussion of her naval budget. But now that "economy to the backbone" in every department of the State is, of dire necessity, the order of the day, people are beginning to count the cost of the enormous ironclads and to doubt whether the vast sums have given a relative gain.

Of her first-class armored ships, the *Sicily* was launched the other day at Venice with great éclat, in the presence of the King and Queen of Italy and of the British squadron, but the national enthusiasm was not at all equal to the overpowering joy manifested at the launch of the *Dandolo* and the *Duilio*. The enormous cost of the monsters—$6,000,000 each, on an average—is now reckoned up; also the time that elapses between the day they are laid down and their final armament. The *Duilio*, laid down in 1873, was launched in 1876 and armed in 1880. The *Dandolo* took eleven years to complete; the *Italia* and the *Lepanto* the same. Her ten biggest battle-ships have cost the nation $47,357,355. We doubt whether any more such monsters will be built when the *Sardinia* and the *Re Humberto* are completed.

Another question is much agitated just now. It is remembered that France and England have splendid ports, with deep waters, grand arsenals, enormous supplies, and powerful means of reinforcing their coal stores; and numerous mercantile ports and docks able to receive their battle-ships. In this respect Italy is sadly inferior; if we except Spezia and Venice at the extremities of her seaboard, she has no docks capable of receiving these vessels, and, when they are anchored off her ports, the distance of her coal deposits is a serious consideration. It is now affirmed that the coal endurance of her big battle-ships has been considerably exaggerated. As early as 1888, an ex-sailor, George Molle, pointed out these and many other defects, and above all things dwelt on the unwisdom of trusting the offensive power of her big battle-ships to a few monster guns whose mechanism is so complicated, and whose hydraulic gear is so delicate, that the slightest injury would disable them and render the vessel useless for offence, nay, expose her to destruction, especially since the quick-firing armaments have come into fashion and the enemy can pour a hail of bullets on the turrets, towers, and open ports. He severely criticised the insufficient armor of the big battle-ships, and precisely in 1888 wrote strongly in favor of the smaller second-class battle ships such as the *Stromboli*, the *Vesuvius*, the *Fieramosca*, the *Etna*, and the *Bausan* (torpedo-ram). This author dwells much on the necessity of home manufacture, showing that it is one thing for England and France to vote enormous sums for their navies, and a "quite other thing for Italy," since in the former countries the money does but change pockets, passing from that of the taxpayer in general into the hands of employers of national labor and of the working classes employed, whereas in Italy the sums voted go out of the country.

These opinions of course now gain great value from the Hamilton programme and Lord Brassey's treatise on the "Future Policy of War-Ship Building for 1891." Lord Brassey, in noting how necessary it is, in framing a ship-building programme for the British Navy, to provide for strengthening the fleet with vessels of *every* serviceable type, quotes with approbation the policy so well described during the recent debates in the Italian Chamber by Signor Morin, and warmly approved by Brin, then Secretary of the Navy and by no means in accord with St. Bon on many vital points. "I fully share," said Brin, "Signor Morin's opinion that the eclectic system which we have adopted of composing our fleet of vessels of various types, and of endeavoring to make each type as perfect as possible, is the best solution, and I see with pleasure that this is no longer disputed by any one." The Italians have a profound belief in the use of torpedo vessels for coast and harbor defence, but, finding the smaller torpedo boats unseaworthy, they incline to the bigger vessels of 150 tons and over. In this last month of July twelve new torpedo vessels have been ordered at three private shipbuilding establishments, and the gunboats *Castor* and *Pollux*, transferred from the war to the naval department, are now registered on the royal navy. This year will also be completed three war-ships of the type of the *Dogali* of 2,800 tons, three of the *Tripoli* type of 1,200 tons each. As none of the constructions decreed in the programme of 1890-91 have been abandoned, it is difficult to see how the expenses of the naval department can be diminished. These, in the estimates for 1890-91, stood at nearly seven millions of dollars for ordinary expenses; of

this, nearly a million was assigned to the mercantile marine or merchant service, which is only now beginning to recover from the state of decline verging on decay into which it had fallen between the years 1870 and 1885, when the law granting shipping bounties to ocean-going vessels was passed. In that year, the inquiry into the causes of the decline of the merchant service was concluded, and it was found that Italy occupied only the sixth rank as regards steam vessels, and the fifth as regards sailing vessels. Considering the total tonnage, a constant diminution was shown since the year 1876, when it was 1,078,369 tons, falling in 1880 to 999,196 tons, in 1885 to 953,419 tons, and in 1889 to 824,474; but as one ton of steam is equivalent to three tons of sailing vessel, the diminution is not so significant. From the first of January, 1886, to the end of December, 1889, the Italian Government paid in shipping bounties close upon three millions of dollars, of which over two millions represent the repayment of duties levied upon the importation of materials for construction, the rest bounties for the transport of coal and bounties for construction and repairs of Italian-made boilers.

On the whole, the advantages to be gained by a cordial alliance between Italy and England on the seas would appear to be greatly on the side of Italy; but England and Italy have no clashing interests and many in common on the Mediterranean, so that the deficiencies of the younger nation may be in great part supplied by the greater and older mistress of the seas. If Italy can balance her income and expenditure, and this without any addition to her overburdening taxation—if peace be ensured by the quadruple alliance, and on the other hand by the dual alliance between France and Russia—there is little doubt but that in ten years United Italy will become a great, strong, and flourishing naval power. Since the publication of the articles in the *Times* on the American navy in April, the world seems now to look to America as the nation which will probably have the last word to say on naval construction, but the fact remains that until some great naval war proves which of the armored monsters can best defend and offend, all the new models are so many experiments. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

MASSACHUSETTS AND THE LOBBY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If your readers find me excessively tedious, they will please to remember that it is you who are the "agent provocateur" in furnishing a continual supply of facts for the explanation of which my theory gives the master key. Thus, the interesting article in your issue of the 20th, on the Federal Judicial Establishment, is one long plea, indirectly, for the presence in Congress of some national authority, responsible for administration, having power to prepare and submit necessary legislation, and forced up to it both by party opposition and by individual criticism. What sort of an agency is the committee system, with its pulling and hauling of private and local interests, and its manipulation by the lobby, for regulating the even-handed administration of justice, upon which so much of the welfare of the country depends? If the Federal Constitution preserves us, at least for the present, from an elected judiciary, no one principle, on the other hand, calls more loudly for the admission of the Cabinet officers to Congress than the organization of the courts. What a different office would be that of the Attorney-General, and what a different class of men it would attract, if it carried the responsibility and the honor of such work as that!

But that which appeals to me most is the article on the anti-lobby law in Massachusetts. I think you overrate its effect, and it is important that it should not be overrated, as it is the beginning, as I believe, of a struggle as fierce as that with slavery itself, and which, in the long run, must end in one of two ways, either the defeat of the lobby, or the overthrow of our institutions, and a reduction to anarchy, civil war, and military despotism. The lobby is equally rampant around Congress and every State legislature, but inasmuch as, so far as I know, the first definite stand against it has been made in Massachusetts, it is important to determine exactly what has been accomplished. In the first place, a large number of the interests registered as employing lobbyists (speaking from memory, I think sixty) have failed to make returns of expenses as required by law. A list of them has been sent to the Attorney-General, but whether they will be prosecuted remains to be seen. If they are, it will show an administrative energy which is by no means the rule in the State. But, even so, the legal fine, $100 to $1,000, is quite inadequate as a deterrent, so that only those who have nothing to conceal will conform to the law, while those who have will take the risk, and, in the remote contingency, pay the fine. Again, by no means all those engaged in lobbying were registered at all. In the matter of the Redistricting Bill, one of our leading members of Congress did some very active and notorious lobbying without being on the official list. In another case a member of the Legislature was bent upon forcing through a law relating to labor. A leading manufacturer from the country came to the State House to oppose the law on behalf of himself and his fellow-manufacturers. As his opposition began to make itself felt, he was fiercely pounced upon by the member in question with the inquiry whether he was registered as a lobbyist, and, upon replying in the negative, was threatened with arrest, the member apparently forgetting that he was himself lobbying in the grossest manner. Then there is all the lobbying to which you refer outside of the State House, including the rigging of nominating conventions.

The fact is that lobbying is so bound up with the mode of doing business in our legislatures that all attempts to control it from the outside are like trying to stop a stream by damming its mouth instead of diverting it at the source. The first effective step will be to take the business out of the committee-rooms to the floor of the houses, with public discussion, personal leadership, and individual responsibility. This can be done in the Federal Government by bringing the Cabinet officers upon the floor of the houses, and this would have an immediate visible effect, because there is a chain of administrative responsibility from the top down, with one man in every place. But in the State there is another and serious obstacle to be overcome. The chief executive officers, corresponding to the President's Cabinet, are elected separately from the Governor, and are independent of him and of each other. There is no unity of action, no subordination, and no responsibility, and this is why State administration is everywhere so inferior to that of the general Government. In the State, therefore, there is a double task to be accomplished, the change from the election of the executive officers to their appointment by the Governor, and then their admission to seats in the Legislature.

Gov. Russell, in his inaugural message last winter, took strong ground as to the lobby and the government of the State by commissions instead of by the nominal Executive, but the Legislature not only paid no attention to his recommendations, but went rather in the other direction. The campaign this autumn is to be a purely State campaign, and ought to turn upon State issues. It will depend almost wholly upon Gov. Russell whether it does so, or is made a mere stalking-horse for the Republicans and Democrats, with a view to the Presidency next year. Gov. Russell cannot, however, insist upon his views without assuming an attitude of more or less hostility to the Legislature and its traditional methods of business, and that requires moral courage in a high degree. Of one thing, however, I am sure: that the man who, with adequate physical and intellectual qualities, shall have the courage to go to the people and point out to them that the condition of State affairs is all wrong, explain to them how they can be made right, and ask for their assistance in making them right, will achieve a success and a reputation which will astonish himself and the country. G. B.

Lake Placid, Essex Co., N. Y., August 22, 1891.

CHARLES KINGSLEY AND THE NEO-PLATONISTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your notice of Dr. Martineau's 'Essays, Reviews, and Addresses,' in No. 1363 of the *Nation*, appears the following sentence: "There are two admirable studies of Charles Kingsley's writings, and that on his 'Alexandria and Her Schools' will, let us hope, send some to it who did not know it in its day."

We hope that no one will go to Kingsley's book expecting to get an accurate representation of the teachings of the great Neo-Platonists, for he will be badly disappointed. The idea of writing the book in question, or rather the series of lectures of which it consists, did not originate with Kingsley. The subject was selected not by him, but for him, as he states, and it is plain that he performed his task perfunctorily and reluctantly. He had little or no previous acquaintance with his subject, and "read up" for the occasion. His work should not be quoted or referred to as an authority. The fact is, that Kingsley was not qualified to apprehend the doctrines of Plotinus, Porphyry, Proclus, and other philosophers of the same exalted type. He was, I presume, a fair Greek scholar; but something more—much more—than a grammatical knowledge of Greek is required to enable one to grasp the ideas of thinkers of the Platonic School.

Another of Kingsley's works—'Hypatia'—shows conclusively his inability to adequately appreciate and understand the objects or teachings of the so-called Neo-Platonists. His portrayal of the famous Hypatia, the brilliant and accomplished successor of Plotinus in the Alexandrian School, is in many respects a mere caricature. Thos. M. Johnson,

Ed. *Bibliotheca Platonica.*

Osceola, Mo., August 24, 1891.

NOT SHAKSPERE, BUT JONSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to call your attention to an inaccuracy in the review of Mrs. Moulton's

'Stories Told at Twilight,' which appeared in the *Nation* of August 6 (p. 107). "The Stories," says the reviewer, "in other respects recall yet another line of Shakspere: 'Oh! so soft, oh! so sweet!' are they." The line thus partly quoted is not Shakspere's, however, but Ben Jonson's, and may be found in the fourth of the "ten lyric pieces" forming "A Celebration of Charis" in 'Underwoods.' The sentiment and melody of the stanza in which the line occurs are so exquisite that I cannot refrain from copying it in full:

"Have you seen but a bright lily grow
Before rude hands have touched it?
Have you marked but the fall of the snow
Before the soil hath smutched it?
Have you felt the wool of beaver?
Or swan's down ever?
Or have smelt o' the bud o' the briar?
Or the nard in the fire?
Or have tasted the bag of the bee?
O so white,—O so soft,—O so sweet is she!"

F. B. W.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., August 26, 1891.

Notes.

ALBERT SOREL'S 'Madame de Staël' is to be the next translation in the "Great French Writers" Series, published in Chicago by A. C. McClurg & Co.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce for early publication 'A Study of Greek Philosophy' by Mrs. Ellen M. Mitchell, with an introduction by W. R. Alger.

Not to be outdone by Mr. Howells, Mr. C. D. Warner has made a collection of his stated contributions to *Harper's Magazine*, and it now appears under the title, 'As We Were Saying' (Harpers). The book is extremely tasteful in its get-up.

Mr. Andrew Lang has in preparation a volume of angling sketches which will be published in the fall by Longmans, Green & Co., with illustrations by Mr. S. Murdoch Brown. Encouraged by the success of the "Blue" and "Red" Fairy Books, Mr. Lang has prepared for the same publishers a "Blue Poetry Book," also to appear this fall, and to contain the poetry which the editor judges best fitted for juvenile readers.

Mr. Austin Dobson has enlarged and rewritten the biographical study of Hogarth which he prepared for the Great Artists Series some ten years ago. The new edition will be elaborately illustrated, and will appear early in the fall. Mr. Dobson is also editing Goldsmith's 'Citizen of the World' for the Temple Library, published in America by Macmillan & Co. A selection of Mr. Dobson's poems is in preparation to fill one volume of Heinemann & Balestier's new "English Library."

We have more than once noted that the volumes of the Tauchnitz Series were chosen wholly to please the taste of the travelling British, and that only such American authors were included as had been taken up in London. It is a pleasure to see that the new English Library just mentioned is to be managed with more regard for the taste of American travellers. Mrs. Deland's 'Sydney,' Mrs. Burton Harrison's 'Anglomaniacs,' and Mr. James's 'A London Life' were among the first thirty numbers of the English Library, and among the volumes in immediate preparation are Mr. Howells's 'Shadow of a Dream' and 'Tuscan Cities,' Miss Wilkins's 'Humble Romance,' Mr. J. C. Harris's 'Uncle Remus' and 'Mingo,' Mrs. Burnett's 'Surly Tim,' Mr. Warner's 'Winter on the Nile,' and a new novel by Miss Blanche Willis Howard. The managers of the new venture have been well advised in copying the handy form of the Tauchnitz Series. Heinemann & Balestier have also undertaken a Continental edition of the *Review of Reviews*.

Mr. Ruskin's 'Political Economy of Art' assumes in the new "Brantwood Edition" of Charles E. Merrill & Co. the title, '"A Joy for Ever,"' which really restores the text furnished the lecturer by the Manchester Exhibition of 1857. Mr. Norton, in his introduction, relates that he was in Oxford in daily intercourse with Mr. Ruskin at the time when the lectures were being written, and remarked then (and resisted as he could) the tendency which was to deepen in Mr. Ruskin, to turn "from the pleasant, open fields of nature and of art into the rugged path of political economy." The introduction is otherwise instructive as giving a glimpse of Mr. Ruskin's almost humorous spirits in private letters, which were ere long to be exchanged for depression to the verge of aberration. Like all the early volumes, this one can be reread with profit by reason of the lapse of time.

Mr. J. M. Eustace's 'Notes on Trigonometry and Logarithms' (Longmans, Green & Co.) is, contrary to what might be inferred from the title, not only intended for learners having no previous knowledge of trigonometry, but is especially designed for those who wish, if possible, to become acquainted with that science without the aid of a teacher. It is a systematic treatise on plane trigonometry, treating, as a book designed for those who have no tutor should treat, with rather more than ordinary fulness all the matters usually included in text-books designed for use in high schools and colleges. A more than usually large number of examples is worked out and explained with great thoroughness, and the number of examples, mostly taken from university and civil-service examinations, given for the student to exercise his ingenuity and test his knowledge, is extraordinarily large. The answers alone, at the end of the book, occupy seventeen pages. A change in the title might rightfully increase the profit of the publisher even if it offended the modesty of the author.

Peter Paul & Brother, Buffalo, N. Y., publish a large 8vo pamphlet of 32 pages, in stiff covers, beautifully printed on fine paper, bearing the title 'The Circle of Trigonometric Functions.' The author is Mr. William S. Waith. Its object is "to assist in memorizing the mutual relations of trigonometric functions." Mr. Waith's system is extremely ingenious, and well worth the attention of those who have occasion to make much use of trigonometrical formulæ. The flexibility, if we may so call it, of the trigonometric functions is so great, the interchanges and substitutions of which they are susceptible are so multifarious, and the ability to handle them with rapidity and accuracy is to the professional mathematician, the astronomer, and the engineer, a matter of such vital importance, that time is not wasted in looking at them from any novel point of view in which they may be placed, provided it is not purely arbitrary. Mr. Waith divides the circle into six equal sections. In each of these he writes the name of one of the six trigonometric functions. These follow each other in a certain order around the circle, so that, according as two or more functions are in adjacent, alternate, or opposite sections, their algebraical combinations into formulæ can be inferred. It is a system of mnemonics for plane trigonometry analogous to Napier's rules in spherical trigonometry, which, though once taught in all schools in which spherical trigonometry was taught, are now almost obsolete.

The compiler of 'Chicago and its Environs: A Handbook for the Traveller' (Chicago: Louis Schick), speaks deprecatingly of his own work, as a first essay, and promises an entire overhauling, with the introduction of much new matter. He is really, however, deserving of much credit and wide patronage, having abundantly demonstrated his fitness for his task in all that relates to the proper conception of a guide-book. The information he brings together is lucidly arranged and indexed; there is a good folding map of the city, with a great number of views, some of which, being photographic, are very ornamental, while the woodcuts are fairly good. The historical portion has not been stinted. A blemish of no consequence is an occasional lapse in the English idiom, as when we read of the (sleeping-car) "servant, mostly a negro." Some condensation, too, could be effected. But, we repeat, the book is to be praised.

From the practised hand of Mr. E. Poste of Oriel College we receive the first English translation of 'Aristotle on the Constitution of Athens' (Macmillan). It is written in clear and appropriate English, is happy in its turning of technical words, and is handsomely printed. But here commendation must end. At too many points the translation, which is often of the nature of an exegetical paraphrase, gives a false idea of the original, at least to a reader unfamiliar with the Greek; it abounds in explanatory words and phrases imported without warning or designation into the text, not a few of which are misleading, and in the rendering of numerical expressions in particular it goes astray again and again.

A most admirable and attractive critical text of the 'Constitution of Athens' can now be had for less than half a dollar. The edition promised by Kaibel and Wilamowitz-Möllendorff (Berlin: Weidmann) has just reached us. It is dedicated to Bona Fortuna, and, with its terse and eloquent Latin introduction, its appendix containing fresh material, and its full index, is a model of careful and independent editing. Mr. Kenyon's great skill in making out the readings of the papyrus is amply and generously recognized: his detractors, characteristically enough, are charged with ignorance and envy. An elaborate commentary is to follow in due time, in which questions relating to authorship, sources, language, style, and text will be treated.

The Shaksperian rarities offered to the city of Birmingham by the late Halliwell-Phillipps in his will at a fixed price did not find a purchaser in the Corporation, and the collection is now on deposit awaiting disposal to any chance comer at £10,000. In 1887 the owner issued, in a limited edition, a 'Calendar' of the several articles, and it has seemed advisable to issue a second. This has been done, under the editorial care of Ernest E. Baker, and with the imprint of Longmans, Green & Co. The work has been enlarged by annotations, many of them derived from memoranda written in the books by Halliwell-Phillipps himself. The 'Calendar' is, therefore, all the more worthy of a place on the shelves of public libraries, and it may tempt some American of means to transfer the collection to this side of the water.

We have received from Macmillan & Co. the first part of a new 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' the whole to consist of twelve or fourteen parts of 128 pages each, which are to appear at intervals of about three months. The plan of it includes a statement of the position of Political Economy at the present time, references to history, law, commerce, and business in their economic relations, articles upon the leading topics in the science, and biographical and bibliographical features. To judge from this part, the matter is somewhat fresher than a good deal of that

in Lalor's Cyclopædia, which was a little too extensively drawn from French sources, but the general plan resembles that of the American work. It is not easy to strike the happy mean, if any there be, between a dictionary and an encyclopædia, and some of the longer titles in the part of the new dictionary that has been completed, such as "Agricultural Community," are not at all adequate. In several cases ("Abolitionist," "Banking") the view taken of the subject is rather insular. In fact, for most purposes we incline to think that a regular encyclopædia, if special books of reference were not at hand, would be preferable to this dictionary. Space is allowed to the expression of opinion that would be better reserved for facts, especially as the opinions are in a number of instances that we have examined quite open to question.

The latest discoverer of the identity of the Man with the Iron Mask is a certain Captain Bazeriès of the garrison of Nantes. One of the newspapers of that town gives an account of his researches and their result, which is copied with no expressed reserves by the *Temps* of August 7. It appears that M. Bazeriès has succeeded in translating some despatches of Louis XIV. and of Louvois relating to the mysterious prisoner. These despatches are in a cipher that consists of figures only, spaced by dots, and which until now has baffled everybody's ingenuity. They are said to throw light on many points hitherto obscure in the history of the campaigns of 1691 and 1692 in Piedmont. It was in 1691 that Gen. de Bulonde, unnecessarily and against the orders of Catinat, raised the siege of Coni, and compromised the success of the campaign. He was really a traitor, but for some reason Louis XIV. wished that he should not be put to death. He was shut up at Pignerol, and the order for his imprisonment contained a provision that he should be allowed to walk about during the daytime, but that he should always wear a mask. At what time he was removed to the Bastille does not appear.

Dr. S. Mendelsohn, author of the work on the 'Criminal Jurisprudence of the Ancient Hebrews' which we reviewed last week, writes us, with reference to a charge which we took notice of without adopting: "I deny that I have ever 'made free use,' or any use whatever, 'of a work on the subject by Dr. Fassel, published at Vienna,' or at any other place, and denounce the statement to the contrary as a malicious falsehood."

—The September *Century* has a quiet tone, in the main, befitting the emergence from the dog-days. An exception is the shrill note emitted by the parties to the controversy over the question of the treatment of Confederate prisoners at Camp Morton, Indianapolis. The rejoinder to Dr. Wyeth's former article is by W. R. Holloway, and is followed by the doctor's counter-rejoinder. The debate consists mostly in opposing cold official figures to flesh-and-blood experience, with a probable element of error on either side. It seems a pity to revive all this at this late date, except that it is never a pity to establish the truth of history. Mr. Lodge's paper on "The Distribution of Ability in the United States' is based upon statistics which he admits to be capable of yielding only approximate inferences; his comparisons of distinguished citizens of native with those of foreign birth are probably as little vitiated as any. President Seth Low has a short but weighty paper on the government of cities, in which the practical knowledge of the ex-Mayor and the ideals of good citizenship cherished by the educator are in perfect harmony. E. W. Howe writes of "Country Newspapers" with an agreeable mingling of fact and humor, though neither is very sharply marked; his article will scarcely serve to inform those who are ignorant, or to amuse those who are keenly sensible of the humorous possibilities of his subject. Francia and Ghirlandaio figure in the Italian Masters series. Mr. Kennan's article will fall in with the prevailing interest in things Russian.

—"Much Ado about Nothing" is the latest of the Abbey-Lang series of Shakspere's comedies; given first place in the September *Harper's*, it presents no divergences of moment, either in the illustrations or comment, from the characteristics that have marked the handling of the foregoing plays. Beside this literary feature of the number, may be mentioned the first instalment of unpublished letters of Dickens to Wilkie Collins. Furnished by Miss Hogarth and edited by Laurence Hutton, they go little below the surface, mainly serving to show again the huge store of animal spirits possessed by Dickens; an occasional note seems to suggest the application of the spur when the spirits flagged. The well known Paris correspondent of the London *Times* mounts the tripod with an immense deal of ostentation, to tell "the simple, real, and undisguised truth" about "Germany, France, and General European Politics." He has "long been tormented by the desire of telling" this, and has "been stupified at seeing that . . . not one [European diplomat] has fixed a steady eye on the mysterious horizon," the secrets of which only a De Blowitz can divine. After these flourishes one is scarcely prepared to find it all coming down to some commonplace remarks on the political situation in France, and an alarmist prophecy of what will happen to Austria after the death of the present Emperor. The article on "Chinese Secret Societies" has the quality of timeliness, and that on "The New York Chamber of Commerce" a local interest. Walter Besant's second article on Plantagenet London is copiously illustrated, as is also F. Hopkinson Smith's impressionist paper on Constantinople. The serials take up nearly all the rest of the number.

—In the September *Atlantic*, Prof. E P. Evans singles out Max Müller as a type of the dogmatic philologist who declares that speech is, and for ever must be, a barrier between man and beast. Testing some of his more extreme dicta by fact, the Professor concludes that the philologist as such is incompetent to solve the problem of the origin of language, and must "resign this field of inquiry to the zoöpsychologist." The paper would have been a very complete presentation of the question could it have taken account of Prof. Garner's late experiments to determine and ape the language of monkeys. Many will find great suggestiveness in Mr. John Fiske's article on "Europe and Cathay." It asks the question why the discoveries of the Northmen made no stir in Europe. The answer is to be found in the conditions prevailing on the Continent at the beginning of the eleventh century and for 400 years afterwards. Everything faced Asia. Commerce and geographical explorations spent their forces in that direction, and it was not till the Ottoman Empire rose like a wall between Venice and Genoa and the Orient, where their foreign trade lay, that the genius of Columbus learned from travels to the East to strike out westward. Even then, of course, it was only in order to find access to the Orient from behind, as it were. John Burroughs has "A Study of Analogy" which is half argumentative, half oracular. His arguments are directed against other people's oracles, but they are as fatal against his own. Other articles deserving mention are Prof. Woodrow Wilson's, on "The Author Himself"; and "Courts of Conciliation," a Norwegian contrivance to lessen litigation, by Nicolay Grevstad. Kipling's story is in his usual vein.

—Prof. Royce's article on "Present Ideals of American University Life" is the most noteworthy contribution to the September *Scribner*. It begins with a brief historical sketch of the changes which have supervened since such hesitant concessions were made to those "who look upon the mind in connection with the body" as were suggested by the trustees of Columbia College in the year 1853, in the shape of "parallel courses" which should in a measure meet the public demand for "practical and progressive knowledge." Summing up the whole movement thus far, he concludes that the fears of the opponents of the innovations have been disappointed, and that the "materialistic interests," once so dreaded, "have proved to the lovers of true literature and of human life the most inspiring of rivals, the friendliest of allies." His definition of the "highest business" of "the modern University" is "the organization and the advance of Learning," as contrasted with the older idea of "the training of individual minds." The chief illustrated articles are Lieut. Ridgely Hunt's "Steamship Lines of the World," and James Ricalton's paper on travel in Ceylon. The literary interest, narrowly considered, is catered to in Andrew Lang's rambling reminiscences of his reading as child and boy, and in Felix Moscheles's account of a pious pilgrimage to Browning's Italian home at Asolo. A still more specialized interest finds recognition in the adventures of "A China Hunter in New England."

—In the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* of August 15 Prof. Louis Weill makes a recent provincial "lendit," or athletic tournament, the text for some remarks on the question of the introduction and encouragement of athletic sports in the national *lycées* and colleges. To an American his discussion has an almost prehistoric flavor, so close to the rudiments of the matter is it confined; yet one can scent the beginnings of trouble in his question: "How, then, are we to reconcile the interests of hygiene and study?" Still, there can be little question that the tardy movement in France in the direction in which we have travelled such a distance, is one of good promise for both the physical and moral tone of French students. In the same number a Spanish correspondent gives an account of recent receptions and addresses in the Academy, the most striking utterance reported being Valera's semi-apology for the deficiencies of the Dictionary, that Sisyphean labor in which he and his colleagues are engaged. It is of this work that a witty Spanish writer says: "It has the gift of omitting the commonest words of educated speech in order to put in others which, not having been used for six hundred years, or being current only in the Philippine Islands or in Cuba, we, of course, are very anxious to employ."

—Apropos of Mr. Conway's letter regarding the neglected graveyard at Fredericksburg, Mr. Worthington C. Ford kindly permits us to print the following letter from the forthcoming volume (XI.) of his edition of Washington's Writings. It is addressed to Charles Carter:

MOUNT VERNON, 28 June, 1788.

DEAR SIR: When Mrs. Washington was at

the Church in Fredericksburg she perceived the Tomb of her Father, the late John Dandridge, Esqr., to be much out of Sorts and being desirous to have it done up again, will you permit me to request the favor of you to engage a workman to do this, the cost of which I will remit as soon as you shall signify to me that the work is accomplished, and inform me of its amount. I would thank you, my dear Sir, for the ascertainment of this before hand. I have (not inclining to dispute Accounts) felt, in too many instances, the expansion of Tradesmen's consciences when no previous agreement has been made, ever to put it in their power to charge what they please in future. My best wishes, in which Mrs. Washington joins me, are tendered to Mrs. Carter. With much truth, &c. G°. WASHINGTON.

—We have received from Mr. John Vance Cheney, librarian of the San Francisco Free Public Library, his new catalogue of 'Classified English Prose Fiction, including Translations and Juvenile Works,' filling 300 large octavo pages. Mr. Cheney has followed the example of the Boston Public Library, but has gone further, and has taken a most decided "step towards bringing the library into closer relationship with the schools," as well as towards making the innate childish love of "a story" lead to more solid and enduring reading. The classification is very varied, as into biographical stories, ghost stories, legal tales, musical novels, tales of the useful arts, etc.; but the geographical subdivisions are most insisted upon. Under each topic, as Animals, Astronomy, Aerial Voyages, there are references to serious works in the same library, carefully selected; under each country, references to books of travel and history; under the more important authors, references to biographies or critical appreciation of them. If we have here and there detected an obvious omission, it is to be set down, we have little doubt, to the absence of the work from the general collection. Countries, like Austria, England, or (most minutely) the United States, and famous towns, like Boston, have the appropriate novels arranged under them by periods, institutions (slavery), events (the civil war), etc. The contents of books of short stories are stated, and the Seaside Library (pocket edition) is catalogued in full. There are constant references to Poole's Index and to bibliographies. A single title, like Harriet Martineau's tales in illustration of political economy, often serves to introduce an important section, and it is surprising, in the sum, to see to how large a range of human knowledge a clue is here afforded. We must not overlook the rubric Books and Readings, with its lists of authors for boys, for girls, for little ones; and lists of good books for the young, not a few. But, above all, the rubric Literature deserves admiration for its orderly conspectus and full indications. It fills ten pages or twenty columns of fine print, and passes in review the literature of every nation. To crown the whole, there is a topical index. The proper complement of this almost ideal performance is found in Mr. W. M. Griswold's 'Descriptive Lists of Novels and Tales,' which, as far as they go, furnish a criterion between good and bad in the mass of fiction which Mr. Cheney has been at such pains to register. Both these guides should find a place in every public library, large or small.

— That Shakspere's Sonnets should be unknown in Italy, the land of the sonnet, sounds strange at first. Luigi De Marchi says, in the Milan *Perseveranza* of August 2, that they were "completamente ignoti" till last year, despite a long and accurate article upon them in the *Nuova Antologia* in 1878. A recent prose translation by Olivieri has drawn attention to them, and Signor De Marchi improves the opportunity to discourse on them at length in four successive issues of the *Perseveranza*. Besides relating their history, and analyzing the several groups, and touching on the question of the dedication, he offers several metrical translations, in which it is noticeable that he does not always follow the Shaksperian form (which he praises), and never abandons the female rhyme. He does not shun difficulties, for he begins with Sonnet xv. and essays cxxix. among the rest. The condensation of the Italian sonnet line, as the despair of English translators, is proverbial, yet in this instance of a reversed procedure it is worthy of remark how much more compact is Shakspere's line than his translator's. A signal example is (in Sonnet xxx.) the line

"And with old woes new wail my dear time's waste."

which De Marchi renders

"E de' giorni il lamento rinnovello."

—It is interesting to compare the capacity of the German and the Italian for coping with English metrically; but can we be sure that we are not comparing the poetic faculty of De Marchi and (say) Otto Gildemeister? We append the latter's masterly version of Sonnet xxix., "When, in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes," to that of the writer in the *Perseveranza*, which has no little merit, though the after part falls off:

Quando, inimico al mondo e alla fortuna,
Io piango, solo, il mio deserto stato,
E il muto cielo con voce importuna
Invoco, e fremo e maledico il fato;
E invidio ad altri sua verde speranza,
A quello la beltà, l'amico a questo,
All'uno il genio, all'altro la possanza,
E del mio meglio più scontento resto;
Avendo in tal pensier me stesso a sdegno,
A te penso.. ed allor l'anima affranta,
Come l'allodoletta al primo segno
Dell'alba, s'erge fino al cielo e canta.
Penso al tuo dolce amore e d'esser parmi
Ricco, che non vorrei nel re cangiarmi.

Wenn ich, verachtet von Geschick und Welt,
Einsam mein ausgestossenes Los beklage,
Und schrei' umsonst zum tauben Himmelszelt,
Und schau' mich an und fluche meinem Tage,
Und wünsche, dass ich wie ein and'rer wäre,
So hoffnungsreich, so schön, befreundet so,
Und dieses Kunst und jenes Macht begehre,
Des eignen Köstlichsten am mind'sten froh:
Wenn so ich selbst mir fast verächtlich werde,
Da denk' ich dein, und dann steig' ich empor,
Der Morgenlerche gleich von dumpfer Erde,
Und singe Hymnen an des Himmels Thor:
Denn deiner Lieb' Andenken macht so reich,
Dass ich mein Los nicht tausch' um Kron' und Reich.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY'S DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Edited by Dr. James A. H Murray. Vol. III., Part I. E—Every. By Henry Bradley, Hon. M.A. Oxon., President of the Philological Society. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891.

MR. BRADLEY'S fortunate accession to the great work committed to Dr. Murray has resulted in the publication of his first instalment of a new volume in advance of the concluding parts of vol. ii, which it is now seen will comprise the letters C and D. The point thus reached leaves nearly or quite a third of the vocabulary disposed of, and insures the completion of the entire Dictionary within a reasonable period—not twice the seven years already consumed in printing, but even, it may be, at most, the nine which fulfil the present century. For it must be remembered that the etymological difficulties of the first three letters of the alphabet are out of proportion to those of the remainder; that the technical impediments to such an enterprise are massed at the beginning; and, finally, that Mr. Bradley added to Dr. Murray doubles the divisor and halves the quotient. At the present stage it becomes superfluous to indulge in criticism of the plan or its execution, for the Dictionary has taken its crease, as the French say. On the other hand, it would be a ridiculous affectation to "accept it as it is," with condescension for its shortcomings. The reviewer's path is clear, to assume the surpassing merit of it, and to help make it so widely known that no cultivated person or family will consent to be without it. We shall accordingly run over Mr. Bradley's 344 pages, and note briefly what we have found curious and interesting in them.

In the matter of pronunciation, Mr. Bradley calls attention to a natural embarrassment which he has experienced in indicating the pronunciation of words in his present domain which "are much better known in their written than in their spoken form." This should be true of a considerable part of the technical scientific terminology in which the E division abounds. There is also a two-fold usage in the case of "words beginning with unstressed *e* before two (written) consonants, like *effect*, *ellipse*, *entail*"; the rapid and familiar pronunciation being quite different from the careful, except when *e* stands before *s*, as in *essential* and *estate*. For the former series the careful sound has been preserved in the marking. The subject again comes up under the letter which opens the new volume, where we read of *ee* that "in *been* many persons sound it as [*i* in *sit*]; it has also this sound in *breeches*, *coffee*" This intimation of the Englishman's shibboleth perhaps requires to be supplemented with the statement that the majority of English-speaking persons now say "bin" instead of "bean." But Mr. Bradley's "many persons' was possibly meant to include Americans. The diphthong in *either* and *neither* is "variously sounded," we are told; like long *i* by most educated people in London, though Garrick pronounced long *e*, which is the prevailing American usage. In connection with the silent *e* final, we are informed that it "is omitted before flexional suffixes beginning with a vowel, as in *moving;* before *-able* it has been usually retained, . . . though many writers now prefer to omit it, especially when the verb is a polysyllable." What will our friends the spelling-reformers say to the uniform practice of this Dictionary in inserting, "in accordance with English analogies," the silent *e* after *dg*, as in *judgement*, etc? They may trust the conservative habit of the printing-office to maintain its customary exceptions to this rule, which, for the rest, is a very convenient one.

The pronunciation of foreign words incessantly adopted into the language opens another chapter. With the spread of the higher education, no doubt it will be found true in the field of common nouns, as it is in that of proper names, that the tendency is to preserve the foreign sound—again to the distress of the spelling-reformers. Nevertheless, if *espalier*, which is quoted as far back as 1741, has now an English pronunciation, *envelope*, dating from 1707, still fluctuates between French and English; it was French in Walker's time (1791), and yet the spelling has been Anglicized for nearly two hundred years. *Entresol* is to be sounded "enterːsɔl," though we doubt if that be the American usage among architects; the quotation from a Builders' Dictionary of 1711 spells "entresole," betokening a long final and perhaps also a nasal initial syllable. *En passant* (1665), *entrepôt* (1721), *entrepreneur* (1878), and (generally) *encore* (1712 in its pseudo-French use) are sounded as in French; *environs* in the English way. *Eloign* is not allowed a different sound from *eloin*. It would have been a pretty thing to embalm in the

quotations under this word the charge in the South Carolina ordinance of secession, against the free States, that they permitted the abolition societies to "eloign the property of the citizens of other States"—*videlicet*, run off slaves. This odd euphemism revealed the fact that it was a lawyer (Mr. Memminger) who drafted the ordinance.

Prefixes and suffixes are, as usual, most minutely accounted for—*en-* in five columns, *-er* in two and a half. *Em-*, *im-*, and *en-* are treated as identical, and the alphabetical place of any given word beginning thus is determined by the most common form. The discordant usage in the case of *-ence* and *-ance* is remarked, while, with respect to the parallel ending *-ency*, discrimination is made in these terms: "When the same word exists in both the *-ence* and the *-ency* forms, the tendency is (where the sense of the verbal etymon permits) to restrict the former to action or process (*i. e.*, to connect its meaning rather with that of the verb than with that of the adjective), while the latter is used to express quality." Under *-ed* a world of useless and heated discussion is squelched in these words: "The suffix is now added without restriction to any substantive from which it is desired to form an adjective with the sense 'possessing, provided with, characterized by' (something). . . . (Groundless objections have been made to the use of such words by writers ignorant of the history of the language; see quot.)" The quotations are from Johnson, who grieved over Gray's use of *honied*; and from Coleridge, who wrote: "I regret to see that vile and barbarous vocable, *talented*. . . . The formation of a participle passive from a noun is a license that nothing but a very peculiar felicity can excuse."

The "subordinate words" and "special combinations" cut a great figure here, as do the phrases and proverbial expressions which are appropriately recorded. *Ear* is very fertile in all these; so are *egg* and *earth*; and *end* (sb.) requires nearly seven columns for itself—it is "End *und kein Ende*." We miss here *end-man* of our negro minstrels, though the Ethiopian (serenader) is admitted. And, speaking of Americanisms, it seems that our British cousins meekly accepted *eventuate* from us. Jay Gould is cited as using the verb *engineer* coupled with "a job" (London *Standard*, December 28, 1882, to be precise). We doubt if many more instances could be cited of *escape* ("U. S., An escaped person, a fugitive") than the Philadelphia *Record*, No. 3464, p. 4, 1881. We should incline to think it a freak of the reporter, and that we have, therefore, in this case, an instance, not of usage, but of fruitless experiments in the development of language. The distinction is one which must be constantly borne in mind in studying the 'New Dictionary.' The Australians, it appears, have evolved *escapee*. Mr. Lowell is cited for the New England expression, "about east." That this quarter of the compass has, meteorologically, the same character for the mother country and for her offspring on the Atlantic seaboard, is observed under *east wind:* "In England and New England proverbially bleak, unpleasant, and injurious to health." It is the English custom to put *esquire* last (as, Tom Taylor, of the Inner Temple, Esquire); the Scotch, like the American, is to put it immediately after the name. The Scotch are responsible for the recent literary revival of the word *enow*, which was used as the plural of *enough* in standard English even in Johnson's time. The English (or at least the *Saturday Review*) apply the term *Ebenezer* contemptuously to dissenting chapels; the New Dictionary does not take cognizance of the Yankee idiom, "to get his Ebenezer up," in the sense of "to get his dander up," "to get mad." *Euchre* is set down as "a game at cards, of American origin," and the play is succinctly described; but the word is "of uncertain etymology," and is not traceable to the German, to which the term *bower* belongs. Having formerly been spelt *uker*, *yuker*, *eucre*, it may, the guess is hazarded, have sprung from the Spanish-American *ser yuca*, "to be cock of the walk." Our *everglade* also baffles inquiry as to its derivation. *Egg-nogg*, again, is shown by the citations to be of American origin, and its ingredients are indicated. An American invention, the *Eozoon Canadense*, "a supposed genus of foraminifers or rhizopods, at one time regarded as the earliest-known animal," is "now believed to be of inorganic origin."

What may not be learned in a Dictionary in which the word *enter* fills six columns, the word *even* (in all the parts of speech) ten! We write *encyclopædia* oftener than *encyclopedia* because of the Latin titles of books of this class, like the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Milton, in "L'Allegro," perhaps took *eglantine* for the honeysuckle. *Elfin* was invented by Spenser in 1596. Brougham it was, rather than Burke, who dubbed the press the "fourth *estate*." Pepys (1668) wrote "somebody *else's*," and did not trouble himself with the pedagogical refinement, "somebody's else." The first quotation under *elephant* (of whose "ultimate etymology nothing is really known," and it may be as fantastic as that of *mammoth*) is of 1300; the figurative use of "white elephant" as "a burdensome possession" finds here no earlier illustration than 1883, which is, of course, much too late. Nor is the shorter usage in the like sense, "he has an elephant on his hands," recorded, as it is in the 'Century Dictionary.' The rise and fall of words and of meanings it is the great function of the 'New Dictionary' to mark with all possible precision. The oldest of the *electro-* compounds, *electrometer*, goes back to 1749; *electrophore* and *electrophorus* date from 1778. All the rest, without exception, belong to the present century, and especially from the time of Faraday (say 1830). *Ensilage* is postdated 1881. No earlier quotation for *editor* (of a journal) than 1803 is given; the *Spectator* uses the substantive *editorial* in quotation marks in 1864, and the *Pall Mall* without in 1887. *Enclave* becomes familiar in 1868. *Eating-room* (1613) is quite obsolete; but *eating-house* (1440) has held its own. So has *eavesdropper* (1482). *Economy* (1530) begets *political economy* (1767); but *economically*, as the adverb of the latter expression, is first credited to Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted in 1856. *Egotism* is as old as 1714, and *egoism* as 1722; the differentiation of them as 'self-conceit' and 'selfishness' respectively is shown not to be firmly established. The current socio-scientific use of *environment* is first found in Carlyle (1827).

It would be easy to protract these comments, but space forbids, and Dr. Murray will presently give us a fresh occasion to take the floor.

KEARY'S VIKINGS IN WESTERN CHRISTENDOM.

The Vikings in Western Christendom, A. D. 789 to A. D. 888. By C. F. Keary, M.A., F.S.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

MR. KEARY'S history, as the title indicates, is not a full record of the expeditions of the Northmen down among the Christian nations of the West, which, from first to last, stretched themselves over a space of three centuries, but limits itself to the century that begins the period. The book, however, is really the history of Western Europe during the latter part of the eighth century and nearly the whole of the ninth. Not only are the incursions of the northern pirates during this time chronicled in all their causes and bearings, but the religion and ethics, politics and social conditions, of nearly all contemporaneous Europe are taken into account as well. The work is, accordingly, a most ambitious one, since from not a few points of view this is an extremely difficult period to observe accurately in detail. The present plan has succeeded none the less in giving an intelligible and in the main orderly impression of this time of apparently almost hopeless confusion. There are, however, one or two faults of construction. To gain in breadth of treatment, the author has in some places overweighted the book by material that might better have been omitted. It is safe, for instance, to assume at the present time a fundamental knowledge, at least, of Teutonic antiquities, and this failing, there are available accounts elsewhere from the nature of the case much more exhaustive than that contained in the chapters, the first and second, on "Heathendom" and "The Creed of Heathen Germany," which, with the third chapter on "Christendom," might for every purpose here have been disposed of in a few well-placed paragraphs; and "The Creed of Christendom," the last chapter in the book, after it has logically reached its end, had better have been omitted. It is not meant, in either instance, that the work is ill-considered or badly done. The mythology usually follows Rydberg, and assumes, accordingly, a radical and not always defensible standpoint. Some of its conclusions are, nevertheless, as astute as modern criticism has proved them to be true. Such a one, for instance, occurs on page 75, where the author says: "It is evident that many parts of the Eddaic mythology, instead of being newly invented, have decayed from their primitive condition." The sentence deserves to be quoted, since it embodies in a nutshell the whole present advanced state of criticism of the Teutonic mythology as it is contained in the Eddas; and it might be supplemented by not a few others as pertinent.

The fundamental purpose of the book is to tell the story of the successive incursions of the Vikings, and to trace the track of devastation that followed like a wake wherever their ships had been. In the year beginning the period, 787, according to the 'Anglo-Saxon Chronicle,' three ships appeared in a harbor of the Dorset coast manned by "northern men," who killed the port reeve and sailed away again. It was an occurrence in itself unimportant, and only in the light of subsequent events would it apparently have been deemed worthy of special mention at all, for the accompanying remark that these were the "first ships of the Danish men that sought the English land" was manifestly written only when the true significance of the scourge had become apparent. So far as we have record, only once before, early in the sixth century, had Western Europe seen these Northern pirates, but they were now soon to become a constant menace to life and property over its whole length and breadth. The limit of the period here assumed, 888, the year of the division of the Frankish Empire, is the last appearance of the Northmen before the walls of Paris. It marks, according to the author, a change in their mode of warfare, in that hereafter their depredations are confined to the open country. It is, too, the first sign of a decline of the wave of conquest, and,

though the invaders by no means disappear from the scene, nor are their ravages for a long time sensibly ameliorated, the great movement from the North toward the West had apparently none the less reached its extreme height.

The period, as limited by the author, includes the expeditions of Godfried and Sigfried on the Continent and the Great Army in England, parts of which long before the close of the period had been systematically occupied by the Northmen. The author is himself apparently not quite sure of his division. A truer one is pointed out by Freeman in his 'Norman Conquest,' where three periods of invasion are made for England: a first period of simple plunder, from the beginning in 787 to 855, the first winter spent on English soil; a second period of local settlement, to 897; and a third, final period of political conquest. That such a succession of events is not accidental is shown by the almost exact analogy of the Teutonic occupation of England itself. The experiences of that earlier time were repeated now. In the same way this new swarm of Teutons gradually settled down upon the land they had first plundered and burned; and though this second time the conquest was not carried to such a point of ultimate dispossession, the difference between it and the first in this respect was only in degree. The same general course of events is traceable as distinctly, again, in Ireland and on the Continent, although in this latter instance the last stage fails, as there was no such political conquest even in attempt as is seen in England, and dates, from the very nature of the case, where so many diverse causes were at work, do not necessarily at all closely coincide. The only point that it is intended here to make is the existence of distinct periods in the history of the Vikings in the West. The author himself recognizes such a first period when he says the middle of the ninth century is about the time when the Vikings cease to be summer visitors only, but begin to pass whole years in the enemy's territory. Any other date, however, than that chosen might with equal propriety have been taken for the limit of his narrative. It is rather a pity, since he must have had the material at hand, that he could not have given us the history, from first to last, of the Vikings in Western Christendom without limitation of time.

Every historic people, says the author in his preface, has its age of *Sturm und Drang*. The Viking Age was for the whole Scandinavian people such a period. Within it, and only through storm and stress, formative influences were worked out that resulted in their separation into distinct nationalities at home, and made them abroad, for the first time, an active factor in European history. Of the earliest part of the period we have no authentic records from Scandinavian sources; but as horde after horde poured out of this *vagina nationum*, as Jordanes once called it, and swarmed over Western Europe, they are almost constantly a subject for chronicle, however scant, in the lands they attack. It is only later on that these alien records are gradually supplemented by the Sagas, which, by and by, furnish extended and less objective historical material.

This great popular movement, in the last quarter of the eighth century, was not confined to any one part of Scandinavia. In the earliest time it is impossible to distinguish nationalities, which, in point of fact, were not at all sharply defined, and no appreciable differentiation had as yet affected the language, which was at this time, to all intents and purposes, common over all Scandinavian territory. Later, when the sporadic voyages had grown into an established order of things, it is easy to see that the point of attack was determined to some extent by geographical location. The Swedes, apparently from the first, turned their attention to the East, and later on a Swedish dynasty is enthroned in Russia. Swedish soldiers of fortune form the celebrated Varingian Guard at the Byzantine Court, and piratical expeditions are made down on that side of the world into the Ægean. It was the Danes and Norsemen, then, who were left to harry the countries of western Europe; and as the result of their position it is the Norsemen, when we can distinguish them, who especially have taken the more northern countries of Ireland, Scotland, the Hebrides, and the Orkneys for the scene of their operations, while the Danes are principally occupied in the east and south of England. On the Continent, Danes and Norsemen together, direct from their homes in the north or by way of the British Isles, are usually only distinguishable as Northmen. Mr. Keary imagines the Danes to have been in the majority, not only in England, but in Continental Europe as well. The point, however, that he makes on page 192, that "the traces of Norse language in Ireland and Scotland are much more numerous than the traces of Danish," is wholly a misapprehension, for there had been as yet, as has been indicated, no differentiation in the common parent Scandinavian. This is a favorite *crux* of the author's, and he recurs to it again and again, in his, from this point of view, utterly futile attempts to prove the distinct nationality of the Northmen from the evidence of place names left behind them.

In the face of a popular movement of the character of the one we are considering, so widespread that it was participated in by a whole race, it is of paramount importance to understand the causes and conditions that led to it. The first Viking voyages were undertaken solely for the sake of plunder. The author sees this clearly enough, too, in that he states that "on the whole they were only plundering expeditions, with scarcely any other conscious object than the amassing of treasure." There were, of course, causes at work at home thus to direct attention abroad. Foremost among these was the poverty of the North as compared with the rest of Europe, and its overpopulation. A severe climate and a stern struggle for very existence had made the Northmen as a race hardy, defiant, and indifferent to danger. They were the best navigators of their time and the fiercest fighters, upon whom Christianity had not as yet exercised its humanizing influence. It is no wonder that when the news of easy victory over the rich and less active nations of the South was brought back by Viking ships loaded with plunder, the whole North should be fanned into a fire that needed but little encouragement to become all-consuming. Last of all the causes, and to a great extent purely incidental, was the religious element involved. One gets an idea from Mr. Keary's book, although it is nowhere directly formulated, and, indeed, the contrary is once distinctly expressed, that here was a struggle of creed—a conscious attack of heathenism upon Christianity. There is evidence that the Northmen both hated the new religion for its innovations and despised it for its effeminacy, and they apparently left unused no opportunity that incidentally presented itself to prove their animosity; but their attacks upon Christendom were in no sense because it was Christendom. The monasteries and churches that were so frequently the objects of pillage, from Lindisfarne and Jarrow down, were the great storehouses of treasure and usually incapable of any but a weak defence. In a period a little later, agrarian difficulties both in Norway and Denmark, the absorption of the petty kings, and the loss of allodial rights, furnished causes as far-reaching as any for the settlement and conquest of lands outside of Scandinavia.

The first wintering in Ireland, according to the dates given by the author, was in 835; in Frisia, the Vikings had before that time often wintered; in France, they stayed for the first time in 843; in England, on the Island of Thanet, in 851. At first they chose, almost uniformly, some island close to the mainland for their permanent quarters, and notably at the mouths of the largest rivers, where they could have the sea upon one side and a highway up into the land on the other. Although so often successful, particularly in their first attacks, these pirates who were now beginning to settle down upon the land did not, by any means, always have things their own way. In England they met with their first decisive reverses in 851, and the tables were so far turned upon them that for the first time on record they were defeated on the sea and nine of their ships were captured. But in spite of temporary set-backs, often, no doubt, because of them, they continued to come in increasing numbers, and to widen the scene of their operations. In the northern islands and in Ireland they had acquired a firm footing. London itself had once been plundered; and they had not only ravaged almost the whole Saxon and Frisian coast, but had already sailed, besides, up the great rivers of France, the Seine, the Loire, and the Garonne, and had plundered the whole coast of Spain as far as the Pillars of Hercules. In place of isolated ships there was now concerted action. In the spring of 845, a fleet of no less than 600 sail appeared off Hamburg, which was taken within twenty-four hours. This same year, a fleet of 120 ships made its way, almost unopposed, up the Seine to Paris, which was pillaged and burned. In 851 (these dates are the author's), still another fleet, of 350 sail, set out from Frisia for the English coast, ruined London, and killed the Mercian king. In 859, a fleet of seventy Northern vessels sailed, for the first time in history, down into the unknown waters of the Mediterranean. Before they returned they had plundered the Spanish coast, both western and eastern, ravaged the Balearic Isles, attacked Pampeluna and Narbonne, and ended by starting out for Rome itself. The capture of Luna by mistake for Rome belongs, perhaps, to tradition more than to sober history.

It is impossible here to trace further the career of the Northern Vikings. The separate expeditions and their connection with each other, from the beginning to the end of the period that he has selected, Mr. Keary follows out as much in detail as available material will allow; and to the story that, with unquestioned persistence, he has thus pieced together, the reader may be safely referred for an interesting and unvarnished record of one of the most stirring episodes in the whole history of the Germanic people. The book leaves the Northmen still in the midst of their "storm and stress," though with no little definite accomplishment already behind them. Iceland and the Faroes had received a permanent Scandinavian population. Shetland, the Orkneys, and the Hebrides were also Scandinavian, as was a part of Ireland, while in England the "Danes" were ruling in Yorkshire, East Anglia, and a part of the

Marchland. On the Continent they were still engaged, in various places, in their old business of pillage or in buying a release from it with exorbitant ransom. From Paris, in the very year of the close of the book, 888, such blackmail had just been extorted, after a fierce but ineffectual siege of the city, by an army that, according to Abbo, the only authority we have, at first had numbered, afloat and ashore, 30,000 or 40,000 men! The result of the Viking raids upon the countries they despoiled is also considered in the last chapters of Mr. Keary's book. They were a scourge dreadful beyond all imagination; yet ultimately the infusion of sturdy blood which they brought as settlers into the less active population of the West, showed its result in the characteristics that, to no small extent, have enabled the nations with whom they amalgamated to play so important a part in the political history of Europe. And although at the time the attacks of the Northmen apparently tended only to dismemberment and the destruction of all social stability, both in England and on the Continent they were one of the most pronounced and unmistakable factors of national unification.

THE LEGAL CONDITION OF THE JEWS IN RUSSIA.

La Situation Légale des Israélites en Russie. Par Nicolas de Gradowsky, conseiller d'état. Tome premier. Du Règne du Czar Alexis Michaïlovitch au Règne du Czar Nicolas Ier. Traduit du Russe. Paris: Léopold Cerf. 1890. Pp. viii, 348. 8vo.

THE Jewish question in Russia is not a phenomenon of recent origin; some of its most salient features have existed for more than a century. Hence the present anti-Semitic movement cannot be fully comprehended without a careful consideration of the past, without a thorough examination of the origin of Jewish disabilities in Russia. Such an examination clearly reveals the fatuity of Russia's present policy regarding the Jews—her blind neglect of the lessons taught by her own history.

De Gradowsky's work aims to give a detailed account of the early legislation concerning the Jews down to the end of the reign of Nicholas I. (1855), and thus shows how most of the present restrictive laws came into existence. Volume i extends to the year 1825. The author seems to be quite impartial, and draws his material from excellent sources, relying mainly on the complete collection of Russian laws and on official reports of commissions, etc. The chief defect of the work is a tendency towards repetition and prolixity. The same argument is sometimes repeated in almost the same words; and much space is devoted to mere episodes in the history of the Russian Jews, which, though interesting and illustrative of Russia's general policy, often divert the mind of the reader from the main current of legislation.

There were, according to De Gradowsky, Jewish colonies in South Russia long before the Slavs accepted Christianity. These Israelites came from the countries of the Chersonese and from the Greek colonies of the Crimea. They were harassed by no restrictions, and mingled freely with the Slavs, speaking the Slavic language and adopting Slavic names. This state of things continued until the second half of the seventeenth century, when, under the Emperors Alexis and Theodore, certain Polish territories were annexed to Russia. In these conquered districts there were many Jews, whose privileges had been restricted since the fifteenth century. In this period, under Alexis, we meet with the first legislation against the Jews, but in a very mild form; in fact, the religious zeal of the Government, at this time, was directed as much against Christian dissenters as against Jews. The latter were allowed to reside anywhere in Russia, even in Moscow. The racy anecdotes that are related concerning Peter the Great's hostility to the Jews, are untrustworthy. Their status underwent no change during his reign; they were still tolerated in Russia.

Under the three Empresses, Catherine I., Anne, and Elizabeth (1725 1762), the Jews were more rigorously dealt with. Expulsion edicts were issued in 1727, 1740, and 1742. But these were, to a large extent, evaded with the connivance of the Russian people. Many Jews continued to live in Little Russia, as well as in the districts conquered from Poland, and they even entered Great Russia to carry on trade. Moreover, these rigorous measures were so detrimental to commerce that the Government found it necessary to make a new law permitting the Israelites to visit Russian fairs. The main cause of the expulsion edicts of this period was the religious zeal of the three Empresses, coupled with general prejudice against the Jews.

The reign of Catherine II. (1762–1796) is of great importance in the history of anti-Semitic legislation. She began by issuing a decree of expulsion in 1762; but in 1769 she allowed Jews to reside in New Russia. In 1772, by the annexation of a large part of Poland (*i. e.*, White Russia), the Jewish population of the Muscovite Empire was greatly increased, and the real foundation of the Russian-Jewish question was laid. Catherine ordered that all the conquered people, including the Jews, should be treated with toleration, and that their rights should be observed. The Jews thus became naturalized Russian subjects, whereas, before 1772, they had not been so regarded, and hence could be expelled with impunity. Catherine, in fact, seemed disposed to give them all the rights of other Russian subjects. But two ukases of 1791 and 1794 indicated a change of policy. That of 1794 clearly showed that it was the intention of the Government to confine the Jews' right of residence to certain provinces in the west and southwest of Russia, and at the same time enacted that Jews must pay double taxes. This law really marks the origin of the present Pale of Settlement, which is the most irksome of all existing Jewish disabilities, and has exerted a most injurious influence upon the welfare of the Israelites. The double tax, which became a terrible burden to them, was not abolished until 1835. Thus the legislation of Catherine II., by limiting the right of domicile and by giving the Jews an exceptional status, created the Jewish question. These restrictions were due to the initiative of the Senate and local authorities, and were not in accord with the general principles of government laid down by Catherine herself.

Passing over the reign of Paul I., which is of little importance in the history of the Jews, we come to the legislation of Alexander I. (1801–1825). In 1802 a commission was appointed to investigate the condition of the Israelites. In 1804 the commission presented an extensive project of reform, which was accepted by the Czar. The most important features of this new legislation relate to the education, occupation, and residence of the Jews. They were admitted to the public schools and universities; they were offered some inducements (reduction of taxes, etc.), to turn their attention to agricultural and industrial pursuits; and they were forbidden to carry on trade in villages or rural districts. But this project of reform did not improve their condition. The public schools were too few to be of much use; and, in most cases, the Israelites were so ground down by taxation that they could not afford to educate their children. Hence their ignorance, isolation, and devotion to the Talmud remained unchanged. Nor did the law of 1804 induce many of them to substitute agriculture for trade. Little land was offered to them for this purpose; and those who might have been tempted to devote themselves to husbandry, had not the means to emigrate to the districts in which the land offered by the Government was situated. The attempt to expel the Jewish tradesmen from villages and rural districts also failed. This change of residence was to be made within three years in some provinces, in others within four years. The village authorities petitioned against the execution of the law; and the migration to the cities was postponed in 1807, and again in 1809. In the latter year a commission was appointed to study the question. In 1812 it reported against the enforced migration, on the ground that the cities could not support such an influx of new inhabitants, that the Jews were helpful, not harmful, to the prosperity of the peasantry, and that it was unjust to ascribe to the former the drunkenness of the latter, as the commission of 1802 had done. This report virtually stopped the execution of the law of expulsion, which, however, was allowed to hang over the heads of the Jews until 1835, when it was repealed.

Besides the legislation of 1804, the most important anti-Semitic laws of Alexander I.'s reign were those of 1820 and 1825, which, in a somewhat modified form, are still in force. In 1820 the Jews were forbidden to hire Christian servants, for fear that the former might make proselytes of the latter. In 1825 an edict was issued which made it unlawful for the Jews to dwell within fifty versts of the frontier. The main reason assigned for this prohibition was the Jews' proclivity to smuggle goods over the frontiers in order to evade the payment of duties. This law applied, however, only to Jews renting houses, shops, etc., in distinction from those who occupied property of their own. The following is an extract from De Gradowsky's commentary (pp. 329-332) on this law of 1825:

"The sudden expulsion of the Israelites residing in the districts adjoining the frontier could not have good results. On the one hand, it deprived the landed proprietors of revenues which they derived from the renting of their property; and, on the other hand, it threatened the Israelites with complete ruin by depriving a considerable number of them of their movables, without any plausible motive, and without any wrong on their part. . . . It should have been remembered that the general misery prevailing in the centres where the Jews were crowded together, was the principal cause that led them to establish themselves in the districts near the frontier. . . . The expulsion could only augment the number of Israelites in the localities in which they were tolerated, and consequently would increase still more the proletariat, which in those localities was already considerable. . . . Thus the measure in question was justifiable neither from the point of view of practical utility nor from the point of view of justice and equity. . . . It is a well-known fact that the proclivity to smuggle exists in all countries among the inhabitants living near the frontier, without distinction of race or creed. . . . The imperial treasury could gain nothing by these measures unless it reorganized the corps of custom-house officers. The only ones who gained by the new law were the smugglers, who were thus relieved of the competition of the Israelites, and hence could sell their wares at a higher price."

This meagre outline of the first volume of De Gradowsky's book will scarcely give an adequate idea of its contents, as the author devotes much space to a consideration of the causes and effects of the anti-Semitic legislation down to 1825. Many pages of his work might be cited *verbatim* as strong arguments against Russia's treatment of the Jews at the present day. The anti-Semitic policy of Alexander III. is governed by the same principles, or lack of principles, as that of Alexander I.; the arguments against the latter apply with increased force against the former. The translation of De Gradowsky's book is particularly welcome, because it is the first treatise, accessible to the nations of Europe and America, that gives a detailed account of the early history of the Jews in Russia, and hence affords a clear insight into the origin of the Russian anti-Semitic movement.

Life of Jane Welsh Carlyle. By Mrs. Alexander Ireland. New York: Charles L. Webster & Co. 1891.

To write acceptably about the domestic life of a woman in every way worthy of biographical celebrity, who was for forty of her sixty-five years the wife of one whose friend and literary executor could write of him, "If matters went well with himself, it never occurred to him that they could be going ill with any one else," requires, even though that one be a literary colossus, no small measure of self-restraint on the part of the writer. Such self-restraint, together with a generous comprehension of two uniquely constituted persons, Mrs. Ireland has shown. The lovely and somewhat caustic heiress, known to the world through Mr. Ritchie's collection of 'Early Letters,' changed much during her married life. The Carlyle who at first wrote of a semi-invalid, "Jane is far heartier now that she has got to work—to bake," was in effect the same Carlyle who, later, in the small house in Cheyne Row, where hero-worshippers now gaze at the medallion in the front, preferred to eat his dyspeptic dinners by himself.

Mrs. Ireland thinks, and her readers will be inclined to agree with her, that "the causes which militated most strongly against her happiness" were to be found in Mrs. Carlyle's own complicated nature, rather than in circumstances. "A cross between John Knox and a gypsy"—both were among her ancestors—her intense temperament would of necessity have brought her suffering, and very likely ill health, even if domestic drudgery had not been ruthlessly exacted of her. The exaggeration, the highly colored sense of fact, that appear in every line of her brilliant letters, are an index to the refracting power of her mind. Only a distortion of mental vision could have blinded so clever a woman to the real meaning of Carlyle's attitude in the "adventure" that came to no happy conclusion for either. He had made it clear enough during their engagement that, for him, contemplation of the "Ewig-weibliche" failing to suffice, the only happy union would be with a woman of the type he so admired in his laborious, kindly, pipe-smoking mother.

There can be little doubt that ambition, always in the case of "Jeannie" Welsh of a noble kind, was a strong motive in her marriage. But it was not in her nature to be satisfied with vicarious greatness. Hence the tragedy to her to realize that she was not to be a companion to Carlyle; that the "spirit of fire" and "towering intellect," which were to command her, could only work in solitary throes, of which the manifestations to her were chiefly of the splenetic sort which he himself describes in his well-known style of invective. The paradox of the Carlyles' relationship is the tone of their letters. No sooner had absence, as Mrs. Ireland expresses it, "removed the inexorable difficulties of personal contact," than all the feeling each might have had for the other, and had not, rushed to their pens in torrents of such words as only they could command. In spite of the witness of her many friends to her rare attractiveness, her power of sympathy, her courage, and her witty speech, one is tempted to believe that the best of Mrs. Carlyle was, after all, in her pen. At least, any one who has been disposed to draw this conclusion from Mr. Froude's and the several memorial volumes, will find nothing to contradict it in Mrs. Ireland's excellent summary, nor in the three or four hitherto unpublished letters it contains.

A History of Chemistry, from Earliest Times to the Present Day. By Ernst von Meyer. Translated by George MacGowan. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo.

THE first systematic work on the history of chemistry which deserves special notice is that of Hermann Kopp, which began to appear in 1843 and was concluded in 1846. Two supplementary works by the same author, containing the more recent history of the science, have since appeared. These are now far behind the times. Hoefer's 'Histoire de la Chimie' is an inferior work, though not without value. Minor portions of the subject have been treated separately by various writers, but a good and at least tolerably complete résumé of the history of modern chemistry was still needed. Dr. von Meyer's work is intended to supply this want. In his own words, he has endeavored to give "a fair synopsis of theories and facts which constitute the foundation of chemistry as we now know it."

The work begins with a good and, for most readers, sufficiently extended account of the chemical knowledge of the ancients and of the age of alchemy. A certain glamour of romance with which this last has been invested disappears under the passionless analysis of the historian, and there remains only a record of charlatanry and sordid motives, together with a beautiful theory lacking a philosophic basis, but destined to reappear in the light of modern science. The history of the iatrochemical period follows, in which chemistry and medicine were held to be mutually dependent and interacting, and is not less interesting than that of alchemy as to detail, while it presents a greater number of phases of thought. The sketches of Paracelsus—a charlatan of genius—Libavius, Van Helmont, and, later, of Agricola and Glauber, are full of interest. Next comes the history of the phlogistic period, which is made to extend from Boyle to Lavoisier, inclusive. The account of this period is, on the whole, excellent, and does not require special analysis. We think, however, that Odling's paper on the element of truth in the doctrine of phlogiston deserved notice.

Our author gives full credit for the discovery of oxygen to Priestley, to whom it unquestionably belongs, French historians to the contrary notwithstanding. Yet Priestley died a defender of the doctrine of phlogiston, and modern chemistry began with Lavoisier. This part of the work is well and clearly written, and is sufficiently full. It gives a general view of the progress of the science from Lavoisier to the present time, treating the subject mainly by means of notices of the work of different chemists. Short biographies of some of them are given in foot-notes. The special history of the various branches of chemistry is then taken up. In that of inorganic chemistry we miss the firm grasp which comes from fulness of knowledge. Much important work is passed over, and papers of trivial value are sometimes noticed, as if by way of compliment. The special history of organic chemistry is much better, the author standing upon his own ground. Within the last few years physical chemistry has attained an extraordinary development so as to require a special journal, and many chemists are working in this field alone. The sections of Dr. von Meyer's work which relate to the different subdivisions of the new science are far too brief, even for a work which does not profess to be more than a synopsis. Mineralogical chemistry comes next, and is sufficiently treated. The section on agricultural chemistry is less to be praised. It is rather a surprise to find the experiments of Lawes and Gilbert passed over without notice, while more than justice is done to Liebig's work. Physiological chemistry comes next, with a number of subdivisions which must be regarded as fairly well handled. We note, however, as a remarkable omission, the absence of any allusion to the action of bacteria in the development of ptomaines, now generally regarded as direct causes of disease. The history of technical chemistry during the last hundred years follows. It is not easy to condense such a subject and still give necessary details, but the author has been quite successful.

The work closes with a very interesting account of the growth of chemical instruction in the nineteenth century, especially in Germany, and, finally, with brief notices of some points in chemical literature. All chemists will heartily agree with the author's remarks on the disappearance of criticism from the science. He might have added that the editing of the yearly reports is now left, to a great extent, to a very inferior class of chemists, who not only have no profound acquaintance with the science, but who admit almost everything without regard to what has been done before upon the same subjects.

Dr. von Meyer's work is, upon the whole, a really valuable addition to scientific literature. It is written in a spirit of entire fairness, and rarely claims for German chemists more than is justly their due—though chemistry is now a German science.

Études sur les Origines de l'Episcopat. La valeur du témoinage d'Ignace d'Antioche. Par Jean Réville. Paris: Leroux. 1891.

IN this fragment, reprinted from the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*, the author draws his own conclusions from the investigations of Zahn and Lightfoot upon the authenticity of the seven letters of Ignatius of Antioch. As to the fact of authenticity he is quite in accord with both these writers; but in his deductions therefrom he makes a distinctly new departure. The great interest taken by students of Church history in the discussion arose from the conviction that if these letters were written in the first quarter of the second century, the whole Protestant theory as to the antiquity of the episcopate must be revised. This conviction rested upon the view that the episcopal powers described by the alleged Ignatius were such as really existed as a rule in the Church of the author's day, and that the nature of the episcopate then must have been very much what it was later. M. Réville does not accept this view. He regards the exaltation of the

episcopate by Ignatius as rather an exhortation towards an ideal of what it ought to be than as a simple reflection of what it actually was. He supports his position by the entire absence of such lofty conceptions in the contemporary literature, and reminds us that the function of the bi hop at the time was far narrower than it became later—hardly more, in fact, than the headship of a single city church. The authenticity of the text, therefore, so far from invalidating the conclusion as to the later origin of the episcopate in the catholic sense, is quite in harmony with it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baxter, Sylvester. The Cruise of a Land-Yacht. Boston: The Authors' Mutual Publishing Co.
Black, William. Donald Ross of Heimra. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Carlyle, T. Social Writings. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. 2 vols. 50 cents.
Crommelin, May. The Freaks of Lady Fortune. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Faber, Christine. A Chivalrous Deed. New York: P. J. Kenedy.
Fabian Essays in Socialism. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Filon, Augustin. L'Elève de Garrick. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
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Schools.

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*STATE SCHOOL OF MINES.—ESTAB*lished 1874. Fall term opens Sept. 21. Examinations for admission, June 22–23, and Sept. 17–18. Full courses in Mining Engineering, Metallurgy, Electrical Engineering, and Analytical Chemistry. Tuition free. Catalogue sent on application. Address REGIS CHAUVENET, President. Golden, Col.

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A HOME AND SCHOOL.—J. H. SPERRY, A.M., Asst. Prin. Morgan School, which fits thoroughly for College or business, receives four boys into his family. Personal Circular and School Catalogue on application.

CONNECTICUT, Greenwich.

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CONNECTICUT, New Haven, 136 Sherman Ave.

THE ELDERAGE—Family School for Young Ladies, pleasantly located in the suburbs of the city. The Misses BANGS, Principals.

CONNECTICUT, Norwalk.

MISS BAIRD'S INSTITUTE.—A Home School for Girls and Young Ladies. Primary, Intermediate, and College Preparatory Courses, the Languages, Music, and Art. Careful attention to morals and manners. Healthful location; gymnasium. Terms moderate.

CONNECTICUT, Pomfret Centre.

THE MISSES VINTON'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen Wednesday, October 7. Number limited.

DELAWARE, Wilmington, Franklin Street.

THE MISSES HEBB'S ENGLISH. French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and girls reopens September 22, 1891.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington, 1827 I St.

MRS. MYERS' BOARDING SCHOOL for Young Ladies reopens Oct. 6, 1891. Healthful, homelike, best of teachers, number limited.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

THE COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY.—College, Medical School, Dental School, Law School, Scientific School. For catalogues, address Dr. JAMES C. WELLING, President.

FLORIDA, St. Augustine.

THE SCHOOL, ST. AUGUSTINE.—Term opens Oct. 5. Primary and Preparatory Departments for boys and girls. For particulars, apply to W. HEWETSON.

ILLINOIS, Highland Park, 23 miles north of Chicago.

*NORTHWESTERN MILITARY ACA*demy. Col. H. P. DAVIDSON, Superintendent. Four courses of study and full corps of experienced instructors. Graduates commissioned in the State Militia. Send for Catalogue.

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ILLINOIS, Woodstock.

TODD SEMINARY.—HOME SCHOOL for boys from 8 to 16 years of age. 43d year. A department of manual training. Send for circular.

LOUISIANA, New Orleans, 247 Prytania Street.

MRS. F. D. BLAKE AND MRS. L. Polk Chapman's French and English Boarding and Day School for Girls reopens Oct. 1, 1891. Students prepared for college. Ample grounds for outdoor exercise.

MARYLAND, Annapolis.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—103d Session commences Sept. 16. Eight Departments. Buildings heated by steam. Excellent Preparatory School attached. Terms moderate. Special rates and scholarships for sons of the clergy. For Catalogue address the President, THOMAS FELL, LL.D., Ph.D.

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MARYLAND, Baltimore, 1214 Eutaw Place.

*MISS RANDOLPH'S SCHOOL, LO*cated in the most beautiful part of the city, opens Sept. 17, with a very able corps of teachers. Students prepared for college. Principals—Miss S. N. Randolph, Miss A. L. Armstrong.

Schools.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 122–124 West Franklin St.

THE EDGEWORTH SCHOOL FOR Girls, Mrs. H. P. LEFEBVRE, Principal, will reopen September 24, 1891.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 915 and 917 N. Charles St.

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MARYLAND, Catonsville.

ST. TIMOTHY'S ENGLISH, FRENCH and German School for Girls and Young Ladies reopens September 21, 1891. Principals: Miss M. C. CARTER, Miss S. R. CARTER.

MARYLAND, St. George's Hall, St. George's, Balto. Co.

ST. GEORGE'S HALL—A BOARDING- School for Boys.—Noted for training, health, comfort, and reasonable terms. Prof. J. C. KINEAR, A.M., Prin.

MASSACHUSETTS, Andover.

*ABBOT ACADEMY FOR YOUNG LA*dies will begin its 63d year Sept. 10, with superior accommodations in its new and improved buildings. Terms, $400 a year. PHILENA MCKEEN, Principal.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Billerica.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Boston.

ROXBURY LATIN SCHOOL.—247TH year. Five vacancies in the first class. Boys will be received without examination who have passed the Harvard Preliminaries. Others will be examined Sept. 19 at 9 o'clock. Address for particulars, WM. C. COLLAR, A.M., Head Master.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 112 Newbury Street.

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*BOSTON NORMAL SCHOOL OF GYM*nastics,—Established by Mrs. Mary Hemenway in 1889. Address Miss HOMANS, Director.

MASSACHUSETTS, Brookline, 26 Cypress Street.

COLLEGE PREPARATORY and HOME School for Girls just out of Boston. Fall term begins Oct. 1, 1891. SARAH B. D. LEWIS, A.B., Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, 8 Garden St.

BROWNE & NICHOLS'S SCHOOL FOR Boys will reopen Wednesday, September 30, 1891. Entrance and condition examinations September 29. A Preparatory Department for boys between the ages of 9 and 12. Provision made for a home for six boys.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, Larch Street.

*HOME FOR BOYS.—DR. ABBOT AD*mits not more than four boys into his family, to fit for college or educate privately. Separate tuition, with best of care in all respects. Charming location, with fine tennis-court. F. E. ABBOT, Ph.D

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Schools.

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Frederick B. Knapp, S.B. (M.I.T.), Principal.

Massachusetts, Quincy.

*ADAMS ACADEMY, PREPARA-*tory and boarding school for boys.—School year begins September 17. For all information address
William Everett, Ph.D.

Massachusetts, South Braintree.

THE THAYER ACADEMY.—FIRST term, fifteenth year, will begin Wednesday, September 16. For information address
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Massachusetts, West Newton.

WEST NEWTON ENGLISH AND Classical School.—A family school for girls and boys. Preparation for all high educational institutions and for a useful life. For catalogue, address
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Massachusetts, Worcester.

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MISS GIBBONS' SCHOOL FOR GIRLS will reopen Sept. 30. Three boarding pupils will be received into the family.

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THE CATHEDRAL SCHOOL OF ST. Paul, a thorough preparatory school of high grade. Military Drill. Address for July and August, Chas. Sturtevant Moore, A.B. (Harv.), Scarboro Beach, Me.

New York, Kingston-on-Hudson.

GOLDEN HILL PREPARATORY School for Boys. $450 per annum.
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New York, Manlius.

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Schools.

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MRS. ALFRED WILKINSON'S School for Girls. Reopens September 30, 1891. Refers to Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, George Wm. Curtis, Hon. Wayne McVeagh, Rev. Edward Everett Hale, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Hon. Andrew D. White,

New York, Tarrytown.

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North Carolina, Asheville.

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*MISS BALDWIN'S DAY, BOARD-*ing, and College Preparatory School for Girls reopens September 29. For circular address
Miss Florence Baldwin

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Pennsylvania, North Wales.

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*OGONTZ SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LA-*dies, removed in 1883 from Chestnut St., Philadelphia, to Ogontz, the spacious country seat of Jay Cooke, will begin its forty-second year Wednesday, Sept. 30. For circulars apply to Principals Ogontz School.

Principals.	*Principal Emerita.*
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Schools.

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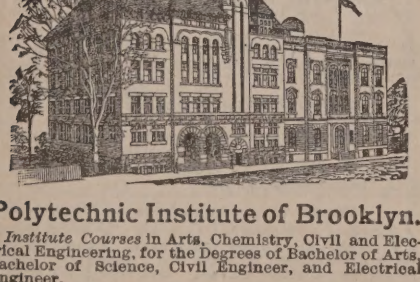

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Schools.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 10, 1891.

The Week.

THE news has come at last that the Administration has recognized the Congressional Junta in Santiago as the legitimate Government of Chili. This ought to be accompanied with the recall of "Pat" Egan, which we are glad to see even the *Tribune* has been obliged to recommend as a necessity. Nothing more discreditable has marked the Blaine episode in our national politics, and yet it seemed, when the appointment was made, as if it was a perfectly safe thing to do—that is, that, after the first Mugwump growls over it, nothing more would be heard of it, and that Egan would get back to the United States at his convenience without any complete exposure either of him or his principal. But somehow Providence seems to keep its finger on Mr. Blaine, and always, or nearly always, touches the explosive button just as the little scheme—whatever it may be—is ripe. Balmaceda's *coup d'état* seemed at first just what was needed to make Egan a success, but it finally proved his ruin at the decisive moment. That story about Balmaceda's having the Congressional army "cut off" and ready to surrender *en masse*, which was believed for two or three days, was doubtless Egan's dream. With that result, he would have been quite happy, and so probably would the "American of Americans," for what would either care about the ruin of a free Government as long as contracts were "fat" and "channels of usefulness" were numerous?

We can recall few situations in our diplomatic history which required more imperatively the presence in a foreign capital of a first-class man as the American Minister, than the quarrel between Balmaceda and the Congress. It was, in the first place, an absolutely novel situation. Two branches of a Republican Government had quarrelled and taken the field against each other with apparently equal chances of success. Neither was legitimate without the other. Balmaceda was no more to us legally than the Legislature. Morally, we were bound to discountenance him as far as we could. The President of a republic who disperses the Legislature and closes the courts by armed force, ought to be presumptively a wrongdoer in the eyes of all other free governments. His possession of the capital was an accident which should, *per se*, have counted for nothing. The Commune held Paris for three months against 300,000 men. The question for us was, pending the issue of the armed struggle, Was Balmaceda, under the Chilian Constitution, a legitimate Government? We ought to have had in Santiago an American of the best type to report to the Administration on all the law and facts of the case, and give opinions on the final outcome which would inform the public judgment here, and, if the opportunity offered, throw his mediating influence there in favor of law and liberty. What we did have was a wandering foreign adventurer, whose residence in the United States had been very brief, whose reputation was very shady, and who had made himself "solid" with the would-be dictator in the old-fashioned business way so well known in Blaine circles. The result was that the *Itata* was seized, and we were brought within a hair's breadth of armed interference in the struggle on the side of arbitrary power. For when she was seized, on the ground that she was carrying arms to be used against a Power with which we were at peace, we did not know what the Power in Chili was with which we were at peace. There was just as much reason for supposing that she was rendering a legal service to a friendly Power as that she was engaging in hostile operations against one. The difficulty of deciding which was right in a domestic quarrel between an Executive and a Legislature would have been ample excuse for not meddling with her at all. But having Egan and new cruisers, in an atmosphere charged with buncombe, we chased, and fumed, and cursed, and vowed vengeance dire, and accumulated, little by little, a huge moral and political and commercial blunder. By all means, let "Pat" now come home. He has done his best and worst, and doubtless has something to the good for himself.

We suspected all along that the English were at the bottom of Minister Egan's troubles in Chili, and now he tells a *Herald* correspondent, "with a trace of bitterness in his voice," that such is the case. "The English," he says, "are naturally antagonistic to me." For the present he leaves this natural antagonism unexplained, but we advise all those interested to make a note of the fact. It may have portentous consequences hereafter. If it shall appear, as it very easily may, that the English hate Egan because he is a "Blaine Irishman," or because he is opposed to free trade, it will be a very perilous thing to disturb him. That "trace of bitterness" in his voice means a warning to those who trifle with the "Irish vote." If the records at Santiago reveal any private agreement between Egan and Balmaceda, as the Congressionalists assert they will, unless tampered with, we shall doubtless see that "trace" become a pronounced and unmistakable "bitterness."

The past week has been full of incidents affecting the conditions of trade and speculation, but for the most part they have been of a favorable kind. The redemption of the 4½ per cent. bonds has not caused the Treasury any difficulty. The holders have been very slow in sending them forward, and there are still $17,000,000 held back for some reason. Probably the owners consider the Government as safe a depository as a bank, and prefer to let their money lie there without interest while they are considering what they shall put it into for permanent investment. The rise in stocks here has stimulated more buying than selling on the other side of the water, and this has accelerated the importation of gold, the movement of which was not expected before the middle of September by those who looked to commercial causes alone. The removal of the German embargo on our pork products is one of the happy auguries of the time, although its importance may be a trifle exaggerated. All the news from the West confirms the previous reports of the excellence of the crops, the rumors of damage by frost in the corn belt having proved unfounded or greatly exaggerated. General trade does not show much improvement as yet, but is in a hopeful way, and railroad earnings are increasing, although the effect of the new crop is scarcely felt as yet.

The President's private secretary, Mr. Halford, sent out over the country last week, through the Associated Press, a carefully prepared statement of the pork negotiations, in which occurs the following: "The conclusion was reached, while the President was at Saratoga, by Gen. John W. Foster, representing the United States Government, and Count von Munn, Chargé d'Affaires, representing the German Government, and was approved by the President. The removal of the pork restriction has nothing to do with any question of reciprocity, but is based upon the acceptance by the German Government of the inspection of imported meats by this Government under the law of the last Congress." The quiet notification that there is no "reciprocity" in this Administration achievement, coupled with the official information that Gen. Foster represented the American Government in the negotiation, no mention whatever being made of Mr. Blaine, would seem to show that Mr. Halford was speaking for somebody who suspected that an effort had been made to give Mr. Blaine credit for something which did not belong to him, but to the President.

The Pennsylvania Democratic Convention has shown itself equal to its opportunity. It has nominated a ticket which is so excellent in character that not a single one of the Republican newspapers of Philadelphia is able to say a word against it, while one of them, the sometimes-independent *Public Ledger*, says of its two candidates that they "are men of marked ability and perfectly clean character, and have been selected, not because either of them sought for or desired the nomination, but because the nomination

sought them as belonging to the style and type of men that are in the strongest degree needed for the offices named, and which are at this time imperatively demanded by all opponents of the 'spoils' system of State government." This is high praise, coming as it does from a friend of the opposite party; but the *Ledger* is no less hearty in its commendation of the platform which the Convention adopted, saying that the resolutions on the "condition of our State revenue and State treasury laws," and on the "discreditable practices under them in the Auditor-General's and State Treasury Departments, which have scandalized our commonwealth everywhere, and have cost to the State the probable loss of a million and a half of dollars, are levelled straight at the right targets." Furthermore, the *Ledger* says the proceedings of the Democratic as compared with those of the Republican Convention "were much more to the point, much more business-like and direct to the all-important home subjects now engrossing public attention"; calls the Republican resolutions a "miscellaneous jumble in which our vitally important State affairs are subordinated to puffy personal resolutions and far-off matters that are altogether irrelevant to State exigencies"; denounces the Republican resolutions upon the Revenue and Treasury exposures as "half-hearted and halting expressions," and closes by saying:

"It is indispensably necessary that the 'spoils' system shall be struck by a crushing defeat in Pennsylvania. It is for the voters of the State now to judge—now that the issue is joined as to the deliverances in the resolutions of both Conventions—which party and which nominees are most likely to strike the blow that will defeat and stamp out the system. Is it the organization that shows a disposition to confuse and belittle the vital issues in the State canvass—or is it that opposing party which goes at the important work in the clearest, most direct, earnest, and energetic way?"

The special Legislative Committee which is investigating the affairs of the State Treasury of Pennsylvania is having much difficulty in commanding the presence at its sessions of the most desirable witnesses. No sooner was it known that the Committee was to begin its work than all the ex-Treasurers still in the flesh hastened to leave the State, and many minor officials who had served with them in the Treasury followed their example. One went to Canada, one to Milwaukee, and another, Matt Quay, went to Atlantic City. As all other Treasurers of recent years are dead, the Committee is left practically at a standstill. It is their intention to serve a subpœna upon Quay, and thus give him an opportunity to obey it or to decline to obey it as he sees fit. If the Committee could get him on the stand to give a full account of his Treasury transactions, and then could get Senator Cameron and Mr. Wayne MacVeagh to follow him, we should have at last the whole truth about this most interesting subject. If Quay declines to take the stand, as there is every reason to believe he will, we suggest to the Committee that they begin with Senator Cameron or Mr. MacVeagh. What they should testify would be likely to make Quay leave Atlantic City either for the witness stand or some other point more distant from Pennsylvania.

To celebrate Labor by compelling people to be idle who would prefer to work, is one of the notable victories achieved in recent years by the office-holders in the labor unions coöperating with the office-seekers in politics. If this compulsory idleness on the first Monday of September were limited to those who voluntarily put themselves under the rules of the labor unions, it would not be for others to complain; but a legal holiday has the virtue of imposing idleness upon a large part of the community who are quite outside the jurisdiction of Master Workmen and walking-delegates. The first Monday of September became a legal holiday in this State in 1887, at the time when boycotting was rampant and when Powderly was a great man. That was a time when politicians were most industriously coddling Labor, and when Gov. Hill was urging the necessity of a fair day's wages for a fair day's work. It was a pendant and consequence of this great maxim that the laboring man should have a day of rest of his own added to the fifty-seven that he already enjoyed in common with the other members of the community. There would have been no harm in this except that there is always a loss in the stoppage of machinery and production. It was only the subtraction of one three-hundred-and-eighth part from the preëxisting force, so far as the producers joined in observing Labor Day by discontinuing labor. But in order to give dignity to labor it was necessary to decree that all bills of exchange, bank checks, and promissory notes falling due on Labor Day should be presentable for acceptance or payment on the next following day, and so forth. We have never made concealment of our opinion that Labor Day is in this particular an impertinence and a nuisance, and that the statute which makes it a legal holiday ought to be repealed. There is no more reason for stopping the payment of checks and drafts on Labor Day than on St. Patrick's Day or St. Vitus's Day.

A very destructive criticism of the recent census report upon pauperism appears in the Springfield *Republican*. The most striking feature of this criticism is the fact, which is very plainly brought out, that the Census Bureau could have avoided the worst of its blunders by making use of information that is accessible to every one. Thus, in Massachusetts the Census Bureau reports 4,725 paupers in June, 1890, while the average for the year is given by the State authorities at 5,759, and there is no such falling off in June as to make these figures reconcilable. In that month the United States discovered 1,591 persons who were in receipt of outdoor relief, but the State found that on the 1st of July this number was 14,800. The average number of the poor receiving outdoor relief in midsummer has been for the last ten years about 14,000. Turning to New York, we find that according to the census there were 2,032 outdoor poor in a population of nearly 6,000 000, while the amount expended for their relief was $571,000, which would be five times what the relief of such a number should cost. It is probable, therefore, that the number is nearer 10,000 than 2,000. In Ohio, the census gives only 553 outdoor poor, yet the amount expended for their support is greater than in New York, and would amount to about $1,000 per head. Pennsylvania had, according to the census, only 2,000 poor of this class, but according to the State authorities this number should be 23,000. The estimate of Mr. F. B. Sanborn is that the average number of poor in the United States receiving outdoor aid from the public at any one time is not less than 250,000. If the rate in Massachusetts prevailed elsewhere, this number would be 450,000. The cost of this relief is perhaps $10,000,000 a year, while that of paupers in almshouses and asylums is probably $15,000,000 additional. While pointing out the disgraceful blunders of the census, we will add a complaint that comes from Maryland. The Baltimore *Sun* calls attention to the fact that Census Bulletin No. 104 gives the assessed value of property in Maryland in 1880 at $497,000,000 and in 1890 as $482,000,000, or a decrease of $15,000,000. But the report of the Comptroller of the State shows that the assessed value was not $497,000,000 but $459,000,000 in 1880, so that instead of decreasing $15,000,000 it has increased about $23,000,000. We consider, however, that an error no greater than this must be reckoned as substantial accuracy in the case of the present census

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The excellent gentlemen who made their arguments against Sunday opening before the directors of the World's Fair last Thursday, are probably aware that they spoke for a sentiment and a generation that have passed away. There is no better way of showing this than by comparing the form and manner of their appeals with the methods used fifty years ago. The Illinois Revised Statutes contain Sunday legislation still in force nominally, though no longer really enforced, which mostly dates from about 1845. It provides a fine of $25 for "whoever disturbs the peace and good order of society . . . by any amusement or diversion on Sunday." Lest this might prove too vague and general, another law threatened with a similar fine any one guilty on Sunday of "any noise, rout, or amusement . . . whereby the peace of any private family may be disturbed." Now, why did not the Sabbath Union go to Chicago, point to these laws, and tell the directors that they must conform to them? Simply because those laws, and the sentiment which led to their enactment, and which could alone secure their enforcement, are obsolete. Consequently, the delegates appealed not to the law-abiding principles, but to the religious feelings, of the directors. But if the legal view of the proper observance of Sunday has undergone sweeping changes in the last half century, so has the religious view. There are religious, or at least ecclesiastical, laws on the subject of

Sunday observance which are just as obsolete as the civil laws relating to the same matter. We observe that two at least of the delegates and speakers were distinguished Presbyterian divines. They are therefore fully cognizant of the fact that the Presbyterian laws governing Sunday observance are not enforced, and cannot be enforced, in the case of great numbers of Presbyterian church-members. Again and again has the General Assembly drawn attention to these church laws and their continued violation by those subject to them; but nothing is ever done about it. The laws remain nominally in force, but, like their civil analogues, are dead letters. A similar state of things exists in other churches. In fact, it is perfectly idle to talk of the dreadful things which will happen if we give up "the Sunday of our fathers." We have given it up already. It sprang from and was supported by a sentiment which, in Church and State alike, has vanished.

The recent achievement of the Canadian Pacific and New York Central Railroads in transporting the Japan mail deserves notice. One of the steamers of the Canadian Pacific Line left Yokohama on the 19th of August and reached Victoria, British Columbia, on the 29th, covering a distance of some 3,900 miles in less than ten days. Upon her arrival after this remarkably quick passage, the officers of the Canadian Pacific Road determined to make corresponding speed on land, and deliver the mail to the *City of New York*, which was to leave this port at five o'clock on the morning of September 2. A special train was at once made up at Vancouver, and made the run to Brockville on the St. Lawrence River, a distance of 2,803 miles, in eighty hours and twenty minutes, or, allowing for the difference in time, in seventy-seven hours and twenty minutes. A delay seems to have taken place here, as it was reported that the Canadian Pacific train was several hours late, which, if true, would have rendered the proposed feat impossible; but, after the New York Central train started, it bravely made up for lost time. The schedule time for the run between Utica and Albany, a distance of ninety-five miles, was 105 minutes, but the run was actually made in 90 minutes, probably the highest speed ever attained in this country for so long a distance. The time between Albany and New York was two hours and forty-one minutes, an average speed of 53.6 miles an hour, and the mail was finally delivered on the steamer only ten minutes after her regular time of sailing. The average speed over the whole length of the Canadian Pacific, including all stops and delays, was 36.3 miles an hour, and the reduction of the regular time between Japan and England was ten days. By the *City of New York* the mail was delivered in Liverpool in twenty days after leaving Yokohama.

The depths of the wisdom of the English common law appear sometimes to the mind of the laity to be unfathomable. Such is probably, at least, the opinion of a lady of Enfield, who supposed herself to be the owner of a jackdaw, but who discovered that her title was only that of precarious possession. She allowed the bird his liberty for a few minutes, and he, true to the nature attributed to him in common parlance, stole away, and was captured and sold in "market overt" to a purchaser who declined, when the bird was found in his possession, to relinquish him. His former possessor called the law to her aid, but the law, through the Enfield magistrates, declared its inability to respond. The law protects persons and property; but the jackdaw was evidently not a person, and it was equally clear, according to the Court, that it was not property. Had the jackdaw been a cat or a dog it would have been different, or had it been, like the parrot, of foreign birth, it might have attained the dignity of a chattel. But, being only a native wild bird, this character flies back to it as soon as it flies from captivity. Although, therefore, the present possessor of the jackdaw has no title to him, yet he has the bird, and there is no way known to the law of dispossessing him. If the former possessor should entice the bird back to herself, she in turn would illustrate the maxim, *beati possidentes*. But unless she succeeds in this undertaking, she will probably repeat for the rest of her days that hasty and irreverent speech of Mr. Bumble, "The Law is a Ass."

One section of the new Mexican tariff, to go into effect on November 1, relates to duties within the so-called Free Zone. The reasons for the establishment and continuance of this anomalous customs territory, about ten miles wide and running along the entire Mexican-American frontier, were fully set forth by Minister Romero, in a communication to Secretary Bayard, early in 1888. It was about that time that Senator Coke and Congressman Lanham complained of the encouragement to smuggling offered by the Free Zone, and took steps to induce our Government to urge its abolition on Mexico. Their charge was, that large quantities of goods imported from Europe were transported in bond to Mexican territory, and then smuggled back over the border to be sold in the United States. The Mexican Minister admitted that a process of the kind might be carried on to some extent, though he forcibly argued that the Mexican Treasury must suffer far more than ours from the contraband trade. He went on to show that the Free Zone was a direct result of the war with this country, as it would have been impossible to support a population on the Mexican side of the new dividing line agreed upon in 1848, unless some way could be devised of equalizing prices for the necessaries of life on the two banks of the Rio Grande. The device adopted has been forced on the Mexican Government at the distinct expense of the customs revenue. The announcement that goods imported into the Free Zone are hereafter to pay 10 per cent. duty, shows the growing strength of the central Government, as well as its desire to make the most of its sources of income.

Republican institutions in Brazil continue to work with a good deal of friction. The Congress has been in session over two months, but has practically done nothing, to the great impatience and disgust of the people. The Opposition lay all the blame on the Government, alleging that it does not furnish the Congress with sufficient information to enable it to legislate properly, and that it is bent on bringing representative government into contempt so as to justify the Administration in encroaching upon the sphere assigned to Congress by the Constitution. They have publicly pointed out and denounced several such acts of encroachment on the part of President Fonseca. Indeed, many vehement speeches against him and his ministers have been made in the Senate. What appears to have angered him most was the statement made by Admiral Custodio de Mello, that Fonseca was at one time disposed to abandon the soldiers at the time of the revolution, and, but for the Admiral's remonstrances, would have done so. The President has a mouthpiece in the Senate in the person of his brother, who made a violent reply to the speeches of Fonseca's enemies. Some of them, he said, were criminals who had found their way into Congress; others were debauchees; some merely buffoons; while still others were irresponsible epileptics and nervous wrecks. This is not exactly conciliatory language, and the bad impression made by it was heightened by the speaker's introduction, on July 22, of an amendment to the Constitution providing for the election of Representatives and Senators alike by the State Legislatures, each State to be entitled to the same number.

Rumors of the inclusion of Spain in the Franco-Russian good understanding have been propagated in Paris, and *Le Matin* has triumphantly given it out that France will soon have a Triple Alliance of her own. Some color has been given the reports by meetings of prominent Spaniards and Russians at Biarritz. The Spanish Premier was summering there, and, when his Minister for Foreign Affairs joined him, there was thought to be something in the wind. Suspicions were greatly heightened when the Russian Minister to France dropped in upon the pair. Still, it might easily have been that here was but a coincidence, had not the subsequent announcement been made that the Grand Duke Vladimir was to pay the Spanish Queen-Regent a ceremonious visit at San Sebastian. When it was further added that her Majesty had ordered the Minister of War to be present at the interview, the gossips were set wild. It is hard to say how much there may be in it, but it seems scarcely possible that anything more is intended than a bit of agreeable flattery to Spain, in the hope of winning her good will. Spanish pride would be stimulated by an invitation to enter the field of European alliances, but her serious financial embarrassment would remain a powerful argument in favor of her previous policy of strict neutrality.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE STANDARD OF VALUE.

THE Republicans are perhaps at present in a little better position than the Democrats as regards the money question. It is true that the Senate, which is Republican, is for free silver coinage, but the Democratic House is also in favor of it, while President Harrison has intimated that he will veto a free-coinage measure if passed. The balance is therefore slightly in favor of the Republicans, especially since the blunder made by the Ohio Democrats in framing their platform—a blunder that was, under the circumstances, almost worse than a crime, for it enables the Republicans to appeal for votes to those who believe in honest money, and will enable them to boast, if they are victorious, that they won on the issue of the McKinley tariff. On the other hand, if the Democrats succeed, it may be disastrous for them in the national contest, for the silver-men will maintain that free coinage has shown itself to be a winning cry in Ohio, and will insist upon its being made a national issue.

The virtue of the Republicans, however, exceeds that of the Democrats in such small degree that any boasting upon their part is at present uncalled for. The entire responsibility for the fluctuations in the value and amount of our money belongs with them. The Democrats have not had full control of the Government at any one time for thirty years. They have sometimes been able to prevent the passage of Republican measures, but they have not been able to carry any of their own against Republican opposition. Thus the entire financial system and policy of the nation is the work of the Republican party. Traditionally, the Democratic party is opposed to national banks and in favor of hard money. It never admitted the doctrine that it was the function of Government to supply money to its citizens, in any other sense than that coinage was a necessary duty of Government; and it is committed by all its principles and most of its precedents against the doctrine that Government has any right, constitutional or otherwise, to compel men who have loaned gold on a contract for its repayment to receive paper promises-to-pay in satisfaction of their loans. This is the doctrine of Republican Congresses, Republican Administrations, and the Republican Supreme Court—at first adopted with an apology, as a yielding to the imperative necessity of national self-preservation, but more recently announced as a prerogative inhering in our Government, and to be exercised at its discretion in peace as well as in war.

Such principles and a corresponding policy necessarily impress themselves upon the thoughts and appear in the habits of the community. The Government comes to be looked upon as the creator of value, and as having unlimited resources for the production of money. The Treasury Department not long since prepared a statement of the amount of money of all kinds in circulation in this country at different times since 1860. We have no intention of endorsing the accuracy of this statement, but it serves to illustrate the situation. In 1860 the money in circulation was $13.85 for each person. On the first of January, 1891, it was $24.10. Since the Government under Republican management has done so much in giving money to the people, is it wonderful that the people should ask it to do more? If it can increase their money from $14 to $24 per caput, why can it not as well make it $50, or even more? There is no answer to this demand from the Republican point of view. The party doctrine, as shown by legislation and judicial decision, is that the amount of money in circulation should be regulated, not by the laws of trade, but by acts of Congress. The extent of the demoralization may be judged from the comment of the New York *Tribune* upon this Treasury statement. "The Democratic party," it says, "after sixteen years' continuous control of the Government, had provided for the people in 1860 a circulation of only *$13.85 for each inhabitant*, whereas the present circulation is $23.57, and it has been about one-half greater during all the period since the war, in proportion to population, than it was at any time when the Democratic party controlled the Government."

The idea of the Democratic party of the *ante-bellum* period being engaged in providing circulation for the people is enough to rouse the statesmen of that era from their graves. The fact that such utterances as these come from what might be supposed to be the mouthpiece of conservative Republicanism, so far as finance is concerned, shows how far the country has drifted from sound principles. Nor is this the worst, for the *Tribune* goes on to take credit to the Republican party for the Silver Act of 1890. Our population, it declares, increases about 1,400,000 yearly, while this act increases the supply of money by $54,000,000, so that the increase in currency is at the rate of more than $38 for every additional inhabitant. No one familiar with finance can doubt that in no long time this act will produce a redundant currency, or that when the excess of notes beyond what is needed for business is presented for payment, payment will be demanded in gold rather than silver. If there are too many greenbacks afloat, they will displace gold and gold certificates.

To say of this measure, as is said by Mr. McKinley, that "it will work out the most beneficial results," is to exhibit the effects of financial debauchery. No trust can be placed in the financial wisdom of a party whose leader says of this act:

> "It will tend to advance silver to its old parity with gold. It has already advanced the value of our vast store of silver in the Treasury. It has given great activity to the production of silver. It has furnished an increase of circulation. It has maintained the gold standard while utilizing and benefiting silver to the utmost extent short of demonetizing gold. It is the key to our exalted, almost preëminent, standing in commercial credit and national honor among the nations of the world. It treats both silver and gold, like all other commodities or productions, as subject to the universal rule of being worth what they will bring in the markets of the world. This is the Republican doctrine now proclaimed in our Ohio platform."

If this is the Republican doctrine in the Ohio platform or elsewhere, the country wants none of it. It is not so frank as the claim for free silver coinage, but it tends in the same direction, and it contains as much mischievous folly and falsehood as can be packed into so many words. It is enough to make credible the *Commercial Bulletin's* report from Washington that the Republicans have agreed upon a measure for the free coinage of all the silver produced in American mines, and that the President will approve such a measure. These wretched attempts to ride two horses can have but one result, which will certainly not be one to boast of. As Major Beatty, a leading Republican of Ohio, who is not running for office, observed: "If the short dollar is a good thing, it would be better to reach it at a bound than to go to it by stages. If bad, the sooner we are confronted by its disastrous effects, the more speedily we shall abandon it and place ourselves upon a solid and sensible business footing." Continuing, Major Beatty said very truly:

> "The platform that Maj. McKinley endorses, and which he endeavors to maintain and uphold, proposes to issue 5,000,000 eighty-cent dollars per month, or 60,000,000 a year. This means 600,000,000 of short dollars in ten years. Therefore, when, in one breath, he prates about paying honest money to soldiers, and in the next advocates the issue of 60,000,000 of eighty-cent dollars per annum, the most he can say truthfully is that he don't propose to give the country quite as many short dollars as some other fellow. But the other fellow may very pertinently reply that if we are to have short dollars at all, the more we can get of them the better, and it strikes me that the other fellow, whoever he may be, would have the best of the argument."

Responsibility for the standard of value is, next to the national defence against invasion, the highest responsibility that can attach to a government. Like the national defence, it rests with the party in power. It will be upon the Republicans this winter and next. They have the Executive and the Senate. If they cannot hold their own members in line, they will be responsible for the defection. If the present law brings us to the silver standard, they will be responsible for the result. Meanwhile, let us hope that both parties will adhere to the tariff issue until it is disposed of. Both have been working upon it four years and saying that they asked nothing but a clear battlefield for it in 1892. It would be vastly strange if both should abandon it for something else just as the field is reached.

UNION PACIFIC AFFAIRS.

THE affairs of the Union Pacific are at present both complicated and interesting. The transfer to the floating-debt syndicate of all the bonds and stocks owned by the Union Pacific Company changes the circumstances of that corporation materially, and raises questions which have not received adequate discussion. The Union Pacific system consists of two main lines of road through Nebraska and Kansas, together with a number of connections or branches built in its interest as feeders of the main lines.

As evidences of moneys advanced to these branch lines and for the purpose of control, the Union Pacific Railway received from its auxiliary lines, and held until lately in its treasury, a majority of their stocks and a large portion of their bonds. These subsidiary roads differ greatly among themselves as to their earning capacity, some not earning their operating expenses. Notwithstanding this fact, it is beyond dispute that the auxiliary lines, taking them as a whole, furnish such traffic to the main lines as enables the latter to meet all their yearly obligations. The Investigating Committee of 1887 found that about one-third of the gross earnings of the main lines came from traffic interchanged with these auxiliary roads. If we take two-thirds of the gross earnings in 1890, and assume the ratio of net to gross earnings at a little higher than the actual ratio because of diminished volume of business, it will appear that the income of the main lines last year, excluding branch-line interchanged traffic, would have been enough to pay the interest on prior mortgages, though leaving nothing for the Government and other minor creditors. Practically, therefore, the Union Pacific guarantee of branch-line bonds is equitable, for branch-line interest is earned by the carriage of branch-line traffic. An additional mortgage upon the main lines made in favor of the floating-debt holders would only express the actual situation more sharply, though, of course, such a mortgage would give the syndicate an advantage over the other holders of branch-line bonds.

The proposed loan, gathering up the floating indebtedness, is stated to be $20,000,000, while the official valuation put upon the securities turned over is twice that amount. How the amount necessary to be raised was arrived at has not been made public. If rumor has given one or two items in this sched ule correctly, the amounts necessary to be had have been understated; nor need we be surprised to find the total requirements considerably larger than the sum stated. On the other hand, the valuations put upon the hypothecated bonds are largely based upon continued guarantee and payment on the part of the Union Pacific. What these securities would be worth if the roads covered were separated from the main lines, is a difficult question. The syndicate can rightly protect itself against all contingencies. We may assume, therefore, that the value of the collateral is none too large for the probable loan.

The transaction appears to be legal. The Thurman Act of 1878, section 9, provides "that all sums due to the United States are hereby declared to be a lien upon all the property, estate, rights, and franchises of every description granted by the United States, and also upon all the estate and property, real, personal, and mixed, assets and income, from whatsoever source derived, subject to any lawfully prior and paramount lien, mortgage, or claim. But this section shall not be construed to prevent said companies from using and disposing of any of their property or assets in the ordinary proper and lawful course of their current business, in good faith and for valuable consideration." Under this language it is difficult to see how the Federal Government can object; the utmost that could be alleged would be bad judgment on the part of this or the former management. A year ago the Senate passed a resolution inquiring into Union Pacific guarantees of auxiliary bonds. The Secretary of the Interior replied in substance that so long as the 25 per cent. of net earnings required by the Thurman act was paid by the Company, it was not the business of the Department to inquire further. But while the Thurman act and the rulings of the Department apparently permit this action of the Union Pacific, the practical effect is to take from that corporation and give to the syndicate the control of the branch roads whose traffic interchanged with the Union Pacific alone makes possible any yearly payments to the United States. The security for the Government debt is impaired by this practical sale of the branch lines, or, rather, it would be more exact to say, in consequence of the accumulation of the large floating debt. And this is true whether the old management of the Union Pacific was wise or not in its use of the borrowed money. No more value can be got out of the Union Pacific system than there is in it, no matter whether the creditor be the United States or any private capitalist. It is, therefore, not easy to see what steps the Government legitimately can take, even granting the impairment of its security.

The debt due to the United States comes to maturity in instalments, the first in November, 1895. All impartial students of this problem are agreed that the Government ought, in its own interest, to make a fair compromise with its debtors, the Pacific roads; and also that the terms of the compromise ought to be arranged without delay, since, for financial adjustments of such magnitude, time is required. A serious problem of adjustment of conflicting interests is likely to arise in any case. Let us suppose for a moment that Farmers' Alliances or private blackmailers defeat any compromise, and that the Government must foreclose. With the outlying parts of the system in other hands, the Government could not recover its sixty millions. On the other hand, the position of the owners of the auxiliary lines would not be easy. The Federal Government, once in possession of the main lines, would be a strong party in any negotiation. The United States could not be bullied like an ordinary creditor. What could the auxiliary roads do, if the Government demanded severe terms in any reorganization? These branch roads without the main lines would be like limbs without a body, while for the owners of these lines to build their own connections to the Missouri River would be almost an impossible task. They might, and doubtless would, try to divide up the feeders among other roads, though the most natural course would be such an arrangement with the Government as would lead to the formation of a new corporation in which all interests could be fairly adjusted. In view of such a possibility, it will be seen that the collateral deposited with the syndicate is not larger than is warranted by the risk. So, whether Congress agrees upon a compromise as to the Union Pacific debt to the United States, or whether foreclosure follows, the practical result is the same: the creditor cannot recover the full amount of his money. It is this fact which is brought into prominence by the hypothecation of all the stocks and bonds of branch and auxiliary lines formerly held by the Union Pacific, in order to keep the system intact.

THE RATE OF PROFIT.

THAT it would be upon many accounts advantageous were the rate at which capital increases in production definitely ascertained, does not admit of doubt. Very many questions that cannot now be answered would be at once and finally disposed of. Many exalted anticipations would be shown to be hopelessly unattainable, and many vague apprehensions would be allayed. If it still appeared that the existing constitution of things worked as much injustice as is represented by some agitators, the way would be opened for the adoption of measures of reform such as common sense could accept; and if it appeared conclusively that the present system results in a reasonable approximation to justice, agitation would soon expire for lack of material whereon to feed. The prodigious difficulty of an investigation intended to determine accurately the rate of profit prevailing in any society has generally deterred economists from undertaking it; but where they have feared to tread, the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics rushes in, and returns with a solution which it offers with confidence to the world. Those who share that confidence may now feel that they know the profit made by Massachusetts manufacturers upon every sale of $100 worth of goods to be on the average $3.90, or $4.83 upon every $100 of capital invested.

Upon this basis, with the aid of previous investigations made by the same Bureau, a series of tables is constructed containing some suggestive comparisons. On an average, the workmen, of both sexes and all ages, employed by individuals and firms engaged in manufactures receive for their wages $362.23 each per annum, while their employers receive for both salaries and profits $517 each. In the case of corporations, the workmen get average wages of $333.22, while the stockholders receive an average return upon their investments of $379. If the employers and stockholders were entirely deprived of their net profits, and these profits were all added to wages, the result would be an average increase of $57.55, or 16.40 per cent. upon the present rate. If net profits and wages were added together and divided equally between workmen and employers, the average amount received would be $349.47. With such a division, the average receipts of workmen would be $1.55 less than they receive under the present system of employment. Even if no allowance were made

for interest on money invested and borrowed, for depreciation in the value of machinery and plant, for selling expenses, or for bad debts, and all the gross profits were then divided among the workmen, their earnings would be increased by but little more than a half of their present amount.

It is obvious that these results are subversive of the fabric of the socialist vision. The evidence is overwhelming that no government can carry on any productive enterprise at anything like the cost of private individuals. The expense under Government direction is frequently twice what it is under individual management, and we venture to say that, even under the most efficient State control, this expense is generally at least 25 per cent. greater than that incurred in the best-managed private concerns. It follows, therefore, that the attempt on the part of the State to engage in productive undertakings would be followed by speedy disaster. A loss of 5 per cent. upon the present returns would extinguish profit, and a loss of 10 per cent. would mean ruin. If all industries were monopolized by the State, it would very soon become bankrupt, for it would be deprived of its present revenue from taxation, while its expenses would be greater than its receipts. Whatever alleviation might be temporarily obtained by borrowing would be followed by more complete collapse.

While the calculations furnished by this Bureau are well fitted for the refutation of the Socialists, or Nationalists, as they style themselves in Massachusetts, and tend to cover them with confusion, we are unable to attach much value to them for other purposes. We shall briefly point out some of the reasons why we cannot regard them as trustworthy. In the first place, as we understand the report, which is exceedingly confused and repetitious, the figures as to the total number of manufactories in the State, their capital and product, are taken from the census of 1885, while many of the other data are derived from inquiries made during the past year. It is obvious that the changes which have taken place during five or six years may have been sufficient to cause a considerable percentage of error. In the second place, of the whole number of establishments in the State, over 57 per cent., employing about 25 per cent. of the capital supposed to be invested in 1885, made no return at all. In the third place, there is evidence that the returns which were made are not to be depended upon. The considerable industry embraced under the head "Print Works, Dye Works, and Bleacheries," employing a capital of over $16,000,000, reported a net loss amounting to 38.54 per cent. of the selling price of their products, and equivalent to 36.25 per cent. of the capital invested. This incredible return is explained by the Bureau as due to the fact that some of the establishments did not make their statements upon correct principles, and accordingly the Bureau undertakes to "rehabilitate," to use its own expression, this industry. But it is unreasonable to expect that science should accept statistics that have to be "rehabilitated" by the arbitrary act of the bureau that collects them. We cannot tell how many of these establishments made correct returns and how many made incorrect ones, and we therefore cannot tell whether the correction made by the Bureau, if proper in amount, is proper also in degree. Moreover, there are several other industries in which a loss is sustained instead of a profit being earned, and we cannot be sure that some wrong principle may not have been adopted by these manufacturers in making their returns. The same criticism applies to the 762 establishments that report no profits, although they have nearly one-fourth of the capital of those reporting profits.

A more serious criticism relates to the allowance of interest upon quick capital as an item of expense, while no allowance is made for rent proper, or, if we understand the tables, for interest upon capital invested in buildings and machinery. Thus, if an establishment had a building worth $200,000 erected upon land worth $50,000, containing machinery worth $250,000, and had also a cash capital of $500,000, the Bureau would allow 5 per cent. interest upon the latter item as an expense of production, and would allow no interest at all upon the plant. No useful result can be expected from such a method of keeping accounts. If the proper allowance were made for interest upon fixed capital, it would seem that what the Bureau calls "net profits" would be reduced to about 2 per cent. We venture the opinion that a still further reduction must be made, for the Bureau apparently made no attempt to ascertain the losses due to bad debts and other causes, or to determine the expenses incurred in selling the products of manufacture. It was arbitrarily assumed that these items amount to 5 per cent. of the selling price, but we apprehend that very few establishments escape so easily as this. The expense of selling is frequently as great as that of manufacture. We will not attempt to suggest any figure as a proper allowance to be made, on the average, for bad debts and losses and expenses of sale, because we do not consider that anything is to be gained by striking an average where the conditions vary so much in different lines of business. Business men generally, we believe, think it safe to allow considerably more than 5 per cent.

There are some other respects in which this compilation seems to us defective, but we have said enough to show that it affords no solid basis for economic argument. Great labor has evidently been spent upon the tables and calculations, and much expense has doubtless been incurred by the State, but the figures have no more practical value than those of a school-book. The arithmetical problems may be worked out correctly, but the problems of business are not touched. It is unfortunate that the State of Massachusetts should publish documents that can only excite ridicule in the scientific world, but it seems to be supposed by legislators that any one who can add up a column of figures is a competent statistician. A work of the scope of that of which the results are now before us, would task the abilities of the most thoroughly trained economist. To commit it to such incompetent hands as now direct it is to insure its failure in advance.

THE CANADIAN CENSUS.

THE results of the census of the Dominion of Canada have proved disappointing to the inhabitants of that country. During the last decade, population has increased only about 11½ per cent., while during the previous decade the increase was more than 17 per cent. It had been hoped that the adoption of a protective tariff, and the expenditure of vast sums upon public works, would bring about a great increase both of prosperity and population, but these expectations have not been fulfilled. Such expectations, indeed, seldom are fulfilled, except temporarily. The expenditure of the Dominion in 1867 was $13,500,000. It is now about $37,000,000, while the debt has increased during the last twenty years by $150,000,000 and is now about $237,000,000. The growth of population is not promoted by a policy of this kind, which has charged every family, on the average, with a debt of $250 or $300, and with expenses for the support of Government of from $35 to $40 per annum, while it has decreased the purchasing power of wages by levying protective duties. The Canadians had a capital opportunity to profit by the blunders of the United States, but, instead of seizing it, they were persuaded that they ought to copy these blunders, and their present condition is due to their own folly.

But the comments of some of the newspapers published on this side of the Canada line upon the results of this census may afford comfort to those who look upon the failure of mankind to multiply like rabbits as a calamity. The organs of protection of course could not allude to the fact that our own census showed that the rate of increase of our population had fallen off, except in the most gingerly manner, but they have availed themselves of the Canadian census to pour out their suppressed wisdom. One of them informs its readers that the trouble with Canada was that Sir John Macdonald tried to apply our industrial system to a country where every condition was different. This entire difference of condition is explained by the statement that Canada is not a land of many climates, but only one. That is to say, the climate of Labrador is the same as that of Ontario—much of which is south of the northern part of New England and New York—and that of British Columbia is the same as that of Manitoba. In the same article British Columbia is described as "as fair a country as nature could devise," which may be reconciled with the assertion of uniformity of climate in such way as the reader chooses. The rest of the article is devoted to a statement of the diversities in soil and products between the different provinces. Such a diversity is one of the stock argu-

ments for protection in this country, but the principle does not apply universally. Sir John Macdonald unfortunately had "no conception of the fact that Protection is a policy, not an invariable principle, and that its usefulness depends on a variety of physical and social conditions." The article, it must be admitted, is not very intelligible, but, so far as it has any meaning, it seems to be that protection has checked the increase of population in Canada—a proposition that we have no inclination to dispute.

Another organ declares that decay necessarily awaits Canada unless it is annexed to the United States. It is stated that, "after all its prodigious expenditures to attract population and stimulate trade, it has, in all its broad domains, all told, less population than a single State of the Union extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific." This strange circumstance is thought to prove that symptoms of decrepitude have manifested themselves in Canada "as marked as those which appear in an old and fully developed country." It follows that "real independence and sovereignty and material prosperity" are only to be secured by the Canadians through an incorporation into the United States. Why this change should affect the situation is not explained. Possibly, as the mean temperature of Canada would be raised by being averaged with that of the United States, an improved climate may result which will prevent Canadians from moving South. Of course some relief might be felt if the United States should assume the Canadian debt. But otherwise we do not see how the condition of Canada would be ameliorated unless by throwing down the tariff wall. But if that will be a good thing for all parties when Canada is admitted to the Union, it would be a good thing now; and if all the benefits of annexation can be had by simply removing tariff obstructions, why should Canada be incorporated into the Union? The supply of wisdom available for governing the United States is a little scanty, and if the government of Canada were added to that of our own country, Congress might not be quite equal to the increased burden.

There is nothing to occasion surprise in the movement of population in Canada. The causes that have prevented increase in Maine and New Hampshire and Vermont affect Nova Scotia and Quebec and Ontario. If we look further west, we find a rate of increase in Manitoba and Columbia that would be regarded as enormous were it not compared with the still more rapid increase of North Dakota and Washington. It has been the policy of the Dominion Government to tax the whole country in order to establish great through routes both by rail and water. But it is obvious that the transportation of grain from the region west of Lake Superior through to Liverpool without breaking bulk can have no particular tendency to increase the wealth and population of Nova Scotia, and this is still more true of the transportation of cargoes of tea from Puget Sound to Montreal by rail and thence to England by water. What the people of Canada suffer from is an excess of public in proportion to private works, with all the attendant waste and corruption. But even with a wiser and more economical government, Canada can never contain much more than a fringe of population along its southern border. Climatic considerations are against it. As to annexation, it is enough to say that if Vermont and New Hampshire and Maine and northern New York do not increase in population although they are within the United States, there is no reason why the neighboring regions of Canada should fare differently if annexed. The great crop in all those regions on both sides of the line is men, and men will migrate from places where they are superfluous to those where they are needed.

MR. GLADSTONE AND LORD SALISBURY.

It seems to be generally conceded by the English Tories that the Liberals will come into power at the next general election, which will take place this year or the beginning of next year. This concession is, in fact, so freely made that they have begun to discuss openly what their policy in opposition will be. The hope of Gladstone's death or breakdown, though not wholly abandoned, has lost nearly all its value as a political force. There is every sign that he will hold out at least two years more. Consequently, the contingency of his return to office, with a sufficient majority to pass a Home Rule Bill, has to be discussed as a practical question and provided for somehow.

The situation is for the Tories, from every point of view, very disheartening. Their expectation, after the victory in 1886, was that, even if Gladstone did not disappear from the political arena, the objections to the Home-Rule scheme would grow larger in the minds of the English voters through reflection, and that this hostility to it would be nourished by the effects of Mr. Balfour's "resolute government" in Ireland in promoting material prosperity. The discredit, too, which overtook Parnell, and the shocking dissensions, as they were considered, among the Irish members which followed it, were expected to create disgust and despair about the Irish question generally. The bulk of the Irish voters were expected to cling to Parnell with all his imperfections, and Lord Salisbury advised his supporters to "put their money" on him, that is, to bet that Parnell would carry the day against his colleagues in Parliament with the bulk of the Irish people.

Things, however, have not gone in this way. The trend of English opinion, in so far as indicated by the by-elections, seems to be decidedly in the Gladstonian direction. That is, the voters seem more and more to incline to the opinion that Home Rule is, after all, the only solution of the Irish question. The Balfour policy, whatever it may have done in the way of putting down boycotting, has not sensibly affected the political situation. The Irish voters have abandoned Parnell, showing how little Lord Salisbury understood them, and there is every probability that the Irish party will possess as much strength and be as united in the next Parliament as in this. The statistics of ten years, too, as recently collected and arranged, show that the Balfour policy has had no sensible effect on Irish material prosperity. They show that the stories long current that the political agitation was ruining Ireland, had little foundation. The truth seems to be that Ireland has been prospering steadily for ten years, and in no greater ratio under Balfour than under Morley, and that the alleged close connection between the political agitation and agricultural distress did not exist—or, in other words, that the political agitation had a sentimental as well as a material basis.

What this means is, that there is no likelihood whatever that the Irish question will in the next Parliament have changed its character, for the Irish difficulty, as far as England is concerned, consists, not in anything that takes place in Ireland, but in the presence in the House of Commons of eighty-five members hostile to both English parties, and hostile to the English Crown and Government, and ready at all times, if it suits their purposes, to bring confusion on English legislation. As long as this lasts, the Irish trouble remains, and it is now apparent that Mr. Balfour's policy has not made the smallest contribution to its solution. In fact, there was a certain simplicity in his notion that he was making some progress by the distribution of money in charity in the West, and by promising some sort of local government just as the general election was approaching.

Consequently, the English Conservatives have now to face the question: What shall we do when Gladstone passes another Home-Rule Bill? Lord Salisbury answered this, with his usual indiscretion, by promising to use the House of Lords to defeat it as often as presented, or, in other words, to make the same sort of defence for the Union as the Tories tried to make for the old Constitution against the Reform Bill of 1832. Gladstone was not slow to perceive the advantage which this gave him. The Liberals could hardly enter on the campaign of next year with a better cry than that the Lords were going to resist the popular will, for the Lords are now the very weakest point in the old aristocratic constitution, and a rising against them on a really great occasion might have far more serious consequences than any dissolution of the union with Ireland. Luckily for the Tories, one of the chief Liberal-Unionists, Sir Henry James, here came to the rescue and put a gloss on Lord Salisbury's rash utterance which has made it fairly presentable. What Sir Henry says is, that not only have the by-elections failed clearly to indicate the popular sentiment touching Home Rule, but the general election is likely to fail in the same way, for the reason that in every locality the Irish question will be presented to the voters mixed up inextricably

with a good many English ones of greater or less importance, so that the result will not be an unmistakable popular verdict on this one issue. Therefore, in order to secure such a verdict it will be the duty of the Lords to throw out the bill, and compel Mr. Gladstone to dissolve and go to the country once more, on Home Rule, and on it only. This is a very different thing, of course, from using the House of Lords as a forlorn hope to fight to the last in defence of "the integrity of the Empire," and perish, if need be, in the ruins. But it is none the less a counsel of despair. Should Mr. Gladstone return to power and pass a Home-Rule Bill by any majority over fifty, there can be little doubt that the resistance of the Lords would make the second popular vote on the measure a tremendous burst of enthusiasm for the "Grand Old Man," of whom, somehow, over half the English people cannot be got to take the "Society" view.

ENGLAND'S COAL SUPPLY.

CARDIFF, Wales, August 26, 1891.

THE speculations of Jevons and others a few years ago concerning the impending exhaustion of the coal supply of the British Isles have been revived by two important papers which were read at the meeting, just closed, of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at Cardiff. The first paper was by Mr. T. Foster Brown upon the present coal resources of the kingdom; the second, by Prof. Boyd Dawkins upon the discovery of new coal fields in southeastern England. Naturally, the second of these served as a partial sedative to the alarm created by the first.

According to Mr. Brown's estimates, there remain now but 16,000,000 of tons of coal in the best and thickest seams existing at a moderate depth below the surface. At the rate of the present and prospective production, these seams will be exhausted within the next fifty years, and the industries of England subsequent to that time will be burdened with the tax of a marked increase of expenditure in obtaining fuel. Already the supply of iron ore is running short, and large quantities are imported from Spain. But this can easily be borne by reason of the constantly increasing facilities for the rapid mining of coal.

The prospect of an enforced economy in the use of coal, even though the evil day is put off for half a century, is one which English economists and statesmen do not like to consider. Already, however, they are recognizing the importance of liquidating their public debt while the days of prosperity last, and of preparing for a respectable, if not for a prosperous old age. It is, of course, some consolation to reflect upon the possibility of unknown forces of nature which may come to their relief. Recent reports of the discovery of vast stores of oil in Peru which can easily be transported to England, are hailed with delight, even though there is not much encouragement to look for oil or gas in their own territory. But the prospect of indefinitely lengthening the period of national prosperity through the discovery of new coal-fields in England itself is regarded with the greatest satisfaction.

As long ago as 1826, Buckland and Conybeare recognized the possibility that the belt of coal-fields on the Continent, extending from Düsseldorf on the Rhine through Liége and Charleroi in southern Belgium, into northern France, might continue under the Straits of Dover and reach to the fields of South Wales. Little progress, however, was made towards positive establishment of the fact until five years ago, when Prof. Dawkins persuaded the managers of the Southeastern Railway to begin a boring at Dover for the purpose of testing the theory. In beginning this work the company had before them the discouraging fact that in 1872 another company had sunk a boring at Netherfield, near Battle, in Sussex, with unfavorable results, having penetrated the rocks to a depth of 1,904 feet without reaching carboniferous strata. But the new place further north chosen for experiment was thought to be upon the other side of a fault in the rocks having great extension in an east and west direction, while a boring at Calais, in France, had already proved that on that side of the Channel the coal measures were reached at a depth of about 1,100 feet.

To their great satisfaction, the coal measures were struck in the new boring at Shakspere's Cliff, at a depth of 1,000 feet, and a seam of coal was reached at a depth of 1,140 feet. Five other seams were struck in the next 100 yards, some of them being two and one-half feet thick. In all, ten feet of coal have been penetrated by the boring so far accomplished. The prospect of reaching many other and thicker seams at lower depths is thought to be good, since in Belgium the strata contain a hundred seams of coal, with a total thickness of more than 200 feet. The coal obtained at Dover is also of good quality. Nor is the depth at which the coal is likely to be found any serious objection. Many British coal fields are already worked with profit at a depth of 3,000 feet, while some of the pits in Belgium are 4,000 feet deep. With the rapid improvements now making in the use of compressed air to serve the double purpose of working the machinery and of securing ventilation, still greater depths may doubtless be worked with safety and profit.

The extent of this coal field underlying southeastern England is, of course, as yet unknown. Not unlikely, however, it may prove larger than all the other fields of England put together. A serious hindrance to further exploration exists in the difficulty of securing such rights to the coal that those who are at the expense of the experimental work shall reap a due proportion of the benefit. According to English law, the owner of the surface of the land owns everything down to the centre of the globe, so that a company which should demonstrate the existence of coal over that extensive region would confer an inestimable boon upon the land-owners without reaping any adequate advantage to themselves. Doubtless this difficulty will in due time be removed, and the great question of an extensive and profitable coal field in southeastern England be definitely settled.

But already the prospect is so bright as greatly to reassure the public mind. In glowing phrases Prof. Dawkins concludes:

"It is not improbable that the southeastern coal field will be worked in the immediate future, and that centres of industry similar to Liége and Cardiff will spring up in time in the secluded region of Kent. The iron fields of the Wealden area were largely worked down to the days of Elizabeth, until the fuel necessary for smelting the ore was almost exhausted, and the ironmasters were compelled to transplant their industry elsewhere, and more especially to North Wales. It would be a singular and not impossible revolution of the wheel of time if again the lost industry should be restored to southeastern England through the discovery of the coal measures which lie buried under the North Downs. Whether, however, this happens or not, the discovery of the southeastern coal field will lead to the discovery of other fields which are concealed by the newer rocks in England, and will postpone the evil day when our coal will become exhausted, and when the industries depending upon it will depart to new regions. It is likely to upset all the calculations of the duration of our coal fields which have excited so much attention."

In view, however, of the uncertainty still hanging over the existence of these fields, the more hopeful line of encouragement to the English public would seem to lie in the prospect that the legislators of the United States will continue their policy of promoting high prices in America through protective legislation. If only this policy is continued, the indirect tax upon manufactured articles there will fully keep pace with the increased future cost of English coal, and enable the British manufacturers continually to drive the American out of all foreign markets, and limit him to trade with his own countrymen. The American press scarcely gives the Briton due credit for his sincerity in wishing well to the McKinley tariff. Some industries are temporarily disturbed, but, on the whole, a real advantage is given him in the markets of the world. G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

Correspondence.

THE PROTECTION OF SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In quoting the curious phrases of the resolutions as to silver adopted by the Pennsylvania Republicans, you charitably assume that they did not understand the subject; but is it not probable that at least Mr. Quay thought that the resolutions were well adapted to help on the plan he had in view?

Here is a new article to be protected, that was neglected by the McKinley Bill. To be sure, silver has been exported for years, so that under natural and ordinary conditions we control the American market and compete in foreign markets with success, and we produce silver under most favorable circumstances and almost shamefully cheap (and they say we ought not to have cheap things); but, as the law now stands, American silver has no monopoly. Therefore, the quack remedy of protection must be given to it.

"Protection" now definitely means *exclusion*. If competing goods are not excluded, a manufacturer is not "protected." If cheap and good wool comes here from Australia or South America, the Ohio shepherd is not "protected." If excellent cheap woollen goods come in from Germany, the manufacturer in America, with his foreign machinery and foreign-born operatives, using largely foreign wool, is not "protected"; and the German farmer is not "protected" unless a duty is put on American grain and pork high enough to enable him to charge starvation prices to all German consumers. (What a chance for the exchange of two damaging restrictions for two benefits for two great nations!)

If a duty is put on foreign silver, and if smuggling can be prevented, the American silver-miners will have a monopoly. You understand the interest of the silver-miners in the matter, and Mr. Quay no doubt understands it and also its value in politics. The "protected" textile manufacturers who took such an interest in the election of 1888 and in the tariff of 1890 are rather sore over the fall in the prices of their goods that has been the sequence, if not the consequence, of the McKinley Bill, and they are perhaps not very ready to offer their money for the election of '92. Might not the silver-miners put up the

money needed for the Republican canvass in 1892, if they were promised a stiff tariff duty on foreign silver and the free coinage of all of *their* silver? This plan would enable the President to veto a bill for the general free coinage of silver, and at the same time lose no solid silver votes, and another full-grown American infant with an unbounded appetite might be "protected."

The monstrous tariff duties of the McKinley Bill were not really to the taste of the Republican party, but they were, under the circumstances, useful and even necessary in carrying the election of 1888. In the same way the free coinage of silver, or even of American silver only, is not according to the natural and sound principles of the Republican party, but what else has it to rely upon for its success in '92?

But the people who have been excited by the silver-miners to cry for free coinage of silver may not be pleased to have the new paper money restricted to an amount covered by the American product of silver alone, because they want the tens of thousands of millions of silver of the world to float in, and a tariff duty would keep those millions out. To be sure this deluge would be like the salt water of the ocean; and though it might drown them, it would not serve any good purpose in giving them a new supply of fresh water in the times when they were dry and thirsty, or in helping them to "move the crops." They are neglecting and rejecting the safer and more effective means for these purposes and needs.

Yours truly, ARTHUR T. LYMAN.

BOSTON, August 31, 1891.

CIRCUMLOCUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: This time it is Lieut. Foote of Washington who furnishes the argument. Because a lobby of pension agents has organized an army of followers to plunder the Treasury by manipulation of the committees, therefore Lieut. Foote proposes to organize another army of resistants to prevent the Treasury from being plundered. But what chance has his "voluntary and unpaid labor" against those who are working under the direct stimulus of enormous gain? Then, too, it must be remembered that the work has to be done by exactly the same methods. There is no chance for public and manly resistance in open Congress. Intrigue with committees, button-holing of members, log-rolling by personal and party considerations in the laborious accumulation of vote by vote—these are the only means available, whether for attack or defence. The scheme is so hopeless as to do much more credit to Lieut. Foote's loyalty and patriotism than to his sense of proportion of means to ends.

Instead of trying to raise a siege by a regular army, through bands of half-hearted and disorganized guerillas from the outside, why not organize the defence from inside the fortress? I repeat once more—*eheu! quousque tandem?*—that there is in Congress no official defender of the Treasury, nobody to lead the national resistance against the gangs of robbers. There can be but one such defender, and that is the Secretary of the Treasury. If he stood up in Congress, ready at all times, upon demand of party or individual opposition, to set forth to the whole country the situation and prospects of the Treasury, we should begin to find out whether the people or the Grand Army (of what?) is to rule this country. Every man who does not wish to see another pension bill equal to or bigger than the last, ought to throw his influence in behalf of giving to the Cabinet, or at least the Secretary of the Treasury, a seat in Congress. If this reasoning is sound, may it not fairly call for the postponement or subordination of all other political issues? If it is not, I challenge any man in the United States to show its weak point. G. B.

BOSTON, September 5, 1891.

NEWSPAPER PHILOLOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As I not long ago showed, the term *scientist* has been unwarrantably assailed, by the London *Daily News*, as an Americanism. And likewise an Americanism, it asserts, in its issue for to-day, is *reliable*. From its leading article on the late Mr. J. R. Lowell I quote the following passage:

"The tone of mind observable in his Essay on the Condescension of Foreigners, a readiness to believe that people were inclined to patronise America—as, in his youth, perhaps they were—made him rather too fond of setting up for an authority on the English language. He defended such Americanisms as *reliable*, and the plural of *one*, with much spirit and ability. He was, doubtless, often right. Yet there were those who could not help thinking that, if he had not been an American, he would have been less positive, and cared less about such matters."

That *reliable* is not to be ranked among Americanisms the readers of the *Nation* must be well aware; it having again and again been pointed out, in its pages, that the word was used by an Englishman early in the seventeenth century, and that Coleridge used it in 1800, as he often did afterwards. Nor is there any proof of its having been, for the last fifty years, any more a favorite with Americans than with Britons. All along, during that period, few writers, even among the most eminent, have found it objectionable; and this fact is its sufficient defence. Still, if Mr. Lowell "defended" it, where did he do so? Far from approving the expression, he has written, in the course of eulogizing Mr. Emerson:

"For choice and pith of language, he belongs to a better age than ours, and might rub shoulders with Fuller and Browne, though he does use that abominable word *reliable*." *My Study Windows* (London ed. of 1871), p. 276.

With respect to "the plural of *one*," as classifiable with Americanisms, the writer in the *Daily News* leaves his meaning altogether in the air. The vagaries of the ignorant, in point of language, whether on one side of the Atlantic or on the other, are beyond all count. We may be sure, however, that nothing of the sort had a professed advocate in Mr. Lowell. According to what has been cited, in "trees, large *ones* and small *ones*," there is a departure from normal English. Yet there is not; and "trees, large and small," if, on the score of elegance and terseness, preferable, is only slightly preferable. Again, "these are the *ones* I choose" is a locution just as common in England as in America. And is not "little *ones*" good, for "children"? In what case, then, is "the plural of *one*" at variance with accepted English usage?

Your obedient servant,

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, August 13, 1891.

'THE BEST BOOKS' AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To the somewhat extended list of typographical errors corrected in your review of Mr. Sonnenschein's 'The Best Books,' permit me to add a few of a rather more serious character, the responsibility for which can hardly be laid at the door of the printer. In several cases it seems as though notes which had been made for one author were transferred bodily to the account of another, in a fashion likely to bewilder one who does not happen to be familiar with the particular branch of literature in question. For instance, on page 750, our genial humorist Mr. Clemens, who has already received full credit in another place for his own books, is also credited with all those of Mr. Bret Harte. I noted several other errors of the same sort which I am not able to refer to at present. There is also a general lack of that accuracy in quoting titles which is all but essential in a work of this kind. On page 749 Mr. Howells's novel figures as 'The Lady of Aroostook,' which is nonsense; and, three titles below, the missing article reappears, oddly enough, in a story by Bret Harte, which is metamorphosed into 'Luck of *the* Roaring Camp.' Of blunders in names there is no end. Balzac's 'César Birotteau' is hardly recognizable as 'César Bittoreau.' Such petty distinctions as that between Matthews and Mathews are completely ignored. To dwell on typographical errors is hardly worth while, however, where there is hardly a page that is free from them. In conclusion, attention should be called to the very common mistake of calling Maarten Maartens's novel, 'The Sin of Joost Avelingh,' a translation from the Dutch, when, as a matter of fact, it was originally written in English.

F. E. REGAL.

OBERLIN COLLEGE LIBRARY, August 29, 1891.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press a 'Life of Thomas Paine,' by Moncure D. Conway; the 'Life and Correspondence of George Mason of Virginia,' edited by Kate Mason Rowland, in two volumes; 'The Renaissance: the Revival of Learning in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries,' by Philip Schaff, D.D.; 'Julius Cæsar, and the Organization of the Roman Empire,' by W. Warde Fowler; 'A History of Greece,' by Evelyn Abbott; 'Sir Philip Sidney, and the Chivalry of England,' by H. R. Fox-Bourne; 'The Industrial and Commercial Supremacy of England,' lectures by the late J. E. Thorold Rogers, edited by his son, Arthur Rogers; 'The English Language and the English Grammar Treated Historically,' by Samuel Ramsey; 'Economic and Industrial Delusions: A Discussion of the Case for Protection,' by Arthur B. and Henry Farquhar; 'The Evolution of Life; or, Causes of Change in Animal Forms,' by Hubbard Winslow Mitchell, M.D.; 'The Merrimack River, and Other Poems,' by Benjamin W. Ball; 'Parnassus by Rail,' poems by Marion M. Miller; and Pierre Charon's 'Treatise on Wisdom,' paraphrased by Myrtilla H. N. Daly.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce 'The Sabbath in Puritan New England,' by Alice Morse Earl; a Life of the late Prof. Austin Phelps, by his daughter, Mrs. Elizabeth S. P. Ward; 'The Literature of the Old Testament,' by Prof. S. R. Driver, the first volume in the International Theological Library, to be edited by Profs. Charles A. Briggs and S. D. F. Salmond; and a collection of 'Historical Studies,' by Henry Adams.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready a 'Life of James Boswell,' by Percy Fitzgerald, and 'An Utter Failure,' by Mrs. Miriam C. Harris, the author of 'Rutledge.'

Among the September announcements of T. Y. Crowell & Co. we mention Charles Dick-

ens's Complete Works, in thirty volumes, illustrated; 'A Score of Famous Composers,' by Nathan H. Dole; 'Famous English Statesmen,' by Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton; and vol. iv. of Von Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire.'

Duprat & Co., No. 349 Fifth Avenue, announce for early publication 'Four Private Libraries in New York: A Contribution to the History of Bibliophilism in America,' by Henri Pène du Bois, with illustrations of bindings, ex-libris, vignettes, etc., in two styles, on Japan paper (200 copies) and Holland paper (800 copies). The work is the first of a series and will be printed at the De Vinne Press.

A new story by Mrs. Molesworth, 'Red Grange,' and one by Miss Yonge, 'The Constable's Tower; or, The Times of the Magna Charta,' will be issued by Thomas Whittaker.

The 'Autobiography, History, and Personal Reminiscences' of Gen. Benjamin F. Butler is to be published by subscription by A. M. Thayer & Co., Boston.

F. W. Christern sends us the prospectus of a new Map of the German Empire, on a scale of 1:500,000, edited by Dr. C. Vogel and published by Perthes at Gotha. It will be engraved on copper in twenty-seven sheets, and will have an index.

The booklet entitled 'Itinerare auf der Insel Lesbos,' by H Kiepert and R. Koldewey (New York: Westermann), is avowedly not a complete itinerary of Lesbos. It has been republished from Koldewey's great work on the antiquities of Lesbos, in the hope that future travellers may be incited to use it on their journeys through the island, and do some service to geography by filling in the gaps and correcting the errors of the two maps which accompany it. It is little more than simple road directions from place to place, following notes made by Kiepert in 1841, 1886, and 1888, and by Koldewey in 1885–86 during his long sojourn in the island for the purpose of surveying and measuring the monuments of antiquity that remain to the present day. The map of Lesbos is the best that has appeared up to date, as the name of Kiepert guarantees, and both the map and the itinerary will prove invaluable to all whose duty or leisure calls them to Sappho's lovely isle.

Yachtsmen and all mariners will welcome the first part of the United States Coast Pilot for the Atlantic Coast, just issued by the Coast and Geodetic Survey Office at Washington. It covers the stretch from the St. Croix River to Cape Ann, and has been brought down to 1890.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' for 1891 (H. V. & H. W. Poor) is the twenty-fourth annual issue. It maintains its preëminence and indispensableness, adds considerably to its bulk, and continues its two series of maps, viz., the colored sectional and the individual railroad system. It is needless to add any further description or comment.

Great as is the importance of the railroad, it yields, after all, to the common highway, which is, nevertheless, abominably slighted by those having the most direct interest in its perfection. Two tracts lie on our table which deserve the widest possible circulation in our agricultural and suburban communities. One, called 'Road Improvement,' is a reprint of articles from the *Engineering Magazine;* the other, 'The Gospel of Good Roads,' is a letter to the American farmer by Isaac B. Potter. Mr. Potter is Chairman of the efficient "Committee of Improvements of the Highways" of the League of American Wheelmen, to whom it seems odd that we should owe an agitation for the simplest economic "mending of our ways." Both pamphlets have this in common, that they are illustrated with telling photographic cuts of American sloughs and European firm country roads, and that they can be obtained of Mr. Potter at the Potter Building in this city. They are calculated to work a revolution even among the illiterate.

Schürer's 'History of the Jewish People in the Time of Jesus Christ' was regarded as a high authority when first published, and, in the English translation issued by T. & T. Clark, has long been favorably known to Biblical scholars. A second and revised edition of the work, just brought out in English, in five volumes, by the Scribners, is sure of a cordial reception.

The praise which we bestowed upon Prof. J. K. Hosmer's 'Short History of German Literature' has been justified by the popular favor shown it during the past twelve years. Its use as a text-book in our higher schools has been approved, and the author now puts forth a revised edition (G. P. Putnam's Sons), not attempting to recast the original lectures, but modifying by pruning, by slight insertions, corrections, etc. To repair the omissions unavoidable in a summary view, Prof. Hosmer has added a tabular appendix exhibiting the most eminent literary personages in successive epochs; majuscules and italics serving a hypsometric purpose in indicating to the eye the relative altitudes.

Mr. Griswold has already given us a 'Descriptive List' of novels of American Country Life, and again of American City Life, and of International Novels. The fourth member in this scheme is much more bulky, being a 'Descriptive List of Romantic Novels' (Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold). The compiler's aim is still to append to each title competent judgment by a critical authority, but he has usefully gone further, and admitted samples of demoralizing trash for the sake of the condemnation or ridicule which will warn off the youthful or the adult reader. A special flavor is imparted by unconventional comments on classics like 'Robinson Crusoe,' 'The Vicar of Wakefield,' or 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' We have already expressed our appreciation of the good work which Mr. Griswold is thus doing very laboriously and disinterestedly. He is the friend of the librarian everywhere, and a coadjutor of all who seek to regulate the universal craving for fiction.

It is seldom that a critic's complaint of the want of an index is heeded, by author or publisher (for why should there not be a publisher's conscience in this matter?) Prof. A. Gerber, however, whose 'Great Russian Animal Tales' we noticed with approbation in the *Nation* for July 16, has promptly supplied "all that is wanting," to quote our own words—"an alphabetical index of incidents." It fills eight pages, and is perhaps obtainable in connection with the original, which formed part of the Publications of the American Language Association of America for the current year.

We have received the ninth and tenth yearly reports of the Bern Geographical Society (1888–1889–1890). Among the papers more or less fully reported are several relating to this continent; in fact the ninth *Bericht* opens with a discussion, by Dr. Balmer, of the physico-geographical influences that determine the distribution and movement of population in North America. This is illustrated by numerous tables and diagrams. In the tenth *Bericht* is a narrative of experiences in Canada in 1813–1819 by Lieut. Friedrich von Graffenried, as dictated to his daughter. This officer entered the English service in 1810, joining his brother's regiment of mercenaries commanded by Gen. de Meuron, and being first sent to the Mediterranean. He arrived at Halifax in July, 1813, and at Quebec in the course of another month, and first came under fire—a boy of nineteen—at Plattsburg, but he has little to tell of military operations. He made the expedition to the Red River country in connection with Lord Selkirk's military colonizing schemes, and his details in this chapter have an historic value. Prof. Dr. Tschirch treats of the primeval forest in Java, and his paper is accompanied by the most striking and beautiful photograph of a tropical forest that we remember ever to have seen.

The annual address on the progress of geography, by the President, Sir M. E Grant Duff, opens the July Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. It is followed by a valuable paper by Col. Tanner on the Himalayas. Though especially intended to show the progress of the Government survey, it is filled with entertaining facts in regard to the avalanches, glaciers, and passes of the higher mountain regions. The extreme jealousy with which the Tibetans guard their frontier is well illustrated by an incident in his own experience. In closing, he recommends Gilgit as the most interesting region to visit for the grandeur of its scenery as well as for the observation of glaciers and avalanches. The principal paper in the September number of this journal is a description of a voyage on the Benue, the great eastern tributary of the Niger, partly through hitherto unexplored regions. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Society, Sir George Goldie, Governor of the Royal Niger Company, referred to the common supposition that the people of the southwestern Sudan are Mohammedans. He said: "This is not so; the vast masses of the population—and I am speaking from information culled from hundreds of sources—are pagan at heart." The ruling races of the kingdoms of Sokotu and Gandu are fanatical Mohammedans, but the great masses of the people are, "in their superstitions and manners, as pagan as before the Fellatahs came."

Sun and Shade for September (N. Y. Photo-Gravure Co.) has a number of plates interesting above the average: Miss Ada Rehan as *Lady Teazle;* a likeness of the artist Gaugengigl and a sample of his work; a fine landscape from nature, etc. A photogravure of Miss Rehan, by the way, in quite another rôle, is to be found in the *Photographic Times* of this city for September 4.

Moriz Heyne's 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' (New York: Westermann) arrives in its third half-volume at the word *Licht.* It has already been overtaken and passed by the new edition of Flügel's German-English (and English-German) Dictionary (same publishers); but the two works are not otherwise properly comparable, Heyne's being intended for Germans primarily, and aiming at copious literary illustration. It is modelled in bulk and general plan upon Webster. The print is larger and clearer than that of Flügel. Each for its own end is a very desirable addition to the stock of reference-books.

In addition to the already announced features of the celebrations in memory of Columbus to be undertaken by the Spanish Government, we may mention the erection of a commemorative monument in Havana, and the construction of a sepulchre in the nave of the cathedral in the same city. Competing plans for both were invited last February, and now the award for the monument has been made to Antonio Susillo, while Arturo Mélida's designs for the sepulchre have been accepted. The two are to cost $100,000 and $50,000 respectively. Santo Domingo naturally takes this new slight to its claims in very bad part.

—Prof. S. P. Langley, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, has for a period of three or four years been carrying out some experimental researches intimately connected with the subject of mechanical flight. Already they have so far advanced, and the results he has reached are so significant, that he has just communicated to the French Academy a brief statement of his chief conclusions, following it with an elaborate memoir in the Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge ('Experiments in Aerodynamics'). He has succeeded in demonstrating that, with motors weighing no more than those already actually constructed, we are at present in command of the force necessary to sustain heavy bodies in the air with very rapid motion—for example, inclined planes more than a thousand times denser than the medium in which they move. His experiments have been conducted with a "whirling-table," having revolving arms each thirty feet long, and kept in motion by a steam engine of ten-horse power. With this he has compared the movements of planes, or systems of planes, and their weights, surface, form, and variable arrangements; the whole being always in a horizontal position and so disposed that it could fall freely. Further than this, he has determined the work necessary to move such planes and systems of planes when they are inclined and have velocities suitable to sustain them by the reaction of the air in all the conditions of free horizontal flight. Also, what seems to bring the possibilities of actual flying nearer a practical realization, he has made a minute examination of the motions of aerostats provided with their own motors. Many of these experiments were very striking, and bodies, although quite free to fall, were made to descend very slowly, as if their weight were effectively diminished a great number of times. The general conclusion is deducible that, whatever may be its weight, the time of fall of a body in air may be indefinitely prolonged by lateral motion. This is a very remarkable result, and shows the account that ought to be taken of the inertia of air in aerial locomotion. Thus it appears that the "art of flying" may be a practical possibility, as it has long been known to be admissible in theory; though, for man, it should rather be called the "art of sliding through the air." Prof. Langley's conclusions have, it is understood, been independently corroborated by Mr. Maxim, the inventor of the machine gun.

—That most interesting of binary systems, Sirius—interesting because of the great brilliancy of the primary and because of the significant research of the eminent German astronomers, Auwers and Peters, on its proper motion, leading to their prediction of a satellite which was actually discovered subsequently by Alvan Clark in 1862—has been the object of repeated observation everywhere for nearly thirty years, but nowhere more faithfully than at the Lick Observatory by Burnham, who lately published a complete list of the observations in the 'Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society.' Sirius gravitates like three suns, but shines like seventy. In recent years the companion of Sirius has proved an increasingly difficult telescopic object on account of its rapid approach to peri-astron, and within the last few months it has passed entirely beyond the reach of the Lick telescope, even the keen eye of Mr. Burnham having failed to detect it last December. For several years the little star will now be invisible, being lost in the effulgence of its primary. This companion revolves about Sirius in a period probably not exceeding fifty-three years, so that after its next reappearance astronomers may accumulate nearly a half century of observation from which to determine its orbit with the utmost precision.

—About a month ago M. Pierre de Lano began in the supplement of the *Figaro* a most wilfully indiscreet series of articles upon the secret history of the Second Empire and of Napoleon III. In almost, or quite, the first of these he told a story about the late Duc de Morny which was inevitably of a nature to displease anybody who cherished the Duke's memory. His son, the present Duke, took the matter up, and M. de Lano is threatened, not with the usual bloodless duel, but with prosecution in the law courts and heavy damages. It is hard to see what a writer of history, according to modern methods, can do in a case like this. Discretion, cuttings, modifications, reserve of facts are out of date, as M. de Broglie has lately discovered to his sorrow. The world wags another way now, and is satisfied with nothing less than all the facts in every case—and rightly, too. In the case in hand, M. de Lano seems in no great danger of being cast in heavy damages, for the life and character of Morny have been for long years so notorious as to be past all danger of further injury. Nevertheless, M. de Lano announces that in the rest of his articles he shall replace the proper names—when he treats of improper persons, we suppose—by *banales initiales* and *noms d'aventure*.

—This affair of M. de Lano recalls an amusing *fantaisie* of Rochefort's, written in the worst days of the Empire. Rochefort, strange to say, just falls short of being one of the greatest of humorists. He set forth at length and with illustrations, in the 'Français de la Décadence,' a method by which historians who were forbidden to use proper names might still go on with their labors. Perhaps M. de Lano has taken a hint from Rochefort, for their methods are the same, viz., to use borrowed names and initials. But Rochefort's illustrations of the method were far more entertaining than anything that M. de Lano seems likely to give us. This, for instance, is the way in which, he says, a writer of history might inoffensively describe the events that led up to the Revolution:

"When X. . . died, Z. . . became Regent, and plunged the country once more into the most frightful disorder. It would be difficult to describe the suppers that he and the crafty Madame de P. . . gave every night. These gentlemen did not think that they were digging a pit under the feet of royalty, and (so to say) setting up the scaffold on which that unhappy sovereign, whose personality we will conceal under the pseudonym of Dambricourt, should one day mount, together with his devoted wife, whom we need only mention under the name of Euphrasie to bring back her memory to every honest heart."

If M. de Lano shall decide to continue his history after this fashion, a pseudonym for the Duc de Morny will not be far to seek. He has only to borrow "de Mora" from his neighbor, Alphonse Daudet.

—Not only the *Temps*, but most of the other Paris newspapers as well, have published the story told in the *Progrès de Nantes* about the Iron Mask without any apparent distrust of its accuracy. An anonymous correspondent of the *Figaro*, who seems to be familiar with the story of the Iron Mask, appears to be the only one to cavil at Capt. Bazeriès's discovery. He complains that the dates are erroneous, the siege and capture of Coni not taking place till 1696, when St. Mars, the keeper of the Iron Mask, had given up the command of Pignerol. According to Junca's journal, he says, the man in the mask was taken from Pignerol to the Île Ste. Marguerite in 1694, and thence to the Bastille in 1698. Junca was King's lieutenant at the Bastille. The correspondent also considers it a suspicious circumstance that Captain Bazeriès has "fait trop bon marché du seul document sérieux qui concerne le légendaire prisonnier": and he ends his letter by the avowal that he believes the famous Iron Mask to be not an adulterine brother of Louis XIV., nor the Duc de Beaufort, nor Fouquet, nor Monmouth, nor Bulonde, but a creature of pure myth, who owes his being first to a Dutch pamphleteer of the year 1745, then to Voltaire, and lastly to Alexandre Dumas.

—In 'Outamaro—Le Peintre des Maisons Vertes' (Paris: Charpentier), M. Edmond de Goncourt does not give us a Japanese novel after the manner of Pierre Loti, as the title might lead one to expect, nor even the history of the famous Eastern artist, but simply a very careful and accurate account of all the known paintings and drawings of Outamaro, the first realistic painter of Japan. This book is the first of a series of works on the general subject of Japanese art in the eighteenth century, in which each separate volume will be devoted to one of the twelve most noteworthy artists of the last century in Japan, from Outamaro, the painter of the fashionable demi-monde, to Seimin, the bronze worker. As M. de Goncourt himself has pointed out, it may seem over-confident in a writer of seventy years to undertake so formidable a task, but, on the other hand, no younger man is so well fitted to speak with authority on the art of the last century in general, and Japanese art in particular, as M. de Goncourt, the author of the well-known books on the 'Art of the XVIII. Century in France,' and the owner of the choicest collection of Japanese objects of art outside of Japan. All the greater pity that so competent a man should write in so dry and unsatisfactory a manner. The book is nothing more nor less than a descriptive catalogue of a number of prints and drawings which are wholly inaccessible to the ordinary reader. Accompanied by the proper illustrations, M. de Goncourt's appreciative and often highly enthusiastic comments would be of value to all lovers of Japanese art, but, standing alone as they do, their sweetness is wasted on the desert air, and nothing remains but the ordinary tedium of reading any guide-book or catalogue far from the inspiring presence of the place and objects on which they are meant to be a running commentary. It is to be hoped that the next volume in the series—that on the painter Harunobou—will be supplied with some illustrations of his works and a readable account of his life.

—A noteworthy addition to German autobiographical literature is a volume entitled 'Aus Meinem Leben' by the well-known Austrian historian and archivist, Alfred von Arneth. This work was written and privately printed on the occasion of the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the author's official connection with the Austrian State Chancery (*Staatskanzelei*), to which he was appointed by Prince Metternich in 1841; and, although intended merely for private distribution, has awakened so great interest that it will probably be issued soon in the ordinary way and thus made accessible to the general public. It is confined to the first thirty years of Arneth's life (1819–1849), and contains in the earliest chapters the reminiscences of his mother

rather than his own. This lady was Antonie Adamberger, a famous actress and admirable character, to whose memory a certain patriotic romantic sentiment still attaches as the betrothed of Karl Theodor Körner at the time when this spirited poet and warrior fell at the battle of Gadebusch. A few years before her death, which occurred in 1867, she partly wrote and partly dictated to her granddaughter some of her recollections, giving lively pictures of Viennese social life before and after her retirement from the stage. Arneth has woven these notes and sketches into his narrative, and they form, in many respects, the most charming part of it. His gratitude and attachment to Metternich personally did not prevent him from condemning the arbitrary and oppressive rule of this statesman, and wishing to see a system of government established on a broad and liberal basis of popular representation. He began his political career as a member of the Frankfort Parliament of 1848, and discharged his duties as delegate until the reaction in Austria in February and March, 1849, rendered his further services in this capacity impossible. The volume contains a judicial account of the proceedings of this national assembly, with excellent characterizations of some of the most eminent men who sat in it, and closes with the author's return to Vienna.

CHASE'S DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

A History of Dartmouth College and the Town of Hanover, N. H. By Frederick Chase. Edited by John K. Lord. Vol I. Cambridge, Mass.: John Wilson & Son. 8vo, pp. 682.

THIS is a posthumous work. An ardent friend of the college and an enthusiastic local antiquarian, Mr. Chase had devoted many years to the collection of material, and had this first volume in a forward state of preparation for the press when death overtook him. Mr. Lord has attended to the publication of these pages, and promises the concluding volume at some indefinite future time; the materials for it had been "almost entirely collected" by Mr. Chase. The present volume brings the history down to 1815.

Planned on a generous scale, befitting the mass of matter brought together by Mr. Chase, the history naturally gives earliest attention to the person and history of Eleazar Wheelock, who, to the end of his life and in his will, consistently asserted his right to be known as the "founder and proprietor" of Dartmouth College. Born in Windham, Conn., in 1711, and graduated at Yale in 1733, he entered the ministry, and at once took a prominent place among the "Great Awakening" preachers. On November 9, 1741, he preached in Boston, giving occasion to the following entry in his diary:

> "Preached to a very thronged assembly with very great freedom and enlargement. I believe the children of God were very much refreshed. They told me afterward that Mather Byles was never so lashed in his life. This morning Mr. Cooper came to me, in the name of the Hon. Jacob Wendell, Esq., and earnestly desired a copy of my sermon for the Press. Oh that God would make and keep me humble!"

A man of uncommon energy, of a masterful disposition, and of much intellectual power, he yet displayed an amount of guile, at several important junctures, that justifies President Stiles's characterization of him: "He had much of the religious politician in his make. . . . Such a mixture of apparent piety and eminent holiness, together with the love of riches, dominion, and family aggrandizement, is seldom seen. He was certainly as singular a character as that of Ignatius Loyola." He turned to teaching, like many another clergyman of the time, to eke out a meagre salary, and appears at first to have paid little heed to the Mohegan Indians, near his Lebanon home, except as supposing them "the Ten Tribes of the House of Israel." But after his experience with the celebrated Indian, Samson Occom, whom the London Society for the Propagation of the Gospel aided, his plans and ambitions took on a wider scope, and, in 1755, we find him at the head of "More's Indian Charity School," so called after a colonel who endowed it with land having a value of £500. Wheelock next proceeded to use his friendship with Whitefield to secure considerable subscriptions for his school in England and Scotland. Finally, a regular trust was organized in England to administer the funds raised to further Wheelock's projects, at the head of which was the Earl of Dartmouth. Grave irregularities appeared in the former's handling of "Christ's money," as he called it, and his overbearing temper got him into hot water in his parish. Thereupon he began to look about for a new location for his school, which, with its endowment and English backing, was regarded as a desirable acquisition by several of the colonies. We cannot follow him in the rather sinuous course of negotiations which issued, at length, in his acceptance of Gov. Wentworth's offer and his removal to Hanover in 1770.

The charter granted by the Governor, December 13, 1769, was probably the determining motive in Wheelock's mind. He could get it from no other of the colonies. It was a cumbrous document, and, with its distribution of functions among two sets of trustees, was the *fons et origo* of the famous troubles of 1815. Wheelock displayed his customary craftiness in arranging for the terms of the charter. As if it were a casual afterthought, he adds in a postscript to his letter to Gov. Wentworth, August 22, 1769, accompanying a draft of a charter: "If proper to use the word 'College' instead of 'Academy' in the charter, I shall be well pleased with it." There speaks his secret ambition for the new institution, which he dared not broach to the Governor openly. He suggested to Wentworth that he might "Christian the House to be built after your own name," but the Governor modestly declined the offer, and the college was named Dartmouth in order to placate the English trustees of the Indian School, who were opposed to the scheme of the charter and new double organization. However, this design failed, as Lord Dartmouth never gave a penny to the college nor ceased to look upon it with dislike as a sort of self-seeking and underhanded perversion of the work to which his sympathies had been attracted. What's in a name, indeed!

A public notice, dated August 23, 1770, was inserted in the newspapers announcing the establishment of the college at Hanover. The advent of Wheelock's family and students, after the break-up at Lebanon, is thus described in his 'Narrative':

> "They had so near finished my house that by advice of principal workmen I sent for my family and students [August 27]; but when they had dug one well of sixty-three feet and another of forty, and found no prospect of water, and I had found it necessary therefore to remove the buildings, I sent to stop my family, and tryed for water in six several places, and found supply for both buildings. I took my house down and removed it about seventy rods. The message I sent to my family proved not seasonable to prevent their setting out, and they arrived with near thirty students. I housed my stuff with my wife and the females of my family in my hut. My sons and students made booths and beds of hemlock-boughs; and in this situation we continued about a month."

The hardship did not seem as great to the students of that day, mostly Indians, as it would to their degenerate successors. At any rate, the college lived and held its first commencement on August 28, 1771. It was a great affair, graced by the presence of the Governor and other dignitaries. The programme of the public exercises has been preserved, and included a "Clyosophic Oration in Latin," and an oration "upon the Virtues" which, the President assures us, drew "tears from a great number of the learned." A negro was received into the college during the first year of its existence—an augury of the liberality to his race which has always distinguished Dartmouth. On the Indians it did not long retain a hold. It was not that, as was the case at Harvard a century before, according to Mr. Lowell, "the first blue-bird of spring whistled them back to the woods"; but, owing to one cause and another, the Canadian Indians withdrew in 1777, as those from the Six Nations had done previously, and the numbers steadily dwindled until, for fifteen years after 1785, there was not one in the college. In the first year of this century, however, there was again a copper-colored freshman, and since then representatives of the class for which Dartmouth was especially founded have frequently studied within its walls, down to Dr. Eastman. This loss of the Indian clientèle was serious only in relation to the estrangement it caused among the English supporters of the college; in other respects those early years were highly prosperous. "As compared with the other colleges, Dartmouth's prosperity in numbers was greater during the decade from 1790 to 1800 than at any period of its existence, before or since. In 1791 Dartmouth graduated to the degree of A.B. 49, Yale 27, Harvard 27, and Princeton 27. The totals for the ten years give Dartmouth 363, Yale 295, Harvard 394, and Princeton 240."

Space forbids our considering the vicissitudes and services of the college during the Revolution. Nor can we enter into matters relating to the history of the town, its first settling, and attitude in the contest over the "New Hampshire Grants." All these matters and many others are treated with great fulness, and on all disputed points it would seem as if Mr. Chase's unequalled material and his evident fair-mindedness must have enabled him to speak the last word. His volume is a mine of curious and valuable information, and will necessarily be the standard work on the subject. It has been furnished with a provisional index.

RAMSAY'S GEOGRAPHY OF ASIA MINOR.

The Historical Geography of Asia Minor. By Prof. W. M. Ramsay. Royal Geographical Society's Supplementary Papers, Vol. IV. London: John Murray.

IN 1880, Exeter College, Oxford, sent Mr. Ramsay to Smyrna on a "Travelling Archæological Studentship." The same college afterwards elected him to its "Research Fellowship." He was thus enabled to reside continuously in Asia Minor for several years, his headquarters being Smyrna. He was further aided in his work by the Asia Minor Exploration Fund, but he and his wife have been much the largest contributors to the expense of his explorations in Asia Minor; and Mr. Ramsay has found it possible to travel and

study in Asia Minor throughout each summer for the past ten years. He began his work under the guidance of Col. Sir Charles Wilson, the chief of the body of "Military Consuls" sent out by Disraeli after the Berlin Congress, to spy out and make maps of Asia Minor with a view to its annexation by Great Britain. The training thus received was invaluable to him in the independent expeditions which he soon found it necessary to institute.

Ramsay's book has been awaited for a long time by the world, at least by that world of scholars whose studies or leisure leads them to take an interest in Asia Minor and its exploration. Much has been expected of him, for he has had unique advantages, advantages such as no other man, dead or living, has ever had, for giving to the world a unique book on the geography of Asia Minor. He has responded to these expectations in a manner worthy of the most exalted praise. The book before us is no rehash; it contains no matter that scholars could get from the ordinary handbooks and books of travel on Asia Minor. Everything in its nearly 500 pages is new and fresh. The material contributed by Mr. Ramsay himself exceeds by far the contributions of other travellers, but the results of the labors of all recent travellers have been incorporated into the volume, so far, at least, as Mr. Ramsay could agree with the conclusions drawn by the individual observers from the facts before them. Any disagreement with them is stated clearly, cogently, and usually with modesty. He has made himself the great master in his chosen field, and the sifting and weighing process to which he must subject the labors of his co-workers leaves as residue what the world will generally accept as the truth, or the nearest possible approximation to it. We have detected but few instances in which he claims for himself what really belongs to others. But even in his strictures on his co-workers—strictures that are sometimes severe—we believe that the attainment of truth has been his aim, and that he has no intention wantonly to wound or offend. Indeed, he makes a statement expressing his great regret that, in a work which is really an investigation, he is compelled to refer oftener to the errors of his co-workers than to their merits. He is literally exact when he says that he has to correct oftenest precisely those to whom he is most indebted, his corrections being really a tribute.

We have said that everything in the book is new. This is literally true, nor must it be confined merely to the results of field-work in Asia Minor. Mr. Ramsay has actually read the ancient authors, especially the Byzantine writers, with an eye single to the topography and geography of the country, and he avers that 95 per cent. of all the references were found in his own perusal of the original documents. Think of deliberately wading through the 'Acta Sanctorum,' the 'Acta Conciliorum,' and that long list of Byzantine scribblers whose very names are unfamiliar to most of our readers. In fact, every successive page that we read makes us admire more and more both the book and especially the patience, perseverance, and learning of its author. Our praise is not fulsome; yet we fear that many who may attempt to read the book will charge us with having misled them. In truth, the average reader will find the book dry as dust, an unreadable mass of details; but those whose work brings them daily into contact with Asia Minor—a large and growing class—will know full well "that human life is latent in every detail, and that it can be so set forth in a larger picture as to possess the deep interest of real history." The travellers who must follow Mr. Ramsay in the work of exploring Asia Minor will find, if they be but content to travel on the lines and following the principles laid down by him, that a world of labor will be spared to them. Not only so, but the progress in the exploration of Asia Minor will be more rapid in the future than in the past, and the results of travel will be known to scholars sooner than was possible heretofore.

It would be a real joy to travel with this book as guide, helper, and incentive to earnest work in filling up gaps and in exploring regions that Mr. Ramsay has never seen. For it must not be assumed that he has spoken the last word on Asia Minor. The exploration of the country is very far from complete; in point of fact, it has but just begun, and fresh laborers are sorely needed to carry on the good work. Each year that passes by, means a serious loss to the science of antiquity; for the stone monuments of the past, the monuments that are so precious for filling up the gaps of history, or, it may be, for reconstructing the local history and for solving geographical problems, are perishing every day in a variety of ways, whether by that Moslem fanaticism which cannot even bear to look upon symbols carved in stone by the hated infidels, whether through use in the construction of modern houses, or by being broken to pieces in search of the gold which every self-respecting Moslem believes them to contain.

All who are interested in any way in archæology should see to it that no summer pass without chronicling the preservation to science of some at least of these precious inscriptions. The few men who have been trained to this work should not be kept at home in professors' chairs, but should be sent out to Asia Minor every summer, and be thoroughly equipped for efficient archæological field-work of every description. The results of such work cannot but be gratifying in every way. England, France, Germany, and Austria have been busy in the field and have done noble work, each in her own way. America, too, has done something, but should do vastly more, if wealth be a criterion. Our men of wealth, if they only knew it, could bring much credit and honor to their names by sending out each year expeditions for the archæological exploration of Asia Minor, and this honor would come to them from a class that can never be brought to do them honor simply because of their wealth. In most cases, too, such honor would outlast by ages the local fame of mere wealth.

Ramsay believes that archæological evidence proves that the Phrygians emigrated from Europe to Asia, as Greek authorities agree in asserting; that they settled first in the Troad; that their defeat and downfall there served as a slight basis for the 'Iliad,' and that later emigrations forced them to the conquest of the interior, where they remained throughout historical times. His views on the Hittite question differ widely from what we believe we may now call the accepted views, as championed by Perrot, Sayce, Puchstein, and others. He does not believe that the people of Pteria (Boghaz-kieui) should be identified with the Hittites of northern Syria, but that Pteria was *itself* the capital of an empire whose origin was in no wise due to Assyrian or Persian influence. The close relationship of art and hieroglyphic writing that has been observed between the monuments of Asia Minor and northern Syria is, in his view, really no stumbling-block, for even *identity* of art does not prove identity of race, as is clearly shown by the analogy of Seldjuk art, which is purely Arabic in style. And identity of art does not exist between the monuments in question, for the Hittite monuments of Syria are much more developed in style, and, therefore, much later in time, than the monuments of Asia Minor. This Pterian empire began to decay about 900 B. C., and was divided among the more lusty peoples of the border lands. The Phrygians of the Troad fell heir to the western portion of the Pterian empire, while in the portion south of the Taurus was founded the Hittite empire; but even after these dismemberments Pteria itself continued for a long time to be the emporium of Cappadocia, until finally it had to succumb to cities on the line of international intercourse. How much of Ramsay's theory will be accepted by scholars remains to be seen. It is ingenious and interesting, and it corresponds well with the views of Puchstein ('Reisen in Kleinasien'), who claims, on purely archæological evidence, that the Hittite empire flourished between the tenth and sixth centuries B. C.

Ramsay assigns far less value to the Peutinger Table, Ptolemy, and the Itineraries as geographical authorities in comparison with Strabo and the Byzantine lists of Bishops than modern geographers usually do. His plan of work was to fix as many sites as possible from epigraphic evidence, working thereafter from the Byzantine lists and Strabo. Then the Table and Ptolemy were used as corroborative evidence and to supply gaps. The Table can never be followed without external confirmation, but Ptolemy's value is a variable quantity; sometimes he is accurate, sometimes wholly at sea, just according to the value of the authority on which he based his statements.

Mr. Ramsay has not aroused in us that vigorous criticism which he so much desired; not that we have no criticisms to make, not that we agree with him in everything, but in view of the great merit of the work, we feel that we can leave our little criticisms unspoken, our little grievances unavenged. We think, however, that he should not have published the book for a year; he began printing before he was ready for the press, and to this fact are no doubt due the numerous addenda at the beginning and the end of the book, though we are aware that it is very difficult to get ready for the press when new facts are coming in every day. To this may be due also some of the numerous inconsistencies of spelling, though we believe that the principle on which he spells Turkish names is bad. We contend that all Turkish sounds cannot be given by the English alphabet, and that one must take refuge in the German ö and ü, whose values are known to those who will use the book. For instance, both Ramsay and Perrot write *Eyuk*. Now, a spelling that is correct in French is usually not correct in English. But in this special case the spelling is wrong both in French and in English, for the correct pronunciation can only be given by Öyük. Again, Ramsay spells both *Hisar* and *Hissar*, though he prefers *Hisar*, which is utterly wrong.

In conclusion we are glad to announce that Mr. Ramsay proposes to give us an *Annual* on the progress of discovery in Asia Minor, and we hope that he may be able to present to the world before many years his Local History of Asia Minor and to follow it up with a History of the Byzantine and Turkish Campaigns.

THE HISTORY OF LANGUAGE.

Introduction to the Study of the History of Language. By H. A. Strong, W. S. Logeman, and B. I. Wheeler. Longmans. 1891.

PAUL'S 'Principien,' like other great books, has had its friends and its enemies. Its friends

in this country and in England have urged that it be translated and condensed for the use of English-speaking people. A translation by Dr. H. A. Strong, Professor of Latin in University College, Liverpool, appeared some years ago and has lately passed into a second edition; and now Prof. Strong has associated himself with others and brought out nearly as large a volume, in which Paul's work is recast. The second member of the firm of Strong, Logeman, Wheeler & Co. is a graduate of Utrecht University, and is now head-master in a Cheshire school; Prof. Wheeler of Cornell needs no introduction; the silent partner is Mr. R. H. Case, B.A., whose fitness for the task of preliminary critic of the work consisted in his "highly cultured mind, well versed in English and its literature, but new to a subject like this." It would seem that the bulk of the work of recasting Paul's ideas fell to Prof. Strong and Mr. Logeman, and upon them must rest the weight of criticism. Prof. Wheeler's share in the book (beyond some odd notes and references) is probably limited to the final chapter, "On the Standard Language," and this is one of the best pieces of work in the book. It is refreshing to find in the English editors a modest but dignified spirit and a willingness to learn from authorities. The only pity is that there is little ability shown in distinguishing the real from the supposed authority. Such a book as Sweet's 'History of English Sounds' is referred to but once, while the storehouse from which our authors have drawn their knowledge of English phonology is part first of Skeat's 'Principles of English Etymology,' a dilettante book, scientific in form, but as far behind the present state of philology as it is in advance of such books as Earle's.

The volume before us has not escaped the dangers of collaboration. The same point is treated in various places (*cf.* what is said of *of mine*, pp. 148, 153, 215), and at times differently. The North English idiom "will"="probably is" is stamped a Scotticism on page 261; but the writer of chapters 18 and 20 is fond of it (bottom p. 312, middle p. 358, etc.). The German word *Umlaut* had been used unchallenged as far along as page 190; but the writer of page 199 feels it necessary to excuse its use. In the preface, Mr. Logeman thanks Prof. Strong for correcting his un-English English, and so we may perhaps suppose Prof. Strong did not revise pages 27, 48, 54, 112, 121, 313, where we read: "Whoever hears the sounds of which the word is composed spoken cannot, etc.," "*spoke* that the, etc.," "dependent sentences may become *by us* independent"; but it will hardly be fair to hold Mr. Logeman responsible for "preventative," p. 287, or such translations as "the heads of the conspiracy were slain and their heads cut off," p. 241, "movement or position-picture" for *Bewegungsgefühl*, p. 36, or "Ur-Norse," p. 200.

In their preface the authors frankly state the nature of their book. They have followed Paul closely in the number, order, and subject of the chapters, and even in "the order in which the various points in each chapter are discussed." But as "Paul very frequently follows the German manner of exposition, first giving us the statement of abstract principles and then illustrative examples," "the order of the argument has sometimes been inverted." Paul's German illustrations have been dropped, and "everything has been illustrated from English wherever possible, and much also from French." Paul's introduction has been omitted entirely, as also "some minor points, . . . not because they were thought unimportant, but generally because they could not be so well illustrated from English, and it was felt desirable to economize space for a full discussion of everything of which English does furnish illustration."

The work has been unevenly done: some chapters (*e. g.*, 10, 16) are good samples of what the writers aimed at; others are diffuse (*cf.* 6), and chapter 17 (in which Paul's eight pages are expanded to 17) is but a string of cases with but little attempt at order or statement of causes, while many chapters show caprice in omission and addition, with illustrations now good and apt, now betraying inexcusable ignorance. A sample (not quite up to the average) of the manner in which the work has been done may be seen in the closing portion of chapter 18. In reading Paul's paragraph beginning "Zuweilen" (p. 273), a glance at the opening words of the preceding paragraph will show the relation of the two. In the English book Paul's first paragraph has been mangled, while the wording of the second presupposes what has been left out of the first. The second paragraph (p. 312) reads: "Sometimes, as in the rhetorical figure which we call aposiopesis, the psychological predicate as well is taken from the situation," etc., which is an attempt to translate: "Zuweilen ist auch das psychologische Prädikat aus der Situation zu entnehmen," etc. Paul concludes the second paragraph with: "Hierher gehören Ausdrücke der Verwunderung oder Entrüstung oder des Bedauerns, die nur den Gegenstand angeben, über den Man sich verwundert oder entrüstet oder den Man bedauert. Das Prädikat wird dabei hauptsächlich durch den Gefühlston angedeutet," and adds the examples. For this the English book gives us only examples, strung together in this wise: "Again, we find such expressions as . . . Again, take such expressions as . . . ; and again, exclamations such as . . . Under this head will come the so-called Infinitive of Exclamation in Latin. . . . This use is also very common in French; as . . ." Paul closes the chapter with a paragraph treating clearly and fully of "isolierte Sätze, die die Form des abhängigen Satzes haben," using spaced letters to indicate the subject of the paragraph. The English book leaves out an important part of the paragraph, and needlessly breaks up the remainder into two paragraphs, the first of which is, omitting examples, "Similarly, dependent sentences may become by us [*sic*] independent; as, . . . This use is similar in Anglo-Saxon"; and the second, "It is similar when conditional sentences are used as threats, as . . . or when such are set down [*sic*] and left uncompleted; as, . . . French is full of parallels: . . . [five French to two English examples]. These sentences with *that* [there are none in the preceding sixteen lines of the paragraph and but one in the paragraph before; but there were plenty in Paul's book !] are originally predicates; or, speaking from a grammatical point of view, objects. . . ."

The general suppression of examples drawn from German, together with the lavish use of French, Latin, and Greek illustrations, is not easy to understand; especially as a knowledge of German is taken for granted (p. 48). Now and then a German example (*Wo wollen Sie hin?* p. 308) is used, in evident ignorance of the fact that early English supplies plenty of such cases. The literal translation of foreign examples is carried to a ridiculous extent, for example (p. 305): "There were some of whom neither Senate boast nor the Emperor could"; "What I there dreaming cheered at and suffered must waking now experience"; (p. 334) "*der tieffühlendste Geist*, 'Deepfeelingest ghost,' *i. e.*, 'spirit'"; (p. 357) "*totum hoc philosophari*, 'all this to philosophise.'"

What has been added to the book is of little note, and is generally second-hand. There is an attempt made (p. 276) to trace the English construction "he was talked of," "an outrage confessed to," to a Celtic source! On page 94 is an excursus (from Alinkvest) on the Swedish accent, with a bibliography. At page 220 there is a long extract from the Oxford Dictionary, excused on the ground of "the unavoidably high cost of the work, which places it beyond the reach of the ordinary student." One-third of the references in the book are to Skeat, Mätzner, and Murray, who are backed by such authorities as Abbott, Hodgson, Mason, and Earle. In Latin, Roby and Zumpt are the standbys, and in general philology Byrne, Müller, Peile, Sayce, etc. As our authors betray no acquaintance with the standard German writers (other than a few that are readily available in English translations), we need not be surprised that they have not come across special treatises like Storch's 'Angls. Nominalcomposita' (Trübner, 1886), and inform us (p. 317) that the list of compounds in Morris's 'Historical Outlines' is about the best thing in that line. But we should have expected the writer of the chapter "On Mixture in Language" to have availed himself of the rich material in Prof. Elliott's and Dr. Learned's articles on speech mixture in French and German settlements of this country. Though there is a reference on page 131 to Heyne's 'Beowulf,' the writer of the chapter is not sufficiently acquainted with the book to know that the philologian does not spell his name as the poet did. *Cf.* also "Stratman" (p. 195).

But the chief aim of the writers of this book is to furnish English illustrations of the principles stated, and it is to their fitness for this task that we should direct special attention. The point of view of one of the writers may be learned from his regarding everything before Chaucer as "Anglo-Saxon" (pp. 127, 135). The examples are almost all from the three or four dictionaries and manuals mentioned above, and most of them are happy. There is much careful copying from Skeat (mistakes and all, *cf.* the impossible *scólu*, p. 233), but now and then there is a slip, as when that puzzling M. E. letter was taken for a *z* ("*saztlen*," p. 145). The writer of chapter 10 knows something about the fortunes of O. E. *g* in M. E. (p. 172); but the writer of chapter 21 knows no more than Skeat betrays in §338 P. E. E., and supposes the rule to be *g* > *w* between vowels (p. 378), and that genitive and dative singular of *day* had *w* (p. 379)! There are many illustrations of the truth of the proverb about the danger of having a little knowledge. The writer of chapter 13, speaking of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, informs (p. 222) his modern readers that *ti* in *tion* was pronounced *tea;* whereas words borrowed as early as O. E. times show this *t* already changed to *ts*, and Chaucer's spelling proves that it had passed on to *s* in his day. It is well to know that *n* often assimilates to following labials and gutturals, but it will not do to declare it a general law (p. 183); many still use front *n* in perfectly unstudied speech in *income, in Paris*, etc. It is tempting to apply the principle *a nadder* > *an adder*, to "*orange*, derived from the Persian *nâranj*" (p. 283); but when was English *orange* spelled *norange*? And how about the *n*-less forms of the word in Italian, French, etc.? On page 85 we are told that *more* is derived from *mo* by analogy to comparatives in *-er!* On page 193 we read of

"the misspelt word *whole*." The *w*, though not in the O. E. form or pronounced to-day, has an historical value, having once been sounded (*cf.* Sweet, H. E. S.). In *that there mountain*, *this here book*, the *there* and *here* are not "pleonastic adjectival adverbs" (p. 361), but strengthening modifiers of the preceding demonstratives, the use having begun with substantives (that, there!). *Perfectest*, *chiefest*, etc. (p. 154), are not cases of contamination; the positive has simply acquired a broader sense, which admits of comparison. So of the Scotch "better" = "well." And *lonelier* does not mean "more alone," but "more conscious of being alone." But there is (p. 148) contamination of a kind not intended in "Occasionally, a contamination results from the confusion of the active and passive constructions; *e. g.*, *I care na by how few may see*." Is it not imposing a good deal on Burns's good nature to charge him with mixing active and passive in this way in carefully prepared verse? *I care na by* is a common Scotticism for *I don't care* (*about it*); *cf.* Murray. On page 38 things get pretty well inverted, for there *bird* is regarded as the normal form, of which "the form *brid*, found in Chaucer," is derived by metathesis.

It would be wearisome to carry this further; enough has been pointed out to show that our guides are blind guides, at least as far as English is concerned. In other departments it is nearly the same, as when we are told (p. 388) that German words adopted by Romance languages have been even more violently transformed—who in the French *tape*, *taper*, would recognize the German *zapfen;* in the Italian *toppo*, the German *Zopf*, etc., etc.? the writer actually supposing that the Romance languages borrowed the words with H. G. shifting, and then "violently transformed" them into their original Germanic forms. After this it hardly seems necessary to point out misprints and the like: p. 57, *reputation* for *refutation;* p. 144, *Etymological Dict.* for *Principles of Eng. Etymology;* middle of p. 166, *when* for *what;* p. 338, *first-class;* p. 349, *Dutch* for *German;* p. 367, *front nasal* for *back nasal;* p. 391, *Frauleins.*

It had been hoped that when Paul's book was remodelled for the use of English-speaking students, it would be put into what the Germans call a more *übersichtlich* shape. The book we have received has not only disappointed the hope, but is in this respect not even as good as the original. The outlines of the chapters and the spacing of the chief words in each paragraph have been dropped, and thus it is often difficult to tell what is the bearing of a new paragraph until one has read it through. Altogether, the book is a disappointment: the scholars who undertook it did not have a clear idea of what was wanted, and were not prepared for their task. The want is still to be filled, and, in the meantime, instructors will continue to use the original book, in the German or the English edition.

Letters of John Keats to His Family and Friends. Edited by Sidney Colvin. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

In this volume Mr. Sidney Colvin has attempted to supply the want of a "separate and convenient edition" of the familiar letters of John Keats, and he claims for it that it is "the only one in which the true text . . . is given consecutively and in proper order." The matter is not new—it has all, or nearly all, been printed before—but all the available letters of Keats, with the exception of the love-letters to Fanny Brawne, are here brought together in a handy form, clearly printed, and supplied with strictly necessary notes.

Mr. Colvin, with a pardonable enthusiasm for his subject, considers these letters, at their best, as "among the most beautiful in our language," and says of Keats that he is "one of those poets whose genius makes itself felt in prose writing almost as decisively as in verse." With this dictum we must entirely disagree. If Keats were to be judged by his correspondence alone, without the scraps of verse which it contains and which, printed in full where they occur, seem the more wonderful from the contrast with their surroundings, he would appear, not as a great artist, self-controlled and conscious of power, but as a whimsical, petulant, ambitious boy, full of generous impulses and noble intentions, but ill-regulated and self-conscious in the extreme. His style, which Mr. Colvin compares to that of the prose passages of Shakspere is often as bad as a prose style could well be. Here and there a passage has a fine Elizabethan ring, but for the most part it is confused, lumbering, and full of affectations. His speculations on life, philosophy, and criticism are of that stage of the intellect when one is continually making new discoveries of wonderful and profound things which every one has always known. His views of politics and religion were taken at second hand from his friends, and he shows no evidence of any independent thinking on these subjects. The ferocity of the criticism with which his earlier poems were received was due as much to political as to literary intolerance, and it is curious to see on what slender grounds he adopted those opinions which excited such bitter opposition. He was thrown into the society of Hunt and Haydon and other disappointed men, haters of the society in which they found themselves, and convinced that "something was rotten in the state of Denmark" because they were not rated by the world at their own valuation; and, with the enthusiastic admiration of youth for the showy qualities of his inferiors, adopted their ideas and loyally championed their cause to his own hurt. He was a free-thinker and a radical by accident and association rather than from serious thought, but he suffered for his chance-held opinions as if they were the acquired convictions of a lifetime.

There is a type of artist, of which, among painters, Turner is one of the best known, which combines a wonderful special aptitude—an undoubted genius—with a mind in other ways quite ordinary. We do not mean that Keats's mind was not of a higher type, by nature, than Turner's, but it was the mind of a boy, undisciplined and chaotic. He died too young to have formed any definite character, and was but beginning to be a man when the end came; but genius had wrought its miracle—the special aptitude had done its work—and a half-dozen masterpieces remained. How instinctively and unconsciously they were produced, with how little self-knowledge or self-criticism, a hundred passages show. Composition was always "a fever" with Keats, and nearly at the last he could say of the "Ode to Psyche": "The following Poem—the last I have written—is the first and the only one with which I have taken even moderate pains. I have for the most part dash'd off my lines in a hurry." This after the "Eve of St. Agnes," and "Isabella," and the first form of "Hyperion"! Of "Lamia" he says: "I have great hopes of success, because I make use of my Judgment more deliberately than I have yet done"; yet his judgment is of so little service that he picks out as "a good sample," for his publisher, precisely the bit of most doubtful taste in the whole poem, the description of the banquet hall, with its

> "Fresh carved cedar mimicking a glade
> Of palm and plantain."

Nor do his remarks upon the poetry of others show more critical power, whether he speculates on "Wordsworth's genius and as a help, in the manner of gold being the meridian Line of worldly wealth, how he differs from Milton. . . . And whether Wordsworth has in truth epic passion, and martyrs himself to the human heart, the main region of his song," or gravely quotes from "Twelfth Night" *Maria's* "There is no Christian that means to be saved by believing rightly, can ever believe such impossible passages of grossness," as an argument for Shakspere's infidelity.

An extreme instance of Keats's affectation is the following from letter xxxi, to Benjamin Bailey:

> "One saying of yours I shall never forget—you may not recollect it—it being perhaps said when you were looking on the Surface and seeming of Humanity alone, without a thought of the past or the future—or the deeps of good and evil—you were at that moment estranged from speculation, and I think you have arguments for the Man who would utter it to you—this is a formidable preface for a simple thing—merely you said, '*Why should woman suffer?*' Aye, why should she? 'By heavens, I'd coin my very Soul, and drop my Blood for Drachmas!' These things are, and he, who feels how incompetent the most skyey Knight-errantry is to heal this bruised fairness, is like a sensitive leaf on the hot hand of thought."

And this, apropos of nothing; what goes before and what follows relating to quite other subjects!

As to his passages of philosophizing on life, they are too long to quote and too confused to be understood. In all things he is a creature of whim and mood, writing a really noble and poetical discourse in favor of idleness and passive receptivity (p. 74), and, within two months, exclaiming, "I find earlier days are gone by—I find that I can have no enjoyment in the world but continual drinking of knowledge"; exalting his friends and then suspecting them; loving and despising women; thirsting for fame and social success, yet thinking he loathed "the poisonous suffrage of the public"; a radical in politics, yet extremely aristocratic in temper; full of contempt for French literature, which he did not know, and for Americans, whom he had never met, yet hating Englishmen "because they were the only men he knew." As he says of himself in a letter to Shelley written but a few months before his death, his mind "was like a pack of scattered cards." He had begun to gather them together and sort them; his later letters show the beginning of the conscious, self-restrained artist who could work and wait. In his immature youth he had shown many fine qualities; he began to be master of them and of himself. It was too late; the "brief candle" had burned itself out.

Valuable in themselves, then, as literature, in spite of some noble and oft-quoted passages, these letters are not. Neither do they possess the interest of a picture of the times. Keats's life was too remote, his interests too personal, his friends too unimportant, for such interest. Nor do they explain to us the nature of his genius—rather they render it more inexplicable than ever. How this half-educated young medical student, who dropped his profession at twenty to take up that of letters, and died at twenty-five believing that his "name was writ in water," came to do, in that short interval, work which has made him a name and a power in literature, is a question which his correspondence leaves unsolved. Yet, as it gives us the

thoughts and the moods and the feelings, from day to day, of the man who achieved this—as it tells us what suggested this or that piece of perfect verse and in what circumstances it was composed—as it gives us the pathetic story of that short life, this edition of it will be welcome to lovers of poetry, and the editor has deserved their thanks. These thanks would, however, be warmer if he had provided an index, or at least a less meagre table of contents, to lessen the labor of consulting it. To ask this were surely not to ask too much of a man of the reputation of Mr. Colvin.

Sir John Franklin and the Northwest Passage. By Capt. Albert Hastings Markham, R.N., A.D.C. [The World's Great Explorers]. London: George Philip & Son. 1891. 8vo, pp. xii, 324, maps and ills.

Sir John Franklin, the youngest son of a family comprising four boys and six girls, the children of Willingham and Hannah Franklin, was born at Spilsby, in Lincolnshire, April 16, 1786. He first went to a preparatory school at St. Ives, and at the age of twelve was entered as a scholar at the South Grammar School. This celebrated school, founded in 1552, counts several distinguished names among its graduates, among whom, besides the subject of this notice, may be instanced Alfred Tennyson and Hobart Pasha.

Whatever the cause, it soon became evident to his parents that the boy was determined to become a sailor, and, as they had other intentions for him, in the hope of changing his resolution they allowed him to ship on a small merchantman for a trip to Lisbon and back. The effect of this voyage was quite the reverse of what his friends intended, for young Franklin returned more than ever charmed with the novelty of a sailor's life and bent on adopting the sea as a profession. Nothing would satisfy him but service on one of his Majesty's ships. Yielding to his earnest entreaties, his friends finally succeeded in obtaining for him an appointment as a first-class volunteer on the *Polyphemus*, sixty-four guns, which he joined on the 9th of March, 1800. August 1, Capt. John Lawford was appointed to command her, and she went immediately into active service, forming one of the fleet under Nelson which in April, 1801, made the celebrated attack on Copenhagen, characterized by Nelson as his "most hard-fought battle." Returning to England, Franklin was appointed as a midshipman on the *Investigator*, commanded by Matthew Flinders, a relative of his and one of the most distinguished naval surveyors of those days.

The object of the voyage upon which the *Investigator* was ordered was the completion of the surveys of the coast of Australia, on which Flinders had been already several years engaged with great energy and success. A year after their arrival at Sydney was devoted to this work under great hardships. The vessel proved to be in a very rotten condition, and, on her return to Port Jackson, was condemned as unfit for further service; while, owing to the want of fresh provisions, scurvy played havoc with the crew. Flinders, Franklin, and twenty others embarked on the armed vessel *Porpoise* to return to England, Franklin being entered on her books July 21, 1803, as master's mate. The training in surveying work and in devising practical expedients to meet unusual contingencies, which Franklin must have had under so eminent an officer as his commander, was no doubt of the greatest value to him in his subsequent career.

The unfortunate *Porpoise*, in company with the merchantmen *Cato* and *Bridgewater*, entered Torres Strait, where, six days after their departure, the two former were totally wrecked on an unknown reef, while their convoy, after waiting aimlessly for twenty-four hours in the vicinity, and making no attempt at rescue, finally abandoned them, and on her arrival at Bombay reported the total loss of the two ships with all hands! The survivors of the wreck formed an encampment on the sandbank, and Flinders, in a six-oared cutter, made the perilous voyage of 750 miles to Sydney for assistance. This was fortunately secured, and Franklin was taken aboard the ship *Rolla*, bound for Canton, where he joined the *Earl Camden*, one of a fleet of sixteen armed Indiamen bound for England under the command of Commodore Nathaniel Dance of the East India Company's service. In the Straits of Malacca the fleet was engaged by Admiral Linois of the French navy with a squadron of five naval vessels, but the Englishmen gave a good account of themselves. The French were repulsed and even chased for two hours; then the Commodore recalled his vessels and proceeded homeward without further molestation.

In August, 1804, Franklin was appointed to the *Bellerophon*, and on the 21st of October, 1805, participated as signal midshipman in the battle of Trafalgar, from which he escaped unscathed. After an interval of very ordinary service, he took part in the British operations against New Orleans, and on the eventful 8th of January, 1815, when Jackson defeated the invaders (a fact Capt. Markham forgets to mention), Franklin was officially commended for his gallant exertions.

In 1818, Franklin, now a lieutenant of ten years' standing, was appointed second in command of an expedition toward the North Pole, on the ship *Dorothea* and the brig *Trent*. The senior commanding officer was Lieut. David Buchan, who had already distinguished himself as an hydrographer on the Newfoundland coast. This was the initiation of Franklin into the Arctic service. A gallant but futile attempt was made to penetrate the Spitzbergen floes, and, with both vessels more or less damaged, the expedition was obliged to return to England, with only negative results. For Franklin, however, the voyage bore further fruit. A sonnet on the expedition, written by a poetical young lady, Miss Eleanor Anne Porden, led to her introduction to the gallant officer, to whom some years later she was united in marriage.

After the return of Buchan, the Government determined to send an expedition for Arctic discovery into the archipelago, then an unknown wilderness, north of North America. To coöperate with this expedition, commanded by Lieut. Parry, a land party, to approach the coast from the interior of the Hudson Bay region, was agreed upon. This land party was commanded by Franklin, with John Richardson as surgeon, and their sufferings and geographical discoveries are described in the well-known volume entitled 'Narrative of a Journey to the Polar Sea.' Space forbids us to dwell on details, and the reader may be referred to the well-merited eulogies assembled by Capt. Markham. In the autumn of 1822 Franklin arrived in England, was promoted to the rank of captain, and unanimously elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. On the 19th of August, in the following year, he married, and the union was blessed, June 3, 1824, by the birth of a daughter; but Mrs. Franklin's health from this time gradually declined. It was only too apparent, when Franklin started on his next expedition, that her tenure of life would be but short.

Though Parry thus far had failed to find the Northwest Passage which was the object of his search, he was fully convinced of its existence, and, in accordance with that belief, a second double expedition was planned. The command of the land party which should survey the northern border of the continent was confided to Franklin, with whom Richardson and Back were again associated. They left England in February, 1825, and six days later Mrs. Franklin breathed her last, passing away at the early age of twenty-nine. By the 18th of August, 1826, Franklin had traced the shore line nearly 400 miles westward from the mouth of the Mackenzie River, and was then obliged to return. After additional researches in other directions, he arrived in England, September 26, 1827, having been absent nearly three years. The geographical results included the discovery and delineation of over 1,000 miles of coast, and the scientific observations of all sorts were of the highest importance. Honors were showered upon the successful explorer. He was knighted on the 29th of April, 1829, and received the honorary degree of D.C.L. from the University of Oxford, while medals and congratulations abounded. On November 5, 1828, Franklin married Jane, second daughter of John Griffin, Esq., of Bedford Place.

After this, Franklin was engaged as senior naval officer in Greece, a post involving much administrative duty ashore. In 1836 he was appointed to the Lieutenant-Governorship of Van Diemen's Land (now better known as Tasmania), where the beneficent results of his rule are well remembered. His popularity aroused jealousies which finally led to his retirement from the post, to the great regret of the better element in the colony.

About the time of his return to England, an energetic effort on the part of Sir John Barrow and other geographers led to the fitting out of a last expedition in search of the Northwest Passage. Although nearly sixty years of age, Franklin eagerly sought the command, which was his for the asking. Full of hope and enthusiasm, he sailed on the 19th of May, 1845. On the 26th of July, the vessels were seen for the last time by civilized man, being sighted by a whaler from Hull, in Melville Bay. Opposed by the ice, the expedition wintered in 1845–'46, at Beechey Island. The following summer they were beset in the pack-ice in Peel Strait, west of the northern part of Boothia Felix, and there remained all winter. In the spring an exploring party was sent out, commanded by Lieut. Graham Gore, which traced the remaining waterway from the known to the previously unknown. Returning with the geographical fact of a Northwest Passage fully determined, they were barely able to announce the news to their chief, who was then seriously ill, and who died June 11, 1847, with the news of the successful result of the enterprise ringing in his ears. His grave no man has seen, nor does any one know where he was laid; though doubtless, despite the ice, he had a sailor's burial.

With this brief summary of the most remarkable life among Arctic explorers, we must rest. For the details and associated facts and the story of the search, the reader should turn to Capt. Markham's excellent volume, where all is told in straightforward, manly fashion, though with but little art. The book is well printed and has a good index.

The Origin of Property in Land. By Fustel de Coulanges. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1891.

This essay, at least under its present title, seems inappropriately published in book form.

It was originally a critical article in the *Revue des Questions Historiques*, and, in spite of the introductory chapter on the English manor by Prof. Ashley of Toronto, we cannot feel that it should have been offered to the public in another shape. It is not an examination of the origin of property in land, but a criticism of certain theories of common ownership of land; a criticism, too, that can be appreciated only by scholars, for it depends upon the construction that should be given to obscure allusions and words of doubtful meaning occurring in the earliest records of our race. For the most part, it is impossible to judge of the value of such criticism without examining these records; and, as this is impossible for general readers, it is fairer not to invite them to listen to the controversy.

Prof. Ashley's introduction is of a more popular character. He disbelieves in the existence of the free village community of Teutons in England, and seems inclined to accept Seebohm's theory as to the Roman origin of the manor. But it is quite possible, as Mr. Gomme has recently shown, to reject both views, and to recognize the existence of a servile population attached to the land, antedating the Roman, possibly even the Celtic, occupation of Britain. The theory of the mark as a tract of land held in common by the free inhabitants of a village must be abandoned unless new evidence is discovered, and, if this theory goes, it is hardly necessary to say that a most cherished grievance of the modern land-reformers goes with it. In other words, the period of degradation from which the tillers of the soil have gradually emerged, was never preceded by a golden age of freedom.

There are some parts of M. de Coulanges's article that are of a nature to be appreciated by themselves. His examination of the well-known passages from Cæsar and Tacitus, upon which such an imposing fabric of theory has been constructed, is, as to certain points, conclusive. Thus, the statement by Tacitus as to the cultivation of the land by the *familia* of the Germans is undeniably inconsistent with the theory of tillage by free owners, and it has been too hastily assumed that *ager* is to be translated by "common lands." So it is significant that the word *mark* not only is late in appearing, but seems to be used in the sense of boundary when it does occur. Altogether, the attack upon Maurer is a very brilliant piece of work; but as those who have undertaken to verify Coulanges's references in his 'Cité Antique' have found him not always accurate, it is well not to decide too hastily upon his conclusions. At all events, the article is a challenge to the followers of Maurer which they cannot afford to ignore.

It is but small game that M. de Coulanges runs down in his criticism of MM. Viollet and de Laveleye. The former of these writers endeavors to establish the existence of community of property in land by poetical quotations from Plato and Virgil and Tibullus, referring to a period when Saturn reigned and wars were yet unknown. The reference to such passages as authoritative is sufficient to discredit a writer even when he descends to historic times. As to M. de Laveleye, his method, not to say his mind, is so essentially superficial that it is almost cruel to subject his writings to any of the tests of scholarship. Yet, after all, M. de Coulanges does not show that there was not a period when land was owned in common. He draws a distinction between the ownership of the family and that of the community; but if he admits the one, he establishes a certain probability of the other. At the same time we must allow the force of his contention that "property may be a primordial fact, contemporaneous with the earliest cultivation of the soil, natural to man, produced by an instinctive recognition of his interests, and closely bound up with the primitive constitution of the family." His criticism deserves the careful examination of all who have access to the authorities to whom he refers.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives Relating to America. 1773–1783. Vol. IX. Nos. 850-919. London: B. F. Stevens.

To read the Stevens manuscripts is a labor of Sisyphus. In the eighth volume we seemed to have rolled this voluminous correspondence over rocks and bogs as far uphill as the year 1778; and here, with the ninth, we are down in 1775 again. But this volume is easier reading than some of its predecessors. It contains many letters of Beaumarchais, and that arch-conspirator was a far more amusing person than Wentworth, and Hynson, and Lupton, and Dr. Bancroft; and his morals were far more savory than theirs. He was not betraying anybody, and his lies were not blacker but only more picturesque than those which they sold week by week to their employers.

The most entertaining thing in this volume is Beaumarchais's answer to Dr. Barbeu-Dubourg. The letter was published so many years ago by Loménie that it may well be forgotten by this time. Dubourg was a friend of Dr. Franklin, and had taken, from an early date, a great interest in the cause of the American colonists. When he learned that the French ministers had intrusted to Beaumarchais the whole management of commercial relations with the insurgents, he was shocked and disappointed. He immediately wrote to the Count of Vergennes (July 13, 1776):

"I have seen M. de Beaumarchais this morning, and, seeing myself expressly authorized by you, I have willingly conferred with him without reserve. Everybody knows his wit, his talents, and no one does more justice than I to his honesty, his discretion, his zeal for all that is great and good; I believe him one of the best fitted men in the world for political negotiations, but perhaps at the same time one of those least fitted for mercantile transactions. He loves display, they say that he keeps women, he has the reputation of a spendthrift, and there is no merchant nor manufacturer in France that has not this idea of him, and that would not hesitate much before having any commercial business with him whatsoever" . . . (881).

This letter was shown by the Count to Beaumarchais, and brought forth the following answer:

"Tuesday, 16th July, 1776.

"Until the Count of Vergennes showed me your letter, Sir, it was impossible for me to seize the true meaning of that with which you have honored me. This gentleman *who will not and cannot undertake anything with me*, was something inexplicable. I now understand very well that you wanted to take time to write to the Minister about me; but to receive true ideas from him, was it quite necessary to present him with false ones? Indeed, what difference does it make in our business if I am a man widely known, fond of display, and who keeps women, &c.?

"The women that I have kept for the last twenty years, Sir, are your very humble servants. They were five, four sisters and a niece of my own. Within three years two of these kept women have died, to my great regret. I now keep only three, two sisters and my niece, which is yet tolerably extravagant for a private person like myself. But what would you have thought, if, better acquainted with me, you had known that I pushed my scandalous conduct so far as to keep men too?—two nephews, very young and rather good-looking, and even the too unhappy father who brought into the world so scandalous a keeper. As for my display, it's much worse yet. For three years, thinking laces and embroidered clothes too mean for my vanity, have I not affected the pride of having my wrists ever adorned with the finest plain muslin? The most splendid black cloth is not too fine for me; sometimes even I have been seen to push my dandyism so far as silk, in very hot weather. But I beg you, Sir, not to go and write these things to the Count of Vergennes; you would end by ruining me entirely in his mind.

"You had your reasons for writing him evil of me, although you do not know me; I have mine not to take offence at it, although I have the honor of knowing you.

"You are, Sir, an honest man, so enflamed with the desire to do a great good that you thought you might allow yourself a little evil to accomplish it.

"This morality is not exactly that of the Gospels, but I have known many people to make up their minds to it. It is even in this way that, to effect the conversion of the Pagans, the Fathers of the Church sometimes allowed themselves doubtful quotations, holy calumnies, which among themselves they called pious frauds.

"Let us stop jesting. I am not put out, because Monsieur de Vergennes is not a small man and I abide by his answer. Let those of whom I ask advances in business mistrust me; I consent. But let those who are animated with true zeal for the common friends who are concerned, look twice before they part company with an honorable man who offers to render all the services and to make all the advances useful to these same friends. Do you understand me now, Sir?

"I shall have the honor to see you this afternoon early enough to find you still together.

"I have that of being, with the highest consideration, Sir,

"Your very humble and very obedient servant, well known to you by the name of

"Roderigue Hortalez et Compie."(882.)

We have thus seen Beaumarchais engaged in controversy. Let us now contemplate him furnishing the Minister with news. We shall marvel at the kind of information on which governments had to act in the last century:

"Paris, 25th September, 1776.

"Monsieur le Comte:

"I am more unfortunate than Cassandra, whose prophecies no one believed; because she always announced misfortunes. As for me, I announce only good things, and they say that I realize the flights of my heated imagination. I predicted that the Americans would be conquerors, and soon delivered from the English; and people smiled at my security. I predicted that if there were an action at New York and the loss were even equal on both sides, the difference of situation would multiply it a hundred fold for the English; and they shook their heads at my calculation. I said that General Burgoigne, on bad terms with Carleton, could not pass the lakes for more than four months, and they doubted my prediction.

"Let us, then, support our conjectures by some bits of news recently arrived.

"Nantz, 22d September.

"By a ship arrived day before yesterday, and come in 26 days from Nantucket in the island of Rodes, we have received the important news:

"(1.) That the Congress is still sitting at Philadelphia and does not think of leaving there.

"(2.) That the Americans declared their independence on the 4th of July, and have not changed their minds since. . . .

"(5.) That the Americans have seized the two important fortresses of Crown Point and Ticonderoga; that they there await Gen. Burgoigne, who is master of Montreal, but who cannot yet push on his attack because he is in need of boats to cross the lakes, which will freeze while they are building.

"(6.) That on the 12th or 13th of August a very bloody engagement took place at New York between the two parties, of which the following is the detailed account: Gen. Howe being encamped on Staten Island in sight of His Excellency Gen. Washington, who was on Long Island, and having resolved to attack Gen. Washington, feigned to disembark his troops on one side of the island, and disembarked the greater part of them on another. These men seized a rising ground, and surrounded the American army. After the two contestants had thus fought for a very long time, the American generals perceived that their troops would suffer terribly in this sort of blockade, unless they made a vigorous manœu-

vre which should give them back the advantage of position. Immediately they encouraged their soldiers to throw themselves on the English, sword in hand, and to make way through their army; which they did with terrible courage, and, having broken through the troops that surrounded them, attacked them in the rear, put them to rout, and forced them to retire precipitately to their vessels. The loss is about equal on both sides, and amounts to eleven thousand men, both English and Americans. But the latter have taken prisoner three generals, fifteen officers of rank, several officers of artillery, and a great number of others, and many English soldiers." . . . (898).

We have had occasion to speak before of the carelessness sometimes shown in translating these letters. It appears more in occasional blunders of a rather serious character than in the ordinary course of translation, which is reasonably good. Thus we have in this volume (881) "M^rs de Lauraguais et Le Roy," rendered "M. de Lauraguais. and the King," when a moment's thought should have warned the translator that His Most Christian Majesty would hardly be brought into a letter to one of his ministers at the tail of a subject in that way, and a second thought might have told him that the article in front of the King's name is not usually capitalized. Monsieur Le Roy is, in fact, as common a name in France as Mr. King is with us. We should like also to know the translator's warrant for rendering "officiers majors" as "commissioned officers" (898).

Lewis Cass. By Andrew C. McLaughlin, Assistant Professor of History in the University of Michigan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 16mo, pp. ix, 357.

In the "American Statesmen Series" the life of Lewis Cass could not well be omitted, for he was a figure of undeniable prominence among the politicians of the generation preceding the civil war. Yet it is doubtful if the intrinsic interest of his public career makes a volume in excess of three hundred pages a memorial proportioned to the permanent place he will occupy in our history. A full article in a biographical encyclopædia would afford room for a sketch which should do justice to his character and services to the country; but in so busy a time as this, one feels a little overtaxed in reading a volume in which it does not appear that in any important juncture Cass's influence was a dominant one.

By far the most attractive and the most fruitful part of his life was the earlier period when, as Colonel in the War of 1812, and as Governor of the Territory of Michigan, he showed a manly vigor and an intelligent initiative in affairs that warranted the high reputation which he brought into national politics when he entered the Cabinet of Jackson in 1831. His explorations in the wilderness of the Northwest, and his wise and courageous dealings with the Indian tribes, had a tinge of the romantic and adventurous which will always make an attractive chapter in the history of advancing civilization on the continent. It is not improbable that, a few generations hence, he will be better known as an administrator and explorer of the frontier than as Cabinet Minister, Senator, or diplomat. A place beside Champlain and Marquette would not be an ignoble one in our annals, even if it be not that to which Cass and his closest circle of friends thought him entitled.

In spite of all ingenious efforts to magnify the importance of his national career, Cass must remain one of that unhappy class of Northern politicians who were not able to forecast the future of the country, and who were chained, by fetters which they could not break, to a cause inevitably doomed by the advancing enlightenment and awakening conscience of the age. They were at war with manifest destiny, and no matter how much learning or kind-heartedness or honesty they had, they must bear the burden of having sought to stop the moral progress of their time, and to defeat the cause of free labor and free thought when the States and communities of which they were the official representatives were the most brilliant examples of the power and value of freedom. Posterity will have deaf ears when it is argued that they were not blinded by ambition and narrow partisanship. Prof. McLaughlin's own sympathies are so strongly with the cause that triumphed that, in reading his pages, one feels his apologies and his glosses to be labored. The sympathy he feels for a man of considerable ability, of honorable and successful private life, of kindly and hospitable nature, disarms his criticism, and he glides, perhaps unconsciously, into the rôle of the advocate pleading for a favorable judgment.

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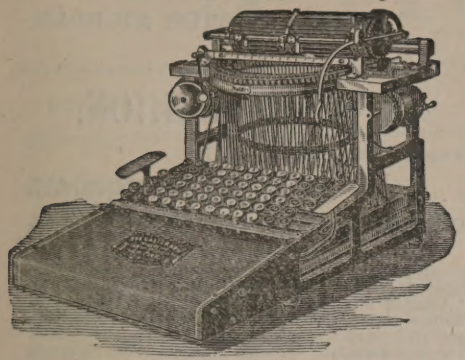

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THE MISSES HEBB'S ENGLISH. French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and girls reopens September 22, 1891.

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Schools.

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Schools.

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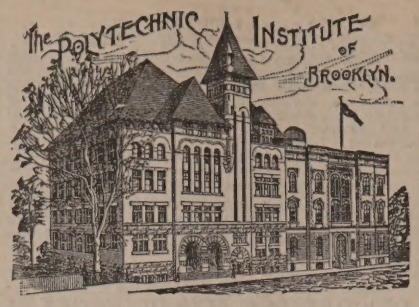
Schools.



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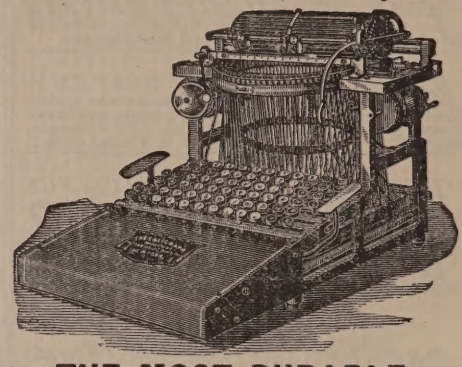

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 17, 1891.

The Week.

THE case against the *Itata* has been formally abandoned, as a matter of course, owing not only to the change in the situation in Chili, but to the better information about it now possessed by our Government. As a matter of fact, the charge on which Don Ricardo Trumbull was indicted, that of "fitting out or arming a vessel to cruise or commit hostilities against the subjects, citizens, or property of any foreign prince or State, or any colony, district, or people with whom the United States were at peace," is just as good now as it ever was. Balmaceda, at the time of the offence, either was or was not "a prince or State, colony, district, or people with whom the United States were at peace." If he was, his defeat and expulsion from Chili since that time does not affect the question of Trumbull's guilt, and the prosecution ought to go on. But the trouble with which the Administration would have had to contend on the trial, and which they now see would have knocked the prosecution into smithereens, is that Balmaceda was not, when the *Itata* was seized, either a prince, or State, colony, district, or people. He was simply a Chilian criminal in revolt against his own Government, aggravated by robbery and murder. He had no legal standing of any description in his own country. It was the duty of every Chilian, under the Constitution, to do what he could to arrest and bring him to justice. These patent facts "Pat" Egan, our Minister, ought to have reported promptly to the State Department, and so have prevented the seizure and pursuit of the *Itata*, which was the property, and was engaged in the service of, a friendly State, then occupied, under very trying circumstances, in defending its Constitution and laws against a powerful and treacherous brigand. The position of the Administration now in abandoning the prosecution is a very humiliating one; but if it teaches our rulers the need of more care and deliberation in the management of foreign relations and in the use of our new cruisers, the lesson will not be dearly bought.

The issue of $27,000,000 of irredeemable paper through Balmaceda during his short reign is one of the most serious facts in the present situation in Chili. Both banks and individuals within his jurisdiction had to accept it, on pain of being shot or locked up, so that its repudiation now would have put a very great obstacle in the way of a restoration of confidence, and it is fortunate that the new Government has determined to recognize and redeem it. According to the *Herald's* news, Egan continues to show a front of steel to the British, who are trying in vain to diminish his beneficent influence. It appears it was in order to get ahead of him that the British man-of-war undertook to carry that silver to London for Balmaceda. Doubtless other underhand attempts from the same quarter will be brought to light to depreciate him every few days. In spite of this British malignity, however, it still appears plain that Egan ought to come home promptly. It is of the utmost importance to the commercial and moral interests of the United States that, during this period of reorganization in Chili, they should be represented by some one who has no apologies to make for anything in his past career, who is really an educated American of high character and standing, and who will be recognized as such by Chilian public men. Egan can never in their eyes have any real weight. He is only an American in name; his reputation is damaged, and he is an ignorant and illiterate man in a community in which the political class are still men of culture and refinement. It is only as "a Blaine Irishman" that he is any way eminent, and this type of humanity commands but little respect outside the *Tribune* office and Bar Harbor.

The Democrats of Pennsylvania are taking as their motto for the campaign in and about Philadelphia "Thou Shalt Not Steal," and are making a perceptible impression with it. There are many Republican efforts to be humorous over the spectacle of the Democratic politicians going to the Ten Commandments for their campaign ammunition, but they are not especially successful. Surely no community was ever in greater need of being reminded of the existence of this fundamental law of public and private morality than Philadelphia is to-day. Not only has the city been robbed of several millions of dollars, but its leading newspapers have been caught sharing some of the plunder with the chief thief, and the power of its leading citizens is used to prevent all thorough examination into the matter. The position of the great body of the intelligence and virtue of the community appears to be that stealing which is done by good and pious men ought not to be either exposed or punished, if it is possible to keep it hidden, since the exposure might seriously disturb both the moral and commercial stability of the community. The Democrats, therefore, in preaching the abstract immorality of theft, are doing most important missionary work.

The reports that Secretary Foster has been holding back payments on all the regular appropriations, in order to scrape together enough money to redeem the 4½ per cent. bonds, are fully borne out by the statement of the receipts and expenditures of the Treasury for August. The receipts show a marked falling off, being $28,884,851, compared with the $36,607,449 of August, 1890, and the even higher figures for July and June of last year. Yet, by screwing down the expenses to $20,738,020, Mr. Foster gets a comfortable balance to apply to redemption of bonds. But how was this balance obtained? The figures tell their own story. Nearly $6,000,000 are knocked off the customary payments under the head of "Civil and Miscellaneous," at least a million more off the appropriations for "War," a good sum taken out of the money voted the Indians, and—tell it not to the makers of Republican platforms—from eight to ten millions from that sacred fund which pays for "Pensions." Think of a beggarly $5,094,323 paid out for pensions in August! What becomes of "Republican generosity" to the old soldier, in view of such a whittling down from the good, hearty present of $13,000,000 in July, $18,000,000 in August of last year, and $21,000,000 last November? Secretary Foster will have to do better than this, or the Republican campaigners will find their arguments running low. His monthly statements have degenerated into a mystification, but the record of the actual operations of the Treasury shows how matters really stand. It proves that the receipts have fallen behind expenses since the McKinley Bill went into force. The balance on the wrong side was about $3,000,000 up to the end of July, and would have been six or seven millions higher in August alone if the average monthly payments had not been held up. When we get the September showing, with the outlay for bond redemption added in, we shall doubtless have a new proof that time was all that was needed to show the supernatural wisdom of the McKinley Bill.

One of the most rascally clauses in the McKinley tariff is that relating to pocket cutlery, the duty upon which was increased to 74, 83, and 116 per cent., according to quality. The duty, before McKinley took it in hand, was 50 per cent. ad valorem, which was itself an unconscionable outrage upon the buyers of jack-knives. McKinley added a specific duty to the ad-valorem, which is equivalent to the foregoing percentages. Since the new tariff went into effect, the manufacturers have held meetings in this city about once a month to put up prices, and have advanced them about 40 per cent. on some kinds of goods. Although they have not organized a Trust, their concerted action has the same effect on the public. And now "An Interested Observer" writes a very misleading article in *Bradstreet's* to justify the advance in the price of jack-knives. Before the passage of the bill, he tells us, the manufacturers were selling thousands of dozens of these knives at a loss of 25 per cent. Poor things! Why did they go on year after year increasing their production and their losses? That they did increase their production is evident.

According to their own statement their production of this kind of knives in 1882 was of the value of	$1,320,000
The imports (including duty) were	1,857,297
Consumption for 1882	$3,177,297

The increase in consumption must have been as much as 2½ per cent. per annum, or an increase of 15 per cent. in six years (1882 to 1887 inclusive). Now, the importation of these goods did not increase, but slightly declined during this interval. Therefore the natural increase in consumption must have been supplied by the domestic manufacturers, and this increase could not have been less than $500,000 per annum in value, or 40 per cent. We are expected to believe that those distressed manufacturers went on increasing their product at a loss of 25 per cent. to themselves at every turn-over. A still more remarkable fact is that these sufferers, before the McKinley Bill passed, sold at $2 per dozen a knife the foreign equivalent of which cost $2.20 to land in New York, duty paid, and could not be sold, when all charges were paid, at less than $2.40 per dozen. And yet they were given a large increase of duty by McKinley which they are using, as the writer in *Bradstreet's* blandly remarks, to "educate the consumer to pay a little more for his goods." This is a euphemism for cheating him under the forms of law.

While recalling last year's tin-plate prophecies for the sake of putting them on record, some further remarks of Senator Allison should not be overlooked. "If there is any faith to be placed in the iron and steel industry of our country," he said, "if there be anything in the promises, the prospects, the projects of these men, then it will turn out that when the 1st of July, 1892, shall come, we shall be producing in our own country tin plate to a very large extent." For "iron and steel industry of our country" read Cronmeyer and a few other rash enthusiasts like him, and the representatives of the Amalgamated Association who were deluded in the way that President Weihe has lately made public. It was "these men," with their "promises and projects," that the gullible members of the Senate Committee on Finance took as their guides in framing the tin-plate duties. At the present day it is clear that "if there is any faith to be placed in the iron and steel industry of our country," as represented by its leading firms in different parts of the country, Senator Allison's prediction will be as wide of the mark as was his more unguarded prophecy which is already falsified. But the interesting question arises if he will, in that case, be prepared to fulfil the threat which he made immediately after his prediction. "If the great iron and steel industry in the United States," he went on, "will not, now that they are to be protected in the production of tin, engage in that production, and compel the people of the United States to pay large and undiminished prices to monopolies in other countries, *then this tin duty will be swept from your statute books.*" This dire fulmination will do to go alongside Senator Sherman's against the Trusts, if they took advantage of the legislation granted them and put up prices. It may be found in the *Congressional Record* for September 30, 1890, at page 10722.

A harrowing uncertainty seems to be connected with every triumph of "reciprocity" or "American diplomacy." No one appears able to tell exactly to whose benefit it is to inure. Thus we have been led along from one explanation to another in the matter of the lifting of the German prohibition of our pork, until it is impossible to know what really is the fact. We were told at first that the German consumer was to reap all the advantage, and this seemed reasonable until we were assured with equal positiveness that not he, but the American farmer, was to be blessed. This was good news; but before we could settle down to enjoy it, along came Minister Phelps to tell us that the only real benefit was to be Mr. Blaine's. No sooner were we beginning to credit this, than up rose Private Secretary Halford to inform us that it was all a mistake, and that the President himself was the chief beneficiary. As a relief from the painful dilemma presented by this conflicting testimony, a *tertium quid* then appeared in the person of Secretary Rusk, who began to get a suspicious number of congratulatory telegrams. He, however, with the modesty and generosity of conscious greatness, declined to wear all the laurels, and wrote a letter to Democratic Congressman Hatch, to aid that gentleman's Speakership canvass by declaring that a good part of the famous victory was due to him. Now we submit that this leaves the whole affair so diluted and dubious that no man's vote will be determined by it, and thus the main object of the entire negotiation will be frustrated. Moreover, even if the thing appeared to be beyond all dispute, we have no guarantee that it would remain so. Thus the McKinley reduction of duty on French works of art has all along been supposed to be solely the work of Mr. Whitelaw Reid. We had his word for it, and, except for a vague claim on the part of the American hog, there seemed to be no one to contest with him for the honor. But now we come upon a letter addressed by the French Society for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Property to the Minister for Foreign Affairs, asserting that the said reduction was voted by the "American Chambers" as "a direct consequence of the labors" of Count de Kératry. Evidently, it is going to be very hard for the American voter to know, this fall, who his real benefactors are.

A noteworthy development of the labor question in the Eastern States is the establishment in recent years of a number of shoe-manufactories in the smaller cities and towns of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont. This is the result of the troubles with the "walking delegates" and other obnoxious accessories of the labor unions in the cities where this industry was formerly concentrated. Many a manufacturer has had the experience of one who recently closed his big factory in Haverhill, and explained his course by saying, "I am tired of being bulldozed by abor unions." The single factory in the small town escapes these troubles, its employees being as a rule men of some character, who are not ready to throw up work at the beck of any loafer who may come to the front in a union. A few years ago the agitators thought that they were going to "run" the whole industry of shoemaking, but they are slowly learning their mistake.

The "Society of Loyal Volunteers," of whose founding in Washington we recently spoke, has published its "Prospectus and Constitution," in which the aims and methods of the Society are set forth in detail. The plan contemplates the organization of branch societies in every State and county, which are to be in relations with the national society, and are to act partly as mutual benefit associations, partly as agencies for securing a revision of the pension laws in the interest of the deserving and to the discomfiture of the unworthy. Among the "facts and lessons" which the Society undertakes to "teach and maintain," the following are specimens: "The volunteer armies . . . were inspired by no hope of individual gain or glory, except such as they might share with all their countrymen. . . . The weakness of every company, regiment, battalion, and division was in the shirks, cowards, and vice-destroyed men who encumbered its muster-rolls, devoured its subsistence, and crowded honest but disabled men out of its hospitals. Such men do not hesitate to-day to live on the generous gratitude of the people through payments made on pensions obtained by fraud or at the expense of honor. . . . We demand that the pension legislation of the past and the future shall be so revised that the *honor* as well as the necessities of the soldiers and the sailors shall be fully recognized and jealously guarded." Whatever the success of the Society may be, nothing but good can result from such utterances as these, coming from the men they do—all volunteer soldiers of honorable record.

The last news we had from the Harney Peak tin mines represented that the company controlling the same was in a quandary whether to go ahead and crush the great quantities of ore taken out, with the imperfect machinery on hand, or wait till a six-hundred-stamp mill could be made and brought upon the ground. While they were cogitating on this problem, Prof. Claypool of Akron, Ohio, one of the editors of the *American Geologist*, was making a visit to the Black Hills. He writes to the trade journal *Hardware*, in answer to a special request from the editor, that "there is scarcely enough ore taken from all the mines together to keep a

stamp mill of fair size at work." Also "that the present attitude in the region is one of suspense, and it is difficult to say what the next move will be." We should think most likely the next move would be the publication of a lot of fresh lies in a London *Mining Journal*, to be followed by a speech in the United States Senate like the following:

"In that portion of the States of South Dakota and Wyoming known as the Black Hills, there have been discovered *and developed* within the last six years the most extensive and probably the richest quartz tin mines thus far found upon the globe. . . . The ore is very rich in places, and the gulches contain a large amount of stream or placer tin, which has been successfully worked for a number of years and *many tons have been put upon the market.*"

This extract from a speech of Senator Moody advocating a duty of four cents a pound on block tin was delivered August 12, 1890, and may be found, together with a deal of similar rubbish, on page 8453 of the *Congressional Record* at that date. It goes very well with the prediction of Senator Allison that within one year after the passage of the new duty on tin plate we should be making all the tin plate that we use.

Politicians and stump-speakers rack their brains to devise out-of-the-way arguments and unexpected "issues" in behalf of their party, and are blind to the powerful effect on the popular mind of obvious facts and plain inferences from them. One such set of facts relates to economy in the administration of the Government. Republicans are talking with much bravado about their billion-dollar Congress, but they are secretly aware that it is a highly dangerous thing to boast of. The thinking voters do not want extravagance in legislation, because they know it means, in the long run, heavier taxation. The plain people of the country can be made to see and approve the wisdom of economy in public affairs, just as they do in their own affairs. When they look at the record of the expenses of the Federal Government by years, they will see set down for 1890-'91 the sum of $365,773,905. Glancing up the column, they will observe that this is the greatest amount expended since 1868, when the country was just emerging from the war. Pursuing their investigation, they will notice that the average yearly expenditures under the last Democratic administration were upwards of $100,000,000 less than the outlay during the past fiscal year. When they reflect that this vast increase represents no practical increase in the benefits of good government, so far as they are concerned, they cannot but favor, other things being equal, the party which stands for economy. By a year from now, the full effects of the extravagant appropriations of the last Congress will have got into the records for the consideration of voters, and the comparison is certain to be still more heavily against the Republicans. Indeed, everything now points to a deficit at the end of the current fiscal year, and if the Republican party has to go with it into a national campaign, it will have to explain how its rule has brought about an adverse balance for the first time in thirty-six years. Then we shall not have to listen to so much praise of extravagance.

Mr. Albert Shaw reports in the *Christian Union* a suggestive incident bearing upon the attitude of the Catholic Church towards the public-school system. The town of Faribault, Minn., has a deserved reputation for its public schools, though a parochial school has also been sustained by the three Catholic churches in the place. But on the 22d of August the leading priest, Father Conry, offered to turn over this school to the Board of Education, to be included in the general system of the town. Four days later he submitted the same offer in writing, and it was unanimously accepted. He made no conditions whatever, and alleged as his motive in making the transfer his desire to secure for the children of Catholics the superior advantages of the public-school system, especially "a perfect preparation for the duties and responsibilities of American citizenship." The Board will accordingly enter upon control of the parochial school building and grounds, under no obligation to retain the Catholic teachers, and prepared to assign the Catholic children of the various sections of the town to the schools nearest them. What lends added significance to this unusual step is the fact that it must have been taken with the approval of Archbishop Ireland. That prelate's thorough-going Americanism has been too often made manifest, however, to cause surprise at this latest display of it.

A newspaper of the republic of Salvador, the *Correo Nacional*, gives an account of the late occurrences in connection with the Pacific Mail steamship *City of Panama*. It seems that a certain Gen. Letona, under indictment for crime in the city of San Miguel, had escaped to Nicaragua, whence he took passage on the steamer mentioned. Learning of this, the Judge of the court where his case was pending applied to the national authorities for the arrest of the criminal when the steamer should put in at the Salvadorian port of La Union. It was this writ of a Salvadorian court, therefore, that Capt. White refused to recognize. When that fact was reported to the Government, the authorities ordered the captain to delay the sailing of his vessel, as they had a perfect right to do under their contract with the company, quite irrespective of the affair immediately in hand. But the captain at once put to sea without the requisite permission from the authorities of the port, who thereupon applied to the courts for a decree of condemnation, in accordance with the code of navigation, and it was provisionally granted them. When the steamer arrived at its next port of call in Salvador, La Libertad, the second officer of the harbor went aboard and proposed to take charge of the ship by virtue of this decree. That was the occasion when Capt. White's anger blazed forth, as recounted in the despatches, and he threatened to throw the officer overboard. A few hours later he weighed anchor, again without the necessary license, and, what is more, against the express advice of the United States Consul in La Libertad. That official had some glimmering of knowledge of international law, and urged the captain at least to await advices from Washington. But the latter's Jingo blood was up, and he steamed away, completing his record for that trip by again violating the company's contract with Salvador in refusing to touch at Acajutla.

This case seems surprising, but it is just what we have to expect under a policy of international bluster. The way our State Department handled the Barrundia affair was directly calculated to make the commanders of our merchantmen swagger up and down the coasts of South America, turning their vessels into the refuge of criminals, and daring any court to touch one of them. And as for our diplomatic officers, who know better, the example of ex-Minister Mizner is a sufficient warning that they must not meddle with our bullies of the sea. Our Consul at La Libertad has probably endangered his position by so much as urging Capt. White to wait till word could be had from Washington. Salvador is weak and can be insulted with impunity, though she proposes to make a suitable protest. But one of these days some Blaine-inspired captain will ignore the territorial jurisdiction of a first-class Power, and then the United States will have a chance to put their interpretation of international law to a real test.

The *Mémorial Diplomatique*, which discusses all pending questions from the Franco-Austrian point of view, seeks to minimize in every way the importance of the Turkish concession to Russia in the matter of the Dardanelles, and says the Porte is shortly going to issue a circular setting forth that it does not "propose any modification of the Treaty of Paris or of Berlin, but simply an additional clause giving a wider liberty in the interpretation of the treaties," in so far as regards the passage of the Dardanelles. The *Mémorial* at the same time insinuates that the fuss in diplomatic circles over the incident has been got up by Prince Bismarck through some of his organs in the press, by way of showing what happens when the helm is taken out of old hands and put into young ones. He made a specialty of keeping the peace in the Balkan peninsula, and if a war broke out over Constantinople within two or three years of his retirement, it might be treated as a feather in his cap. But altogether apart from the attitude of Russia towards the Turks, the internal situation of the Empire is acknowledged on all hands to be very serious, and to threaten convulsions which may make a foreign war inevitable.

THE NEW YORK REPUBLICAN PLATFORM AND CANDIDATE.

THE resolutions adopted by the Republicans at Rochester endorse the two McKinley bills, the present Silver Act, and the principles of "genuine reform of the civil service." These are the principal features of the platform as regards national affairs. Before the Convention met, there had been some suggestions made in high quarters about ignoring the tariff question altogether, and making the fight this year on State issues exclusively. This, we believe, was the programme of Mr. Andrew D. White's friends, Mr. White himself being a very moderate protectionist, and not at all friendly to the McKinley Bill. But it is plain that this policy of ignoring the tariff legislation upon which the party had suffered martyrdom last year could not be followed without leading to disaster in other States, and notably in Ohio. If McKinley were ignored in New York, that would be a sign that McKinleyism was waning. A suspicion that it is waning in the Republican party is already afloat, and has been noticed by some of the more extreme protectionist journals with alarm. To give public confirmation to this unuttered belief would be a sure presage of disaster elsewhere. Therefore it was inevitable that McKinley, for better or for worse, should be endorsed by the Rochester Convention. We think that this is the weakest plank in the platform, and that it will repel a great many voters who would be otherwise inclined to support Mr. Fassett on State issues.

The silver question is treated in the following resolution :

"(6.) The act of July 14, 1890, provides for the purchase of the silver product of American mines and the issuing of the new Treasury note protected by a reserve of 100 cents worth of silver for every dollar issued. We commend this policy of maintaining gold and silver at a parity, the Treasury notes paid for silver to be kept at a par with gold. The voice of New York is emphatic against any degradation of the currency, and demands, with President Harrison, that 'every dollar issued by the Government, whether paper or coin, shall be as good as every other dollar.'"

The act of July 14, 1890, does *not* provide for the purchase of the silver product of American mines any more than of foreign mines. The use of such language by the platform-makers may imply that they did not know what the act of July 14, 1890, is, or it may mean that they are in favor of changing the law so that it shall provide for the purchase of all the silver product of American mines. That would be very bad policy indeed—bad in itself, and still worse in its teachings, since there is no more reason why the Government should buy the product of American silver mines than of American iron mines, which just now stand in more need of Government aid. It is a growing Republican notion that Government aid ought to be extended liberally to all sorts of decrepitudes. "This is a billion-dollar country," they tell us; therefore it is becoming to have a billion-dollar Congress, and to fling money around with a free hand, being careful to choose deserving objects of the national charities, such as silver-mine and sugar-plantation owners—provided that they are Americans. The latter half of the silver plank, which demands that all the dollars be kept of equal value with each other, is in keeping with President Harrison's Albany speech, and is right.

The resolution on civil-service reform is a curiosity, in view of a recent illustration which has been rendered more conspicuous than ever by the nomination of Mr. Fassett for the office of Governor. We have already commented on the brazen transaction by means of which Col. Erhardt was pushed out and Mr. Fassett thrust into the office of Collector of Customs. There was really no need of saying anything about civil-service reform in this Convention. A moderate regard for appearances would have kept out both this resolution and the one in which Gov. Hill's civil-service methods are condemned. What Hill has done in this regard, Platt and Fassett have done more conspicuously and with equal brass, their opportunities being on a larger scale—more's the pity, since Mr. Fassett is fit for better things. Had his nomination come to him unsought and been bestowed upon him in recognition of his personal merits and qualifications for the position, by a convention which was really a body reflecting the will of the party instead of registering the will of its boss, it would have contained elements of great popular strength. But there is little or no pretence that it came to him in this way. Everybody knows that he was nominated because Platt decided, long before the Convention met, that he should be. Everybody familiar with Mr. Fassett's career knows, also, that Platt selected him for the position because he has for years shaped his course in public life in willing obedience to Platt's orders.

Mr. Fassett is an able man, and has had precisely the experience in public life which is calculated to fit him for the duties of the office of Governor. He is a man of liberal education, a trained lawyer, and has served for four successive terms in the State Senate, giving close attention and careful study to all matters of State legislation, and especially to those relating to municipal government. He has always been a consistent supporter of ballot reform, and in his speech accepting the nomination he pledged himself to make that reform and municipal reform the leading issues of his campaign. Throughout his career in the Senate he has been an uncompromising and undeviating Republican, and it is noticeable that in his speech of acceptance he puts fealty to party above all else. He is now, as he always has been, a Republican "first, last, and all the time." We have watched his career in the Senate closely for eight years. If he has at any time during that period failed to obey implicitly the orders of his boss, we have never detected the fact. He has on several occasions turned squarely about under those orders, though the doing so subjected him to great public humiliation. If now he were to be elected Governor, while he would carry into that office honesty, ability, and experience of great value, he would carry into it also increased subjection to Platt. Every voter, therefore, when the time to cast his ballot arrives, must consider whether he is willing to see Plattism in power in the State Administration, as it is at present in power in the Custom-house and other branches of the Federal service in this State. Whether the possible completion of ballot-reform would be a sufficient offset for a certainty of this kind, is a question for every voter to decide for himself.

NEGRO LABOR IN SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.

STUDENTS of social economy whose solution of the negro question is exportation to Liberia, and those who explain Southern competition in certain lines of manufacture with the facile cry of "cheap labor," should follow up a line of investigation lately opened by the *Tradesman*, an organ of Southern manufacturers, published in Chattanooga, Tenn.

Two years ago a circular was sent to various employers of colored labor throughout the South, asking for information as to the comparative wages and efficiency of skilled and unskilled white and negro labor, and whether those employers reached by the circular intended to continue the employment of negroes. Replies were received from many masters representing rolling-mills, furnaces, saw-mills, logging companies, cotton-presses, etc., and employing some 7,000 laborers, of whom about one-fourth were either skilled or semi-skilled. The general tenor of these answers indicated satisfaction with the negroes (particularly in the heavier and hotter work of Southern industries), both as common and skilled workmen ; expressed a practically unanimous determination to continue their employment, to advance them into the higher and better-paid ranks as rapidly as possible ; and clearly showed that, while the negro has greatly improved in the last fifteen years in trustworthiness, skill, and general efficiency, those who employ him have learned not to discriminate between black and white in the matter of wages, giving to both the same pay for the same work.

Again, in July of this year, the same journal, in view of the remarkable development of Southern manufactures, repeated the inquiry, adding to the later circular three queries: Are negro laborers improving in efficiency? What effect has education had on the younger generation? Does education add to or detract from the negro's efficiency as a workman? Some 200 replies from employers of 6,400 unskilled and about 1,000 skilled colored workmen were received and tabulated. For skilled laborers, the highest wages reported is $3, the lowest $1.10, and the average $1.75 per day. For unskilled, the highest reported is $1.50, the lowest 60 cents, and the average $1.10 per day. Twenty-seven employers of 1,379 negroes see no difference in capacity between white and black laborers; forty-nine employers of 3,214 negroes prefer them to white men in the same capacity, and thirty-five employers of 1,441 negroes prefer white labor. An East Birmingham manufacturer writes: "Our men are about the average; do better than white men at same wages,

are more obedient, work harder, and give better satisfaction than white labor." Two Georgia foundry-owners report respectively, "The degree of efficiency is about the same, with equal pay for the same work"; "as laborers in the machine shop and foundry, we prefer the negro." A Louisiana lumberman, employing some 400 negroes, testifies: "they are learning to do the work about as well as the whites." A South Carolina manufacturer employing 100 negroes answers: "Common negro labor is the best in the world; we are not so decided as to skilled labor." A mining superintendent replies: "The negro is the best common laborer, but he cannot acquire the skill of the white man—at least he don't." A Texas manager of a cotton-press reports that for his work "negroes are better than white." A Virginia miller finds that "common labor, colored, compares favorably with white. Skilled, not up to average." Of ten replies selected at random from various parts of Virginia, four prefer negro labor, three prefer white, and three see no difference. An experienced Tennessee employer sums up the case thus: "When muscle alone is wanted, we find good negro labor very efficient, but when some degree of judgment is to be exercised, we prefer white labor."

One hundred and nine employers of 6,700 negroes declare without qualification their intention to continue to employ them, sixteen express doubt as to what they will do, and seventy employers of 2,413 state that their colored laborers are steadily increasing in efficiency. One characteristic answer throws some side light on politics at the South: "No, as compared with ante-war times; yes, as compared with six or eight years ago, when they were under the lead of low-lived white politicians, and were thinking more about forty acres and a mule and social equality than they are now." On the other hand, forty-three employers of 2,279 negroes deny improvement, and fifteen, giving work to 1,367, express doubt.

While much time, attention, and money have been devoted to the education of the Southern negro, the answers to that part of the circular involving the subject of education and its effects represent, we believe, the first attempt to focus the practical man's point of view. Only one hundred and thirty employers replied to this portion of the circular; of these but thirty, employing 2,860 negroes, endorse the education at present available for the younger generation, and state their belief that it adds to the efficiency of the negro to educate him. The doubters number thirteen, and ninety-six employers of 3,820 negroes are of the opinion that such education as the younger generation of the colored race has received has not been of benefit to them, and "that, generally speaking, it detracts from a negro's efficiency to educate him." The broader and sounder judgment of the minority may be summarized in the words of an Alabama manufacturer: "Educating the younger men has had a good effect, and we think the shortest and best way out of our race troubles is to educate both black and white. It has added much to the efficiency of the colored men."

Some of the reasons given by the Philistine majority why sauce for the (white) goose is not sauce for the (black) gander, while illustrating the selfishness and short-sightedness of average human nature, suggest both to the educator and the legislator probable weak points in our system of free public instruction, and a possible remedy in the direction of industrial and ethical training. When we are told that the young "educated" negro does not care to work at manual labor, that he prefers either to be supported in aristocratic idleness by his illiterate, hard-working parents, or "to live by his wits," *i. e.*, turn sleeping-car porter, barber, poor preacher, or poorer teacher, we are inclined to suspect that it is not education which confuses the negro, but its imperfect application and crude assimilation, superinducing the temporary evils of idleness, insolence, and arrogance. It is evident that reading, writing, and the theoretical training which as a rule alone constitutes education for the Southern negro youth, create an aristocracy, with all the vices which ordinarily accompany an idle *nouveau-riche* class.

The colored laborer is and must be the dependence of the South, and the more his general quickness and intelligence be cultivated, and the wider the range of labor vocations assigned to him, the more rapidly will the color-line fade away. The old-fashioned and widespread belief that colored people cannot learn skilled employments, must be relegated to the tomb of many other false ideas. The province of the masters of new and growing Southern industries is to choose from the best of the colored people, and train them for special uses; in the process of artificial selection based on natural aptitude, education, even of an imperfect kind, must be an invaluable factor. This whole question of the education and efficiency of the negro workman of the South can be best answered by asking ourselves what effect our present system of education has on the growing generation of white laborers. Are we turning out more farmers and skilled mechanics, or are we filling up the overcrowded ranks of "genteel" occupations? If we consider that the negro of to-day is hardly a generation removed from serfdom, that he has had to seek light and life in the surging sea of political and race conflict, there seems no reason to doubt that the effect of education, so far as fitness for labor is concerned, is identical on the youth of both the black and the white races.

THE NEW IMMIGRATION.

THE report just published by the Treasury Department on "Arrivals of Alien Passengers and Immigrants in the United States from 1820 to 1890," exhibits the most recent statistics on the important subject of foreign immigration to this country, and a study of the figures there collected brings out some very significant facts. The report adopts the commonly accepted estimate that the number of immigrants arriving between the foundation of the government and the year 1820 did not exceed 250,000. Starting with this assumption, and following the official records which date from that year, it is then estimated that the total number of immigrants from the close of the Revolution to June 30, 1890, amounts to 15,567,000. From a statement of immigration by decades it appears that more than one-third (5,246,613) of the whole number have arrived during the last ten years of this period; and from a supplementary table it can be shown that the rate of immigration for 1891 has advanced 22 per cent. beyond that for 1890. That is to say, the flood which is already so enormous is steadily and rapidly increasing in quantity.

Passing to consider the quality of immigration, we are met by equally striking facts. The various tables which bear on the point of nationality afford the following data. Prior to 1868 the great bulk of immigration was from the British Isles and Germany, these two nations furnishing about 85 per cent., while the rest came chiefly from France, British North America, Switzerland, and, during a brief period, from Mexico and the West Indies. More than half of the whole immigration has come in since 1868, and the statistics for these twenty-two years show a marked change in its character. During this later period the most prominent nationalities have contributed the following proportions:

	Per cent.
England	14.6
Ireland	13.6
Scotland	2.9
Germany	27.5
Denmark, Norway, and Sweden	11.0
Russia and Poland	3.6
Austria Hungary	4.9
Italy	4.2
France	1.5

These average percentages show, as has been said, a marked change in the character of the immigration; but, on studying the figures year by year, the magnitude of the change becomes still more apparent. In the last decade (1860-1870) of the earlier period, England's percentage was 24.54; since that time it has fluctuated, but with a tendency to decrease. Thus, for the year 1870 it was 23.20, for 1880 it was 13, and for 1890 it was 12 5. It should be remarked that a decreasing percentage does not indicate a falling off in the actual immigration of any particular nationality; for, with the exception of China, the immigration from every country is increasing. It simply indicates that the increase of that particular nationality does not keep pace with the general increase of all immigration. The Irish percentage has also fluctuated, and also shows a tendency to decrease. It is well known that the Irish immigration during the forties was enormous, amounting during that decade to 45.57 per cent. This makes the general average (1820–1890) high; but for the year 1870 it was only 15 per cent., for 1880 it was 15.6, and for 1890 it fell to 11.6. The Scotch immigration, which has always been of minor importance, is likewise failing to maintain its percentage. So much for the British Isles.

The German element, which has always been a strong one, amounting altogether (1820-1890) to 29.20 per cent. of all immigration, reached its highest point between

1850 and 1870, and since then has declined. Thus, for the year 1870 it constituted 30.5 per cent., while for last year it was only 20.3 per cent. Norway, Sweden, and Denmark played a small part in the immigration of the early period. Since 1870, their percentage has averaged 11, but it has lately fallen, and for the year 1890 was only 10. As the influence of the Teutonic races declines, that of the Latin and Slavic increases. Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy are the leading representatives of the latter, and the immigration from those three countries is of recent date. That from Austria-Hungary first reached 1 per cent. in 1870, that from Italy in 1872, and that from Russia and Poland in 1873. In the year 1880 Austria-Hungary contributed 3.7 per cent., Italy 2.6 per cent., and Russia and Poland 1.5 per cent. During the next decade their rate of increase makes a sudden advance, and in 1890 Austria-Hungary furnished 12.3 per cent., Italy 11.4 per cent., and Russia and Poland 9.8 per cent. To appreciate fully the significance of these figures, it must be borne in mind that while the percentages are thus changing, the total volume of immigration is steadily increasing, so that there is a two-fold influence at work.

The relative merit of different races cannot be discussed in this summary; but it is instructive to note how the immigrants of the several nationalities compare in social condition. The character of the immigrants in general is indicated by the official records of their occupations. During the last decade 5 per cent. have been reported as belonging to the professional class, 10.3 per cent. as skilled laborers, and 39.6 per cent. as unskilled laborers. The occupation of 2.2 per cent. was not reported at all, and the remaining 47.4 per cent. were without occupation, nine-tenths of these being women and children. The percentages of skilled and unskilled laborers in the immigration of each leading nationality, during the same period, can be calculated from the yearly records; the results are exhibited and compared in the following table:

Nationality.	*Skilled. Per cent.	Unskilled. Per cent
All immigration	10.8	39.6
England	17.7	32.2
Ireland	5.6	52.8
Germany	12.0	29.2
Denmark, Norway, and Sweden	7.0	47.0
Russia and Poland	8.9	43.4
Austria-Hungary	6.4	48.5
Italy	7.8	58.5

* Includes professional.

These figures show that the change which is now taking place is a distinct deterioration. Some definition of the terms professional, skilled, and miscellaneous, as they are used in the official reports of occupations, may add to the meaning of these statistics. The professional class comprises chiefly musicians, clergymen, teachers, and physicians. The principal skilled occupations, in the order of their numerical strength, are tailors, miners, carpenters, clerks, masons, mechanics, shoemakers, and mariners. While of those whose occupation is reported as miscellaneous, 68 per cent. are laborers, 3 per cent. merchant dealers, and the rest farmers and servants, in equal proportions.

Among the points which have a less obvious meaning, it is interesting to note the proportion of the sexes and the ages of the immigrants. During the last decade the average of males was 61 per cent. of all immigration; but the several nationalities vary considerably from this figure. The Irish immigration shows the least difference in the proportion of the sexes, the percentage of males being 51. Germany follows with a percentage of 57. For England and the Scandinavian countries the figure is 61 ; while of the immigrants from Russia and Poland 65 per cent. are males, of those from Austria-Hungary 68 per cent,, and of the Italian immigrants 79 per cent. This preponderance of males in the nationalities whose immigration is increasing fastest could only be appropriate to an undeveloped frontier; but the statistics of the reported destination of immigrants show that the bulk of them intend to settle in New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts.

During the last decade 21.5 per cent. of the immigrants were under fifteen years of age, 68 per cent. were between fifteen and forty, and 10.5 per cent. were over forty. Comparing the several nationalities with this average, it appears that Germany and England furnish more than their share of children. Ireland and the Scandinavian countries furnish the smallest percentages of children and old persons ; 78.6 per cent. of the Irish immigration being between fifteen and forty, and 73 per cent. of the Swedes and Norwegians. Russia and Austria also furnish more than their share of children; while Italy shows the highest percentage of persons beyond the prime of life,

To sum up the matter, the change now going on is not an increase in the earlier sort of immigration, which has played a prominent part in the development of the country, but rather the growth of a new and distinct sort of immigration, which exists along with the other, and promises to be soon the more influential of the two. What its influence will be is more than doubtful. From its quality this new immigration adds heavily to the lowest class in the economic scale. It threatens disorder by disturbing the proportion of the sexes. It consists largely of persons too old to be adopted by the community of which they become a part. Finally, it is not related to us in race or language, but has habits of thought and behavior radically foreign to those which have so far prevailed in the United States. These facts are too patent to be missed and too significant to be disregarded.

CHANGES IN SUMMER MIGRATION.

If in mid-September of each year, when the season at our large summer resorts usually closes, a census could be made of the number of visitors during the season just past, and their average stay computed, the resulting figures would probably be very instructive. It is doubtful whether statistics of the kind for, say, the last ten years would show much if any increase of patronage at those resorts. Yet not many years ago the newspapers were telling us constantly of the local "booms" at those places; of rise of real-estate values; of monster hotels going up or projected; of new pavilions, piers, and beach walks. But now, for the most part, the local story of new hotel enterprise is of failure much more than of success. The printed watering-place gossip tells us little about material growth and turns vapidly to social amusements and the "summer girl." When we do hear of local growth, it is apt to be in the direction of the small and "family" hotel or of some form of the "cottage" system. This striking change has come, too, during a time when not only our population has decidedly increased, but also wealth, the love of luxury, and the desire and opportunity for summer leisure. While our summer migration has greatly expanded, a less and less proportion of it evidently goes to the "regular" resorts, and for a rather more transitory stay when it does go.

Where then does it go, and through what new summer paths is it tending? That our ocean steamships—or, rather, the steamships of the foreigners—absorb a part of the increased migration is obvious—a fact due not less to the larger number of families who can afford the European trip than to cheaper rates, quicker time, well-nigh absolute safety, and the lower excursion prices. But this accounts, at its highest estimate, for a relatively small part of the great increment of summer migration. It must be sought for in the more sequestered farm-houses and remoter country villages; in the isolated cottage, or the isolated groups of cottages in the woods or on the shore and in summer camps. Just as we see our civic holidays becoming steadily days of rest and recreation more than of noisy celebration, so our summer migration is seeking the rural quietudes and moving away from the old centres of mere fashion, which are coming to rely on that special and somewhat limited group of patrons which craves social gayety not less in the great summer hotel than during winter on the city avenue. The great resorts are becoming the summer homes of the class, while the remoter places are sought for by the mass.

Statistics on the size and direction of the new current are unavailable, but we can find clues. Take, for example, the White Mountain region, where up to recently the "big" hotel, and usually with big prices, was so much the feature of the summer life of the region that nothing else was heard of. But now we learn constantly of the change of the farm-life of the region into a boarding-house régime. The eye of any traveller who has passed recently through the great White Mountain "horseshoe" sees everywhere, usually a little apart from the main routes of the tourists, the farm-houses where outward signs tell of the summer boarder. In a less definite but larger region, another and official evidence of the same movement recently appeared. It was a report of the

Connecticut Board of Health calling, we believe for the first time, attention to the great number of urban residents seeking summer health at the secluded farm houses and warning them of the danger incurred from defective drainage and other unsanitary things at the ordinary farm dwelling. A recent writer in the *Century*, who states that for years he has made long tours by private conveyance through out-of-the-way places of New England, speaks of his amazement at finding to what secluded nooks of the country the city sojourners are penetrating. They are not merely the classes of moderate wealth either, but often the upper middle class, sometimes the positively rich, and all exponents of the growing and wholesome desire to seek the summer rest rather than the summer whirl. But for the fact that the head of the family is apt to want a place accessible to him by railroad for his weekly or fortnightly visit, the prevailing hunt for the seclusions would no doubt be greatly intensified.

A sub-feature of the summer migration is the steady tendency to prolong the rural life at both ends—to go to the country in some cases with the April arbutus and come away with the October aster. Aside from the evidence of the later opening of some of the city schools, this fact of longer sojourns in the country must stand from observation, but its reality cannot be questioned. Its suggestion is also of a growing national love of Nature and her quietudes, and of a certain shrinking away from the exactions of "society" and of fashion. Indeed, we seem drifting pretty fast towards the English idea of a much longer country season and a much shorter one in town; and but for the city schools and the defectiveness, as yet, of rural systems of education, we should see the tendency grow faster. The English writers who used to deride the American love of what they called the hotel "caravansary" in both city and country, will find a decided change when they visit us now or hereafter.

Of the economic, social, and physical readjustments, many of them good, some bad, growing out of this state of things—of the transfer of city dollars to the country, of the results to country life itself in village and on farm, of the urban impact and contact—much could be written in a general way, but little can be accurately measured. The changes, however, from the causes named must be immense and must become more visible in their aggregates as the recasting of summer migration in its forms, forces, and lines of movement goes on.

LOWELL.

PIEVE DI CADORE, August 27.

IN the notice of the life of Lowell in the *Nation* of August 13, there is a passage which seems to me to admit, if not require, a fuller explanation than is there given. After mentioning the death of his first wife and the consequent change in his manner of existence, it says: "And although he allowed his name to stand in connection with anti-slavery societies, he was generally regarded as having cooled in sympathy. This was unjustly attributed to his becoming, in 1855, a professor in Harvard University, then rightly regarded as very conservative." The disclaimer is correct, but purely negative; and, as a fact, the imaginary cooling, which was nothing more than the natural effect of grief and a morbid melancholy, preceded any hint of his appointment to succeed Longfellow, and was broken up by it and his subsequent visit to Europe.

It happened that I made Lowell's acquaintance shortly after the death of his first wife and while he was still overwhelmingly affected by it. I went to Cambridge to secure the assistance of the literary men resident there for the carrying on of an art journal which I had then projected and afterwards edited, the *Crayon*, and the acquaintance grew into a warm friendship, of which one of the first fruits was an invitation to come and stay with him at Elmwood. He was in a state of apathy and incipient hypochondriasis, from which, as one of his later letters shows, my intrusion into his solitude partially aroused him, and he was grateful for the diversion. The grief for the death of his wife was keen, and his feeling was expressed in the "Ode to Happiness," which he read me from his note-book one day during this visit. He spoke of it as unfinished, but, so far as I recollect, it was then as it was printed later. What oppressed him, however, more than his bereavement was a profound conviction that his brain was menaced by, or actually undergoing, a process similar to ossification, and that he was doomed to die, as his mother had died, insane; and this gloomy presentiment, coupled with his sorrow, produced that apathy which was regarded as a cooling off of his human sympathies; he considered himself as already the victim of a terrible death, and all his constitutional buoyancy could not resist the obsession.

I had just gone through one of those disillusions which young men consider great griefs, and this excited a certain sympathy which took him out of himself, while the efforts I made to arouse him out of his apathy and despondency were grateful to him and, I hope, useful. I was an intense admirer of his poetry, and had most of the then published poems by heart, and I made him talk of them and read me what he had unprinted. He told me that he had written "Sir Launfal" in two evenings, and had never retouched it—an omission I gently reproved him for, but he replied in a way which made me think that he did not hold his work in such high esteem as to induce him to spend much *labor limae* on it. The fact was, I suspect, that he could not take up revision without its becoming remaking, for his versification was so spontaneous that he could write in verse faster than in prose,* and it was easier to write new than to remodel the old. This facility was curiously shown in one of our Adirondack excursions. We had halted to camp on Tupper's Lake, and the guides and myself constructed for the occasion a huge bark shanty, and when it was finished, I said to Lowell, "We have built you a house; now give us an inscription for it"; and he began what I at first took for a reply, but what was really, without casting about for a word, an impromptu:

> "Whom rain doth welter
> Or heat swelter,
> Respect this shelter,"

and went on with a history of the shanty, the part taken by each of us in the work, giving the names of the whole party, which was composed of ten visitors and nine guides, all without an instant's hesitation and as if it were a part of the conversation.

He did afterwards, however, in spite of his reluctance to retouch his work, rewrite for the *Crayon* the little poem so well known, "The First Snow-Fall," which had been for years circulating in the newspapers, gathering misprints. He sent me many contributions for the *Crayon*, for which he could never be induced to accept the slightest remuneration. He never could remember or rewrite anything that was lost, and he used to tell with a comic distress the losing of "the funniest thing he ever wrote" in a German hotel, while he was abroad rubbing up his German preparatory to his assuming his professorship at Harvard.

Prior to undertaking the publication of the *Crayon*, I had been engaged as art editor on the *Evening Post*, then edited by Bryant; and talking with him of Lowell, I thought I perceived a certain soreness at the criticism Lowell had passed on him in the 'Fable for Critics,' and I mentioned it to Lowell. When he came to New York to embark for Europe, on the occasion alluded to, I gave him a dinner, chiefly to bring him and Bryant together, as they had never met; and Lowell, remembering Bryant's feeling on the subject of the criticism, did his best to captivate the elder poet, and, as I satisfied myself later by talking with Bryant, succeeded completely, and though there were in the company several of Lowell's old friends, Bayard Taylor, Charles Sumner, E. P. Whipple, and others, the conversation between the two was hardly interrupted during the entire evening. We separated at a late hour, Bryant and I leaving Lowell and Taylor at the Turkish café of Oscanyan enjoying a nargileh.

I resided in London during a large part of the time in which Lowell represented the United States there, and can endorse what the *Nation* says of his political aspect. He was accused of servility to rank and of indifference to the social pretensions of Americans in London. He simply understood his business at the court to which he had been sent, which was, as I have since heard it formulated by one of the greatest of English diplomats, Lord Dufferin, not to introduce his countrymen to the society of the court, but to represent his Government at that court. Americans inflated by a local importance came to London wearing their Congressional-district halos, and expected to be presented to the Queen, wearing them; Lowell, measuring them by the larger standard of a court where all the world comes, declined to use his great personal influence to the disregard of that standard. His feeling, which was just and diplomatic, was that no American, because he is such, is entitled to a presentation at court or an introduction to English society, but that it is for the Queen in one case, and society in the other, to choose whom they will see, and that without some distinction which makes them of interest to the one and the other, the presentation is an intrusion. A Minister who considered it his duty to be the usher of all the Americans who come to London, would find that he had neither time nor influence for his diplomatic duties.

Lowell knew every detail of the court etiquette, and while, on the one hand, he never permitted himself to be led into a violation of it, on the other he never allowed any derogation of the ceremony which his position as the representative of a great Power entitled him to. He maintained that a sovereign demo-

*[Witness Lowell's own testimony in that inimitable "Letter from Boston" of December 27, 1846, written "in steamboat haste."—ED. NATION.]

> "Dear M., *By way of saving time*,
> I'll do this letter up in rhyme,
> Whose slim stream through four pages flows,
> Ere one is packed with tight-screwed prose,
> Threading the tube of an epistle
> Smooth as a child's breath through a whistle."

cracy had the same right to the formalities established for the court as a monarchy, and abated none of them. A lady of rank at whose house I was visiting, expressed the desire to make the acquaintance of the Minister, and I undertook to make him acquainted with her wish. He inquired her rank, and as she was a marchioness, he replied, "I cannot, as Minister Plenipotentiary, make the first call on anything less than a duke; the Marquis must make the first call." People who know nothing of the importance of precedent may consider this snobbish in the representative of a republican country, but it was just this which made Lowell the stickler for the letter of the law of precedence which he was. He would not allow, even by a careless acquiescence in a neglect of one of the rules of diplomatic etiquette, any disregard of the least of them which might seem to abate the deference due him as the representative of a republic.

Your comment on his second wife, "an accomplished and agreeable woman," does very imperfect justice to her qualities. She was one of the noblest women I have ever known, and I knew her from early in her entry into his family nearly till the day of her death. She was fully worthy of him and made his married life with her supremely happy. He told me that his attachment for her had begun before he left home for Germany, but that he waited till he had proved by protracted absence that it was solid before declaring himself. My opinion is that she influenced his life even more than his first wife, though I judge of the earlier period only from what he and others who knew him then have told me. There was an intensity of sympathy in her nature, coupled with the highest moral standard, which he felt the full value of and reposed on. For reasons which I do not recollect, I did not at the time of their marriage write to congratulate him, but, a considerable time after, I did so and apologized for the neglect, and he replied that the congratulations "hit the white," for he was very happy. I have not, I believe, seen him since her death.

W. J. Stillman.

LOMÉNIE'S MIRABEAU—II.

Paris, September 1, 1891.

We left Mirabeau after the events of the 5th and 6th of October, 1789, when the Duc d'Orléans asked of him, "When will Mirabeau serve the Crown?" These events produced a great effect on his mind; he predicted, with terrible eloquence, the dangers to which the royal family was exposed. "All is lost," he once said to M. de La Marck; "the King and the Queen will perish, and you will see it; the populace will beat their dead bodies." When M. de La Marck expressed the horror which this idea caused him, "Yes, yes," repeated Mirabeau, "they will beat their dead bodies. You do not understand the peril of their position; they ought to know it." Mirabeau was accused at the time of being in the pay of the Duc d'Orléans; he was in reality disgusted with the Duke's borrowing money from M. de La Marck and trying to enter into relations with Monsieur the Comte de Provence, the brother of the King (who afterwards became Louis XVIII.). He was convinced that if the King did not leave Paris, the dynasty and France were lost. But he did not wish him to retire to a frontier town like Metz, since, in such a case, he would seem to be under the protection of foreigners; he wished him to go to Rouen, to call round him the faithful national guards, and to convoke another legislative chamber. The Comte de Provence read the memoir in which Mirabeau developed these ideas, and said that the King was too irresolute to adopt it. "The weakness and the indecision of the King are indescribable. Do you wish to have an idea of his character? Imagine ivory balls covered with oil, and try to keep them together."

The enemies of the Duc d'Orléans held him responsible for the troubles of the 5th and 6th of October. Lafayette urged upon the King the necessity of sending him to England with an official diplomatic mission. The Duke, after much hesitation, consented. Mirabeau, who was jealous of Lafayette, had promised to support the Duke's resistance in the Chamber, and when he learned from a letter from the Duc de Biron that the Duke had accepted a passport for England, he said to his friends: "See, read! They say that I belong to the Duc d'Orléans's party; why, I would not have him for my valet!" From that day all relations between them ceased.

If Mirabeau had thought for a moment that he could form, in the Assembly and in the country, under cover of the popular name of the Duc d'Orléans, a party of which he would be the real chief, he was forced to give up that hope. He tried now to form a cabinet in the English fashion and to enter it. The Ministers were not present in the Assembly, and Mirabeau showed the inconveniences of this exclusion. They merely formed the King's Council; they were not in reality the representatives of the Chamber. All these questions, with which we are now so familiar—ministerial responsibility, the solidarity of the members of a cabinet—were then entirely new. Mirabeau had an interview with Lafayette, in which the ministerial question was discussed. He was obliged to reckon with the great popularity of Lafayette, though he considered him a man of little political foresight. (Among his friends he used to call him Gilles-César or Cromwell-Grandison.) Lafayette, on his part, says in his Memoirs that "the immorality of Mirabeau shocked me. In spite of the pleasure found in his conversation, and my admiration for his sublime talents, I could not help showing him a want of esteem which wounded Mirabeau."

Mirabeau also saw Necker, who told him frankly that he could not be in the same cabinet with him. "My strength," said Necker to him, "consists in morality; you are too clever not to understand some day the necessity of this help. Till that moment arrives, it may suit the King, in present circumstances, to have you as his Minister, but we cannot be Ministers together." Mme. de Staël gives these words, which she had directly from her father, in the book, 'The Character of M. Necker, and his Private Life.' It is easy to imagine that Mirabeau hated Necker; in a letter to Lafayette, two days after the visit, he speaks of "the brutal and delirious pride of the miserable charlatan who has brought the throne and France nigh to ruin, and who persists in consummating this ruin rather than confess his own incapacity." Meanwhile, Mirabeau took the most brilliant and active part in the work of the Assembly. He made magnificent speeches on the return to the nation of the church property; on the new administrative organization of France; on the finances; on the admission of the Ministers to the Assembly. He spoke on the necessity of martial law, somewhat on the model of the "Riot Act." He was getting to see the necessity of fortifying the executive power.

At the beginning of 1790, Mirabeau became in reality the secret adviser of the Crown. This is clearly proved by the correspondence of Mirabeau and the Comte de La Marck, published by M. de Bacourt—an inestimable document for the history of the Revolution, which appeared in 1851. The Queen Marie Antoinette had taken the initiative; she had slowly and with much difficulty acquired some influence over the King. "The King," said Mirabeau afterwards, "has only one man near him: it is his wife." Marie Antoinette was no longer the gay and frivolous hostess of Trianon; she was now the true daughter of Maria Theresa. The Comte de La Marck had repeatedly told her that Mirabeau could be managed and used by the Crown. She had long doubted it; her opinion of Mirabeau, as a man, had not changed, but, seeing the terrible situation of the King, she clung to every chance and to every hope. Mercy was the intermediary between her and M. de La Marck, and La Marck arranged the details of the first and secret meeting of Mirabeau and Mercy, which took place in a hôtel of the Faubourg St. Honoré. The negotiation, once entered upon, was conducted rapidly. Mirabeau wrote a memoir on the best means of reëstablishiug the royal authority; he wrote directly to the King, on the 10th of May, 1790, a letter which is a monument of eloquence and of political sense:

"I see so clearly that we are falling into anarchy and that we fall deeper every day; I am so indignant at the idea that I should have contributed only to a vast demolition, and the fear of seeing another chief of the State than the King is so insupportable to me, that I feel imperiously drawn to mix with public affairs at a moment when I thought I was only aspiring to rest. . . . I engage to serve with all my influence the true interests of the King, and in order that this assertion may not appear too vague, I declare that I believe a counter-revolution as dangerous and chimerical as I find chimerical, in France, the hope or the project of any sort of government without a chief invested with the amount of power necessary for the application of all the public forces to the execution of the law."

M. de La Marck made with Mirabeau a pecuniary arrangement which relieved the great orator for a moment from his monetary troubles. The sum of 208,000 francs was immediately given to him for the payment of his debts, of which he did not very exactly know the amount. He was to receive a salary of 6,000 francs a month till the end of the session of the Assembly, and, at the expiration of the session, a sum of a million represented by four bills written in the King's handwriting and deposited with M. de La Marck. It is idle to pass any judgment on these transactions. Mirabeau was always needy, he was venal, but not in the worst sense of the word; he was willing to receive money for the defence of ideas, but it was for the defence of his own ideas. When he was bribed by the Court, he was sincerely convinced of the necessity of defending the Crown.

Mirabeau did not pay his creditors; at least he paid very few of them. After his death, the oldest and most respectable of them were still unpaid; all the money from the Court was spent with his usual extravagance, and, when he died, the Assembly had to pay for his funeral. Every week he addressed two political memoirs to the Court. Fifty of them have been found and have been published by M. de Bacourt. The others have been destroyed. Once only did Mirabeau have an interview with the King and Queen. It took place on the 3d of July at Saint-Cloud. Mirabeau left Saint-Cloud charmed with the Queen, her grace, her dignity. "Nothing," said he, "will hinder me: I will die rather than fail to keep my promises." He was also touched by the calm resignation of the King and by the moderation of his political views. Madame

Campan says in her memoirs that Mirabeau left the Queen with these words: "Madame, the monarchy is saved." Marie Antoinette, in her correspondence with Mercy, says on her part (June 12): "The negotiation with Mirabeau still continues, and, if he is sincere, I have reason to be satisfied"; and then she discusses at length the propositions of Mirabeau.

The Assembly was discussing at the time the question of the right to declare war and make peace. Mirabeau did not hesitate to stand by the royal prerogative on this question, and pronounced one of his best speeches. Barnave answered him, and there appeared immediately a libellous pamphlet, with the title, 'Great Treason of Count Mirabeau.' The entire year 1790 was full of the last oratorical efforts of Mirabeau; there was hardly a great constitutional question on which he did not speak, with his usual vehemence, with a singular mixture of ardor and of good sense, with the instinctive largeness of a real statesman. He continued to be in the pay of the Court, though he affected total independence in his conduct. Camille Desmoulins said of him: "He breakfasts with the Jacobins, he dines with the Society of '89, he sups with La Marck and the Royalists." He was now surrounded with homage on all sides: his overpowering talent had forced universal admiration; his name had become popular all over France. A traveller, coming from England, notes that the post horse called the *porteur* (the horse which leads the others) was named Mirabeau. His hospitality was magnificent and boundless.

His perpetual excesses had ruined his powerful constitution, and it is not necessary to suppose that he was poisoned in order to explain how such a vigorous man died after an illness of five days. Cabanis kept a journal of his friend's illness; his account is well known. It is well known, also, how, in the words of Talleyrand, Mirabeau dramatized his death: how he spoke to his friends like an ancient philosopher, how he received with a smile on his lips his old friend Talleyrand, with whom he wished to be reconciled. "J'emporte avec moi," said he to Frochot, "le deuil de la monarchie; après ma mort, les factieux s'en disputeront les lambeaux"—a splendid sentence which makes one think of Alexander and his generals.

His dramatic death, amid flowers and to the sound of music, was followed by a dramatic funeral, a sort of apotheosis. Lafayette, who had been so long his open or secret enemy, figured at the head of the national guard. Remember under what a cloud of contempt Mirabeau had entered the States-General; yet now a whole nation mourns him, and his name will go down to the most remote posterity, for he personified all that was great, and necessary, and inevitable in the French Revolution.

Correspondence.

A STANDING COURT OF ARBITRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While all Europe is, as it were, an armed camp, Commissioners from the United States of America are traversing the four corners of the earth to welcome mankind to a peaceful contest in the arts and sciences at the forthcoming Columbian Exposition at Chicago. The contrast herein involved illustrates well the unique position which the Republic occupies among nations. Self-contained and self-reliant, too strong to stand in fear of aggression, and holding itself aloof from the complications of political intrigues and political alliances, this country is distinctly a power on the side of peace. It was, therefore, entirely in keeping with the fitness of things that the United States should have been one of the first to accept the system of arbitration as a substitute for the *ultima ratio regum*, as the best way of disposing of difficulties between contending nations.

Arbitration grows year by year in favor with thoughtful men. Nevertheless, there is a palpable defect in the merely occasional nature of the courts which are from time to time instituted for the settlement of special cases. When, as in the Geneva arbitration upon the *Alabama* claims, representatives of the contending countries are members of the court, being appointed *ad hoc*, they cannot but officiate under the disadvantage of seeming to be partisans or advocates, rather than judges. Appointed for the occasion only, they would not be human if they did not identify themselves more or less with their country's cause. On the other hand, where a third party is called in to arbitrate, it is almost inevitable that the losing side should feel aggrieved by the decision. Thus, it has required the exercise of some self-control on the part of the French to restrain the expression of their mortification at the recent decision of the Czar of Russia upon the question of the boundary between French Guiana and Dutch Guiana. French disappointment with that award would have been loudly proclaimed but for the present *entente* between Russia and France. Again, as between two of the great military Powers, there might be the fear that the one to propose arbitration might risk the loss of prestige. In the place of such fitful, casual, unstable provision for arbitration for individual cases of dispute between two countries, what is wanted is a standing Court of Arbitration for all the nations of the earth.

To this Court of Peace each nation should nominate a single judge, or so many judges as might be agreed upon. The judges should hold their appointments for life. It goes without saying that each country would try to do itself honor by nominating to such an exalted office only persons illustrious for learning, intellect, and character. Holding office by a permanent tenure, the judges would make the law of nations their special study. At the same time, that tenure would inspire confidence in their decisions, as they would be placed above the fear of removal from office for joining in decisions adverse to their own countries. They would also be beyond suspicion of acting as partisans against foreign parties. The sittings of the Court of Peace might be held in the several capitals of the world in turn. These sittings and all the proceedings of the Court should be open, public, and clear as the sunlight in the eyes of all men. The parties to the various suits should submit their pleadings in writing, while the Court should have power to hear oral testimony and counsel in open court. All decisions of the Court should be given in writing, with the reasons upon which the decisions are founded. Compliance with its judgment should be required within a stated period. If after such a trial by such a court a righteous judgment were not arrived at, then might mankind despair.

"But," it will be asked, "how shall the judgments of the Court be enforced?" The answer is, "By the public opinion of the world." Any nation that refused to bow to the judgment of the Court, should be stigmatized by being called upon to withdraw its representative from the Court.

There is no intention to suggest that the establishment of the Court of Peace would do away with war. There can, at the same time, be no doubt that its existence would minimize resort to the arbitrament of the sword. It should also be well understood that because a nation had its representative in that court, that nation should not thereby oblige itself to submit for adjustment all or any of its differences with others. The fact of the existence of such a court would induce the nations to resort to it for a peaceful settlement of their differences. Thither, indeed, irritating questions which might otherwise result in the horrors of war, should be taken, and there be disposed of in a manner such as would secure peace with honor to both parties, with the consensus of all nations.

And by which country should the glorious mission be assumed of acting as the harbinger of peace? By the United States, we say emphatically. Armed to the teeth as are the great Powers of Europe, not one of them could afford to risk the imputation that a proposal to establish such a court proceeded from a desire to avoid a settlement by the sword. While, therefore, America is summoning the world to a peaceful contest at the Columbian Exposition, let the Government of the United States at the same time set on foot measures for the early establishment of a standing Court of Arbitration or the nations of the earth. The anniversary of the discovery of the New World could not be more fittingly celebrated than by the inauguration in 1892 of a Court of Peace at the instance of America.

D. A. R.

STATE GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps there is no man in the country whose words on the subject of municipal government carry more weight than those of Mr. Seth Low. My present object is not to add anything to his interesting article in the *Century*, but to use what may be called his major premise to enforce my own conclusions:

"Nothing is better settled in every State in the Union than that the Legislature of the State, unless it be limited by the State Constitution, has absolute and arbitrary control over a city's charter. The State may grant a charter or revoke it. The State may enlarge the powers granted to the city, or it may diminish them; it may assign duties under the city charter to officers elected by the people, or to officers named by the Governor, or designated by itself."

Is it not true that a great part of the difficulty of New York city government in the past has arisen from the tinkering of the charter by the Legislature at the instigation of intriguers? I will add a few words from Mr. James Bryce:

"An American may, through a long life, never be reminded of the Federal Government except when he votes at Presidential and Congressional elections, lodges a complaint against the post-office, and opens his trunks for a custom-house officer on the pier at New York when he returns from a tour in Europe. His direct taxes are paid to officials under State laws. The State, or a local authority constituted by State statutes, registers his birth, appoints his guardian, pays for his schooling, gives him a share in the estate of his father deceased, licenses him when he enters a trade (if it be one needing a license), marries him, divorces him, entertains civil actions against him, declares him a bankrupt, hangs him for murder. The police that guard his house, the local boards which look after the poor, control highways, impose water rates, manage schools—all these derive their legal powers from his State alone."

In other words, the State governments are

by far the most important in the country. Yet who thinks or talks about the State governments except as regards the men and the party who are to possess and control them? Take the State Convention which met this week at Rochester. The name of Andrew D. White, having been talked of, was almost abjectly withdrawn because it did not suit Mr. Platt, and over a thousand men went to Rochester to register the decree (like the Parliament of Louis XIV.) of the said Platt that an individual named Fassett was to be the Republican candidate for Governor, while the people of the State, having no opportunity to vote for men of the stamp of Mr. White, are absolutely limited to a choice between the said Fassett and Mr. R. P. Flower, or some equivalent nominee of a Democratic Convention. It is difficult to read the platform without a burst of laughter. Why should the Republicans of New York State feel called upon to say that

"The cruelties and persecutions practised upon the Jews in Russia are abhorrent to the sense of justice of this people"?

It would have been more practical to print the Ten Commandments with full approval. Of the twenty-five clauses, thirteen consist of abstract declarations as to Federal affairs, although, except indirectly, as securing the supremacy of one of the two great parties, this election has nothing whatever to do with Federal affairs. The other twelve clauses consist of equally general declarations as to State affairs, which might have been much more briefly and forcibly put by saying, "Everything that the Democrats have done is bad. Everything that the Republicans have done is good."

Hear Mr. Low once more:

"A commission appointed by the Legislature is responsible to nobody but the Legislature. Neither the Governor nor the Mayor nor any other authority can call it to account, and therefore a State commission for any purpose other than inquiry is one of the most dangerous of bodies, for the reason that it exercises authority unchecked by responsibility."

I cannot speak as to New York, but I know that the whole executive government of Massachusetts is in the hands of eight or ten just such commissions, and that Gov. Russell in vain called the attention of the Legislature to the fact last winter. Again:

"This is one of the great reasons why heads of departments should not be elected; because officials who receive their authority from a direct vote of the people are inclined to feel entirely independent of one another, and to look upon the popular vote as to a certain extent an authority to do what they please."

This, which is an exceedingly mild way of putting it, is just as true of the State as of the city. The Governor, having no public influence with the Legislature, is further deprived by this cause of all control over administration, and it is this dislocation of the executive power which has led to the government of the State by commissions.

The great needs of State government are two: first, that which I have occasionally pointed out with reference to the Federal Government, the presence of the chief executive officers in the Legislature; and, second, the preliminary, without which the other can be of no avail, the full power of appointment by the Governor of his official staff or Cabinet.

Why is it that men of the type of Andrew D. White cannot go forward and ask for votes independent of the party managers? Because they cannot say to the people, "I ask you to give me a place of so many thousands a year, though you know, as well as I, that I can render no honest service in return." The Platts and Fassetts and Flowers have no such hesitation, but even they cannot do it openly, and so they resort to conventions—it would not be fair to say packed, but of which they can secretly pull the strings. But if such a man as Mr. White were to take in hand the reforms I have mentioned, go straight to the people and explain the need of them, and, backed by the thousands of independent supporters who are ready and waiting for a man of honest and earnest purpose, should ask the people for assistance in carrying them into effect, it does not require a very strong effort of imagination to suppose him capable of wrestling with and flooring the self-constituted managers of party.

G. B.

Boston, September 12, 1891.

CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an old translation of the Marquis de Chastellux's 'Travels in North America' (New York, 1827) I find in a footnote, page 180, the following extract from a letter by Mr. Paine to the Abbé Raynal:

"Respecting *Canada*, one or the other of these two events will take place, viz.: if Canada should become populous it will revolt, and if it do not become so it will not be worth the expense of holding. But Canada *never will* become populous; Britain may put herself to great expense in sending out settlers to Canada, but the descendants of those settlers will be Americans as other descendants have been before them. They will look round and see the neighboring States sovereign and free, respected abroad, and trading at large with the world; and the natural love of liberty, the advantages of commerce, the blessings of independence and of a *happier climate and a richer soil* will draw them *southward*, and the effects will be Britain will sustain the expense and America reap the advantage; and the same may be said of *Halifax* and the country round it. One would think the experience Britain has had of America would entirely sicken her of all thoughts of *continental* colonization, and any part she may retain will only become to her a field of jealousy and thorns, of debate and contention, forever struggling for privileges and meditating revolt. She may form *new settlements*, but they will be for us; *they will become part of the United States of America;* and that against all her contrivances to prevent it, or without any endeavor of ours to promote it."

The italics are in the original. The great Thomas Paine seems to have foreseen the Canadian census returns so ably criticised in your issue of the 10th inst.—Yours truly, T. B. B.

Newburgh, N. Y., September 12, 1891.

"ESCAPE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dr. Murray and your reviewer have both overlooked an interesting use of *escape* in a collective sense, as a group or multitude of escaping creatures, after the analogy of "a flight of arrows." It occurs in 'Sordello' (p. 38, ed. 1840):

"——songs go up exulting, then dispread,
Dispart, disperse, lingering overhead
Like an escape of angels."

I am, sir, etc.,
Wm. Hand Browne.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will publish directly 'Harmony of Ancient History, and Chronology of the Egyptians and Jews,' by Malcolm Macdonald; and 'The Natural History of Man, and The Rise and Progress of Philosophy,' lectures by Alexander Kinmont.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'We All,' a tale of adventure in Arkansas, by Octave Thanet; and 'A History of Modern Civilization,' based on Gustav Ducoudray's.

M. L. Holbrook & Co., New York, have in press a translation from the German by Miss Jessica Gilbert Tyler, of Dr. Ewald Flügel's 'Moral and Religious Development of Thomas Carlyle,' with a new portrait.

A new and enlarged edition of Miss E. E. Brown's 'Life of James Russell Lowell' will be immediately brought out by D. Lothrop Co., Boston.

The sixth and concluding volume of the 'Century Dictionary' is now about to appear. The work has been extended by 500 pages and 2,000 illustrations beyond the original promise to subscribers.

Prof. Martin Hertz of Breslau is just entering upon an enormous task in Latin philology. It is his purpose to undertake for the Latin tongue the service which Dr. Murray and Mr. Bradley, together with their collaborators, are performing for our own. The historical method of the 'New English Dictionary' will be followed by him. Every Latin word will be traced from its origin down to Low Latin times, and each variation in its meaning will be noted. It is reckoned that the work will run to ten volumes of large quarto size and of about 1,200 pages each, and that its preparation will take eighteen or twenty years. Fifty scholars will collect notes and quotations which will be edited by ten of the best German Latinists. The cost of the undertaking is estimated at from half a million to a million marks, and will be assumed by the Prussian Government.

Prof. Weismann's 'Essays upon Heredity and Kindred Biological Problems' have made their mark, and a new edition of the authorized English translation has just been begun (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). Volume i. is before us, and contains all of the previous edition, with a few verbal alterations and corrections. A second volume will shortly appear, comprising four additional essays—one upon the Musical Sense. Having already reviewed the essays in volume i., we await the publication of its fellow for further comment.

'Die Lügen unserer Socialdemokratie, nach amtlichen Quellen enthüllt und widerlegt von Hans Blum,' is announced by Hinstorff in Wismar. The name of the author (a distinguished member of the German Diet) is a sufficient guarantee that the exposure and refutation will be vigorous and thorough, if not wholly *sine ira et studio*.

'Madame de Warens et le Pays de Vaud, par Albert de Montet' (Lausanne: Bridal) is a new contribution to the already voluminous Rousseau literature. It is a reprint from *Mémoires et Documents de la Suisse Romande*, and possesses little more than a local interest. The author states that the lady's name was Vuarens.

M. Firmin Didot has just published 'Mithridate Eupator, Roi de Pont,' by Théodore Reinach. M. Théodore Reinach is the youngest of three well-known brothers, of whom Joseph, the eldest, has made his mark in the political world as a publicist and deputy, and Salomon, the second, is the distinguished archæologist. Théodore, after winning much academic distinction, and trying his wings in various directions in literature, appears to have settled down to steady historical work, for which he has already displayed a very considerable talent.

The exact date of the birth of La Condamine, the illustrious French savant of the eighteenth century, has hitherto been unknown. The discovery of it is due to M. Mage, who has just announced to the Académie des Sciences that he has found the record of La Condamine's baptism in the register of a little church in the outskirts of Moulins. The date of his birth is therein given as January 27, 1701.

The 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual' for 1891 (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*) again marks an advance in bulk on its predecessor. Publishers' lists will grow, and more of them tend each year to be represented in this great collection. The *width* of the present volume still falls below that of the huge British 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature' by about one-third, but its height is greater, and it would not be easy to compare the total contents of the two. In the 'Trade-List Annual,' of course, many English lists are included, by reason of branch houses in this country.

'Geometry of Position' is the title of a small octavo volume of 192 pages by Robert H. Graham (Macmillan). Strictly construed, the title denotes a branch of geometry in which the relations of forms in space are considered only in so far as they depend upon position, exclusive of all ideas of quantity or magnitude and all metrical relations. But the absolute separation of the geometry of position and the geometry of magnitude is impracticable if not impossible, and hence various other names have been proposed. Prof. Cremona of the University of Rome, for reasons which seem to us sufficient, preferred the title 'Projective Geometry,' and applied it to his work on the subject already noticed in these columns. The name 'Perspective Geometry' would also not be inappropriate, for projection and perspective are the two fundamental notions of the subject. It appears from Mr. Graham's preface that he was obliged to pursue the study originally under circumstances which made it necessary to work out large portions of it himself. This gives to his book a coloring of originality which we have no doubt will be interesting to those who are already acquainted with the subject; but for a beginner, and especially one who attempts to master the subject without a teacher, we think the book far less suitable than Cremona's treatise.

The Professor of Mathematics at Princeton, Mr. H. B. Fine, is the author of 'The Number System of Algebra' (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn), a small octavo embracing a range and variety of topics the adequate discussion of which would require a library rather than a volume which in size is little more than a pamphlet. The references in the preface, text, and notes show that the book is the result of very extensive reading; of how much thought, the writer alone can tell. It is divided into two parts, the "Theoretical" and "Historical." The first is an attempt to explain and reduce into a consistent system those fundamental concepts and processes which form the basis of the whole superstructure of mathematical science. The nature and properties of numbers, integral and fractional, positive and negative, rational and irrational, real and imaginary, or (by a broader generalization intended by the author to embrace all these classes) natural and artificial, are discussed, and the conclusions at which the author has arrived are stated and explained. Intermingled, as must necessarily be the case, with this discussion of the nature and properties of the various kinds of numbers is a discussion of the fundamental operations to which they are subjected—addition and subtraction, multiplication and division, involution and evolution, series, and many other things for which we must refer to the book itself. The work is written from both a mathematical and a philosophical point of view, but the mathematical decidedly predominates. The second part of Prof. Fine's book is an attempt to condense into 53 pages a sketch of the history of the development of mathematical ideas and processes from the first attempts at some systematic method of counting and notation up to the 'Quaternions' of Hamilton and the 'Ausdehnungslehre' of Grassmann. Perhaps all that can rightfully be demanded of such an attempt is that it should contain no erroneous statements, should be interesting, and should stimulate to further inquiry. We think Prof. Fine's sketch answers these requirements. The book is perhaps the most striking of the recent indications that American mathematicians are beginning to look at their science from a more philosophical point of view, and to feel some curiosity as to the history of the development of those processes which they have hitherto regarded merely as useful methods of arriving at certain desired results. We recommend its perusal to all mathematicians who consider their science as something more than a mere tool, and especially to all who are or intend to become teachers of mathematics.

Any one who is interested in the psychological puzzle afforded by the career of the late Laurence Oliphant, and is at the same time able to procure a copy of the *Sonoma Democrat* of August 22, published at Santa Rosa, Cal., will, on reading the first page, conclude that the puzzle is greater than ever. The editor introduces with a great flourish his distinguished townsman, Thomas Lake Harris, who has "resided in our midst for the last seventeen years." Three portraits of Harris at different periods, and a view of "Fountaingrove," his present residence, "one of the finest in structure, finish, and appurtenances in the State," with a "grand library," and with "magnificent paintings adorning the walls," are given. The article is succeeded by a long, windy, and unintelligible farrago on the "Brotherhood of the New Life," by Harris himself, who scouts the personal imputations of the Oliphant biography, and reviles a blackmailing press. He has not only got past asceticism, but has, for himself, "overcome the universal racial tendency to physical deterioration and disease." The whole production makes one marvel that a person of the smallest intellectuality could ever be subjected to such a high-priest.

In the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, Senator Hoar has a paper comparing the Governments of Canada and the United States, in which he argues against the adoption in this country of "the change in the Executive with the changing majority of the House"—a step recommended by no man or party, so far as we know. There is also a very readable biographical sketch of the late George Bancroft, by Mr. Samuel Swett Green. It abounds in interesting anecdotes and intimate side-lights.

The third of the interesting and valuable series of papers on Britannic Confederation, now being published in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, is on the "Commerce of the British Empire." The author, Mr. G. G. Chisholm, starts with the assertion that a natural and essential accompaniment of the idea of political confederation is a Customs Union, without, however, giving any opinion as to its practicability. He then proceeds to show in detail the commercial relations of Great Britain with each of its principal colonies and India. Canada, he finds, within the past few years has done a greater export and import trade with the United States than with the mother country, and there seems no reason why this increase should not continue indefinitely. In like manner, though the bulk of the external trade of Australia and New Zealand is still with Great Britain, yet this trade is declining and foreign trade is growing, especially that with Germany, the value of the wool directly exported to Continental ports having increased from £172,000 in 1881 to £1,557,000 in 1888. In India, four-fifths of the total imports are from Great Britain. The exports to that country are, however, declining, and those to other countries are rapidly increasing. Here again Germany shows her activity, the value of her imports of Indian products having grown from £300,000 in 1886 to about £2,000 000 in 1890. There is also an immense increase in the amount of cotton yarn sent from India to China and Japan, namely, from less than 8,000,000 pounds in 1877 to over 162,000,000 in the year ending March 31, 1891. The recent opening of new countries in South Africa makes it impossible to draw any conclusions as to the normal commercial relations of these colonies with the mother country. The general drift of the paper, which is illustrated by three diagrams, is to the effect that the commercial ties between Great Britain and her colonies are gradually loosening and weakening.

In the *Alpine Journal* for August (Longmans), there is a paper on mountaineering in Southern Colorado, by Percy W. Thomas, after the reading of which Mr. James Bryce related his personal experiences, comparing the delightful effects of the scenery in that State with those of the East, where a similar clearness of atmosphere prevails. A paper by Walter Leaf, on "Climbing with a Hand Camera," is remarkable for some very striking instantaneous views of unconscious climbers in very ticklish situations; and, indeed, the writer's purpose is to direct attention to the possibilities of this line of "snap-shots."

A new monthly medical journal makes its appearance, its scope being fairly well indicated by its name—the *Climatologist* (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders). There would seem to be an advantage in such a clearing-house for the setting off the claims of rival localities against each other. Bethlehem, N. H., Southern California, and Colorado send in their drafts in this first number, which contains also a well-considered article by Dr. A. L. Loomis on the use of tuberculin.

On August 28 steps were taken, at a meeting held at the Columbian University, Washington, to form a National Association of Government Geologists for the determination of the proper objects of public geologic work, the improvement and unification of methods, the mutual adjustment of national and State surveys, coöperation to prevent duplication, etc. A committee of six on organization was appointed, Mr. Arthur Winslow, State Geologist of Missouri, being the Secretary.

The attempt to revive the Oriental Translation Fund has failed, but the Council of the Royal Asiatic Society will lend its support to a new series of publications, beginning with a full and complete translation of the first two parts of Mirkhond's 'Rauzat-us-Safa,' or 'Garden of Purity,' which contains the Moslem version of our Bible stories from the creation of genii before Adam to the death of Aaron. Subscribers (for a limited edition) should address F. F. Arbuthnot, 18 Park Lane, London, W.

—Any one who turns the pages of the twelfth volume of Dr. John S. Billings's 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.,' may judge for himself, by the comparative absence of long subject-titles, that author-titles are more than commonly numerous. These amount, in fact, to upwards of 20,000, or nearly 5,000 more than were recorded in the next fullest volume (v.); and it appears that so many pamphlets by about 5,000 have not heretofore been recorded. On the other hand, the journal articles entered are the fewest yet, by the same figures. Rheumatism is the ill that musters here the greatest literature, filling 46 pages. That enemy of the generation which antedates the forties, Scrofula, might have pushed Rheumatism hard; but there has been a partition which almost gives us a *Finis Scrofulæ*, and we are bidden to see Baths, Bones, Bubo, Cornea, Conjunctivis, Eye, Glands, Joints, Marriage, Neck, Phthisis, Skin, and even Venice. Still, Scrofula claims 14 pages. Scarlatina, together with a list of epidemics arranged by localities, demands 40 pages; Respiration, 19; the Retina and the Shoulder, 18 each. Sewage obtains 38 pages, Seasickness but 2, as against the 12 allotted to Serpents, to say nothing of what is given to Scorpions and Salamanders. Among the authors, the Schmidts (the Smiths are yet to come), the Schulzes, and the Schwarzes make a brave showing. A small percentage of titles have no appropriate place in this collection, like J. Rothen's 'Liederkranz' of the names of Jehovah. Others, quite appropriate, are somewhat unexpected, like Rousseau's Letters on Botany, along with writings concerning his alleged suicide and his chronic ailment, his sanity, etc. Schiller, on the other hand, enters in by virtue of his Inquiry into the Connection between Man's Brute and Spiritual Natures; and also we meet with a discussion of his skull and death-mask.

—A reading of this index for the queer, obsolete, unique, or merely technical words in the older English titles (which are very fully quoted) would be a service to Dr. Murray and his Dictionary, and the reader would find his or her reward in amusement, especially if able to enjoy the foreign titles also. Not a few are here that relate to the plague, and how to fortify one's self against it—"durch Hülffe Gottes und gute Ordnung." Other works are upon general hygiene, *e. g.*, the 'Regimen Sanitatis' of 1508, with its maxim for Nurembergers and the rest of mankind: "Vestibus indutis bene dentes osque lavabis, si vis esse sanus; tunc ablue sæpe manus," which leaves unwashed the clothed parts of the body. How far the dark ages reach down into the present is evidenced by "Sensus Communis" in his tractate, 'The Cholera, no Judgment! The efficacy, philosophy, and practical tendency of the prayer by the Archbishop of Canterbury, ordered to be used during the prevalence of cholera, examined in a letter addressed to the Right Hon. the Earl of Carlisle' (London, 1849). The anti-vaccinationists of our day may go back to William Rowley, author in 1805 of 'Cow-pox inoculation no security against small-pox infection; to which are added the modes of treating the beastly new diseases produced from cow-pox,' etc. Perhaps it would not be hard to match in current publications some of the astrological medical works here recorded in more than one language. For an example, Richard Sanders's 'The Astrological Judgment and Practice of Physick, deduced from the position of the heavens at the decumbiture of the sick person' (London: 1681) will suffice. A century later we meet with N. Robinson's 'Treatise on the virtues and efficacy of a crust of bread eat early in the morning fasting, to which are added some particular remarks concerning the great cures accomplished by the saliva or fasting spittle, etc.' One of the most curious sections, and not brief, is Sacred Embryology—in an Italian definition, "embriologia sacra," or the duty of priests, physicians, and superiors in the matter of the eternal welfare of the fœtus; in a French definition, "accouchement et embryologie selon les théologiens." Questions which troubled the theologic mind only two centuries ago in Europe were, as we gather from Boudewyns' 'Ventilabrum Medicum-Theologicum' (Antwerp, 1666), such as this: "An satyri, pigmæi, centauri, hermaphroditæ . . . baptizari debeant?"

—It would be difficult to light upon two books upon the same subject—Travels in Ireland—so widely different in their character and composition as two published this year (both about the same size and price, and bound in the national color), which lie before us, viz., Pococke's 'Tour in Ireland in 1752' (London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.), and Mrs. Walter's translation of Mme. de Bovet's 'Three Months' Tour in Ireland [in 1890]' (Charles Scribner's Sons). Pococke was a grave churchman who tasted to the full the sweets of ecclesiastical preferment and died Bishop of Meath, but who spent more time in journeying than in the cure of souls. His volumes of travel in the East are of importance even at the present day. He discovered Chamounix. The book cited above, lately found in MS. in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin, has been ably edited by Prof. Stokes. Mme. de Bovet is a lively Frenchwoman. The one treats of Ireland lying as it were in a death trance—mainly of ruins and of the noblemen and gentry to whom the country had been given over. The institutions that claimed Pococke's chief interest were the charter schools, through which it was expected that the Irish would be rescued from Popery. The masses of the people were nowhere. It is only regarding the old Anglo-Norman colony in the Barony of Forth that we have any sympathetic writing. Mme. de Bovet treats of the Ireland of to-day seething with life; the people themselves, their hopes and fears, their shortcomings and their virtues, the chief interest, even above the glorious scenery she so well describes. Pococke is cold, dry, exact. His book will always be of value as a record of Ireland in the past. Mme. de Bovet is graphic and interesting; her narrative abounds in minor errors. Pococke gives us no real conception of what Ireland was in 1752. When the reader has forgotten Mme. de Bovet's facts, and when her exaggerations on one side and the other are toned down in his mind, he will have a very fair general idea of what Ireland is in the present. How much more valuable the one would be as a record if it had been illustrated as is the other! In both the thoughtful reader cannot but find much to repay him.

—The authorities of the British Museum, unlike not a few Continental institutions, have of late shown most commendable enterprise in giving to the world, without prolonged delays and in forms accessible to the majority of scholars, the ancient literary treasures recently acquired by the Museum. The 'Constitution of Athens,' published in January last, is now followed by 'Classical Texts from Papyri in the British Museum,' edited by Mr. Kenyon, with the aid, at different points, of Dr. Rutherford, Dr. Sandys, the Rev. E. L. Hicks, and Prof. Jebb. This thin volume contains the texts, or collations of texts, with nine autotype facsimiles, of all the papyrus manuscripts of literary works in Greek owned by the Museum, with the exception of those already published. Here are the texts of three classical works that have hitherto been unknown, and collations of seven manuscripts of works already extant. The latter include portions of the 'Iliad,' the third of the epistles ascribed to Demosthenes, and nearly the whole of the oration of Isocrates On the Peace; and the manuscripts collated are of course more ancient, in some cases by eight or ten centuries, than those hitherto available. It is gratifying to discover that in all important respects the vellum manuscripts of the Middle Ages yield a text at once purer and more original than that of these ancient Egyptian papyrus copies. But by far the most interesting parts of the volume are those containing the texts now first recovered. These texts comprise, first, seven poems of about one hundred lines each, in part complete, of the iambographer Herodas (or Herondas), a poet hitherto little more than a name; second, a fragment of a spirited speech that may safely be ascribed to Hypereides, and, third, a small fragment of a grammatical treatise bearing the name of Tryphon. The poems or mimes of Herondas—who lived probably about 200 B. C., perhaps at Cos—introduce us to a new branch of Greek literature; they are in dialogue form, and were probably intended for representation; they are not unlike some of the idyls of Theocritus, though much inferior in poetic character. Colloquial in style, bright and sprightly, but without the pungency of satire, abounding in proverbs, many of which are new, they afford rare glimpses into domestic manners and customs. The subjects of these poems are: "The Matchmaker," "The Pandar," "The Schoolmaster," "A Visit to Asclepius," "A Jealous Woman," "Friends in Council," and "The Shoemaker." The student of Greek life, the archæologist, and the grammarian alike will find the works of Herondas of great interest. Mr. Kenyon has given, in this *editio princeps*, only a faithful transcript of the readings of the papyrus; for a critical text of this new poet one must look to Dr. Rutherford, whose recension has just appeared.

—If the visitor to Bayreuth questions the artistic perfection of the Wagner performances, there can be no doubt as to their present commercial and fashionable value. The month's festival just over has been the most profitable on record. From barely paying expenses, the famous theatre, according to report, now makes a more than fair profit. In England alone, where scarcely 1,500 tickets were sold a couple of years ago, about 3,000 have been easily disposed of this summer. Those who waited to secure seats until the last moment were at times obliged to give ten, and twelve, and fifteen dollars for a single one, to speculating hotel porters and waiters. Fashion, too, has set its seal of approval upon Wagnerism. Princesses have been to the little Bavarian town on their wedding journey. Piccadilly and Fifth Avenue have emptied themselves into the long drive which leads up the hill to the Opera-house. But, on the other hand, there is disaffection in the inner Wagner camp. The Wagner societies of Europe, suddenly waking up to the fact that their Bayreuth is being fast monopolized by the world of fashion, have protested against the wholly commercial manner in which the

theatre is now being run. It was not for this, not to establish the greatest musical show on earth, that they contributed to the enterprise and carried it through despite the then indifference of the general public. Frau Wagner, however, does not seem to sympathize with them, and so far they have protested in vain. That they are not without reason from an artistic standpoint has been recognized by English and Continental papers of note, such as the London *Times*, the Vienna *Freie Presse*, and the Paris *Figaro*, which have not been slow to point out weaknesses in the Bayreuth performances to which the Wagner worshipper remains fashionably blind.

—We very much regret to record the death at Schenectady, on the 12th inst., of the Rev. Robert Traill Spence Lowell, elder brother of the late James Russell Lowell, whom he survived exactly one month. He was born in Boston October 8, 1816, and diverged from the Unitarian line of his family to become, after graduation from Harvard and after having acquired a medical education, a clergyman of the Episcopal Church. His most celebrated and important charge was in the island of Newfoundland in 1846–'47, out of which grew his novel, 'The New Priest of Conception Bay.' This work had a striking success, bearing, as it did, the mark of a highly cultivated and original mind. Issued in 1858, it was reissued, with illustrations by Darley, in 1863, and on June 12, 1889, Mr. Lowell wrote to us from Schenectady: "Just at this moment I am full of the going-over of a revision for the Publishers; having just got through, for them, with night-and-day work on 'The New Priest'; which they have determined to bring out, again, without waiting for a new novel that they have long been asking from the author." Mr. Lowell was a poet, too, as the volume, 'Fresh Hearts that Failed Three Thousand Years Ago' (1860), testifies. From 1869 to 1873 he was head-master of St. Mark's School at Southborough, Mass., and left a deep and kindly impression on his pupils. His next post of usefulness was as Professor of Latin at Union College. He became in 1883 a contributor to the *Nation*, and enriched its columns with genial, scholarly reviews, written in a style of peculiar raciness that could not fail to attract attention. Some of these related to Newfoundland. On the 30th of last July he wrote to us, for the last time, in these words:

"I have, still lying here, a half-note written to you long ago, explaining my laches. For a year and a half, I have had the grippe, which, in the course of its residence, has been visited, for longer or shorter, by friends and kindred; as, twice by sharp spurious pleurisy, and by winter cholera, with two backcomings.—I am a very sick and weak man, now; unable to sit at a desk, and unable to sit much, at any rate. On the whole, there seems an intermittent gain. For the present, therefore, best wishes only, and always, to the *Nation* and you."

—A Tartarin of real life has lately died in Paris in the person of a M. Gros, dictator *in partibus* of the Republic of Counani. This republic is situated in the disputed country that lies between French Guiana and Brazil. A French adventurer, passing through it, had some conferences with the chiefs of the native roving tribes that are its only inhabitants, and was constituted, or constituted himself, their minister plenipotentiary to the rest of the world. M. Gros, all this while, was living peacefully at Vanves, writing school geographies and acting as municipal councillor, ignorant of his high destiny. To him came one morning the adventurer, offering him the suzerainty of Counani. He appears to have accepted it in the most perfect good faith. He appointed a First Minister, a Consul-General, an official newspaper, and set up his national bureaus in the Rue du Louvre at Paris. He founded an order of knighthood and distributed its crosses—some for love and some, it is said, for money. This would, indeed, appear to be the only source of revenue that Counani afforded. At last disturbance broke out between him and his Consul-General, and they mutually deposed each other. Of course, all this has added sensibly to the gayety of ruder Paris for the last few years, and the laughers made up a fund ostensibly to send M. Gros out to Counani to settle the affairs of his realm. He was taken no further than London, however, and returned to Paris to die, still full of unabated hope and confidence in his great future as a monarch.

—'Di alcuni Misuratori del Movimento Economico in Italia' (Roma: Salviucci, 1891) is a quarto volume of one hundred and six pages, in which Signor Bodio gives an admirable condensation and tabulation of the statistics contained in the voluminous publications issued from time to time by the different departments of the Italian Government. This work has a much larger scope than its title indicates, since it is not confined to "the economical movement in Italy," but embraces all the forces and factors which enter into the moral, intellectual, social, industrial, and national life of the Italian people and constitute the essential elements of contemporary Italian civilization. The author brings out in a clear and compendious manner the causal connection between the various influences and impulses, such, for example, as the effect of the diffusion of popular education in decreasing the death-rate, in diminishing crime, in increasing the material comfort of the working-classes and fostering an intelligent spirit of enterprise and thrift, which may ultimately result in the general substitution of savings-banks for investments in lottery-tickets. Of the recruits for the army in 1866, 36 per cent., and in 1888, 57 per cent., were able to read and write, and this progress in elementary instruction may be taken as a fair measure of the general progress of the nation. In Belgium 86, in France 90, in Germany over 98, and in Scandinavia over 99 per cent. of recruits can read and write, so that in this respect Italy still lags far behind the other nations of Western Europe (except Spain), although somewhat in advance of Russia and Servia. In some parts of Southern Italy (in Cosenza, for example) only 16 per cent. of the persons who enter the bonds of matrimony are able to sign their names. A work of a similar and equally scientific character is Dr. Victor Böhmert's *Verwaltungsbericht*, or official report as director of the Royal Statistical Bureau of Saxony, printed in the *Zeitschrift des Königl. Sächsischen Statistischen Bureaus* (1890; Heft i and ii), and covering the period from 1875 to 1889. Dr. Böhmert gives an interesting description of the organization and functions of this department of the public service, the value of which to the statesman, the political economist, and the historian as well as to the agricultural, commercial, and industrial classes can hardly be overestimated.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Company Law: Commentaries on the Law of Private Corporations, whether with or without Capital Stock, also of Joint-Stock Companies, etc. By Charles Fisk Beach, jr. 2 vols. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. 1891.

Constitutional Legislation in the United States: Its Origin and Application to the Relative Powers of Congress and of State Legislatures. By John Ordronaux, LL.D. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co. 1891.

A Treatise on the Law of Negotiable Instruments, including Bills of Exchange, Promissory Notes, Negotiable Bonds and Coupons, etc., etc. By John W. Daniel. 2 vols. 4th ed. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 1891.

Vested Rights: Selected Cases and Notes on Retrospective and Arbitrary Legislation Affecting Vested Rights of Property. By William G. Myer. St. Louis: The Gilbert Book Company. 1891.

The Law of Life Insurance, including Accident Insurance and Insurance by Mutual Benefit Societies. By Frederick H. Cooke. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 1891.

A Treatise on the Law relating to the Custody of Infants, including Practice and Forms. By Lewis Hochheimer. 2d ed. 1891.

Wills and Intestate Succession: A Manual of Practical Law. By James Williams. London: Adam & Charles Black. 1891.

A CORPORATION, according to Chief-Justice Marshall's well-known and often-quoted definition, is "an artificial being, invisible, intangible, and existing only in contemplation of law." Kyd's elaborate description is—

"a collection of many individuals united into one body, under a special denomination, having perpetual succession under an artificial form, and vested by the policy of the law with the capacity of acting in several respects as an individual, particularly of taking and granting property, of contracting obligations, and of suing and being sued, of enjoying privileges and immunities in common, and of exercising a variety of political rights, more or less extensive, according to the design of its institution, or the powers conferred upon it, either at the time of its creation, or any subsequent period of its existence."

Blackstone, as if foreseeing the difficulties into which any attempt at definition might lead him, resorted to similes, likening a corporation at first to a "little republic," and afterwards (having in view its continuous existence) to a river—"as the river Thames is still the same river, though the parts which compose it are changing every instant."

In our time almost every accepted legal conception comes up for reëxamination, and every definition is submitted to a new analysis. Hence it is not surprising to find that few modern judges or text writers are satisfied with the notion of a corporation as an artificial person. Mr. Morawetz, in his admirable treatise, has devoted a great deal of learning and ingenuity to showing that the existence of a corporation independently of its shareholders is a fiction, and that the rights and duties of an incorporated association are in reality the rights and duties of the persons who compose it, and not of an imaginary being. Mr. Beach, imbued with the common professional dislike of any extreme systematic view, is of opinion that "the truth would seem to lie between" the old technical view and the modern theory. If we may venture a suggestion, it would be that Mr. Beach does not very clearly apprehend the scope of the conception which he criticises. Nor is this a barren or academical question. If we turn to one of the latest and most thoroughly argued corporation cases—that relating to the Sugar Trust—we find that one of the grounds of defence to the action for the dissolution of the North River Sugar Refining Company was, that, the trustees and directors not having acted, there had been no corporate

action. The *corporation* had done nothing for which it could be punished; but the Court of Appeals, declaring that what the whole body of corporators had done (*i. e.*, in divesting themselves of their corporate powers and putting them in trust) the corporation had itself done, went so far as to say that "the abstract idea of a corporation, the legal entity, the impalpable and intangible creation of human thought, is itself a fiction, and has been appropriately described as a figure of speech." This seems to us to err on the side of extravagance of expression, for a legal fiction which has well-defined legal consequences is certainly not a figure of speech.

The whole matter has been fully explained by Mr. Morawetz, as has also the difficult subject of *ultra vires*. It is impossible to avoid comparing the two books, dealing as they do with the same subject, in the light of the most recent decisions. Mr. Beach's collection of cases is the latest, and every late collection of cases is of value to the lawyer. It is really no disparagement to him, but rather complimentary, to compare him with a writer so original and so acute as Mr. Morawetz. As we have hinted, he has not the latter's faculty of analysis, but his collection of cases seems full, and his treatise is an important addition to the half-dozen or so leading modern works which cover the same field.

Prof. Ordronaux describes his work as an "attempt to present, in a concrete form, the entire system of Federal and State legislation as practised under a written constitution in the United States." Its object is also "to expound those administrative powers which, in our dual form of representative government, are sovereign within their several spheres of action." The treatise discusses many of the subjects found in books on the Constitution and in books on hermeneutics, such as the sources, organization, and development of representative government in the United States, constitutional guarantees, impeachment, the "mechanics of legislation," and the meaning of words and phrases. It seems intended for students rather than for practising lawyers, but for use in schools or colleges it is open to the charge of a want of clearness. We cannot suppose, for instance, that Prof. Ordronaux imagines that the act of an American court in treating a law in contravention of the Constitution as null and void has anything to do with "judicial legislation." Indeed, he very justly says, "If a legislative act be made in contravention of the Constitution, it is manifestly no law," and judges cannot be said to legislate when they refuse to follow an enactment which is not law. Why, then, puzzle the student by treating the two things together, in a chapter bearing the extraordinary title, "Judicial Legislation, including Impeachment"?

The chapter on "Words of Common Use" is valuable for its references to cases, but many of the definitions given seem to us beside the mark. "Charitable uses" our author declares to mean, "popularly," gifts for the relief of the poor; *in law*, "any gifts to public uses dependent solely upon the will of a donor." What is the force of "dependent solely upon the will of a donor"? Are not all gifts so dependent? "Benefit," we are told, "means such profit or use as constitutes a *legal consideration*." This would seem to identify the word in law with "consideration." Two cases are referred to, neither of which decides that the word means anything of the kind, and one of which explicitly follows Webster in declaring that "benefit" means "simply advantage, profit," *i. e.*, the word is not used in the case in question in any technical sense whatever. "Benefit" as a technical legal term means generally in the United States the advantage derived by a land-owner from the taking of his property under the right of eminent domain, and is used as the correlative or opposite of the word "damages." "From" and "with" are certainly words in common use, but we do not know that they have any different meaning in law from that which is attached to them in common parlance. The author insists, however, that when "used singly" they are "ambiguous," and suggests that other words should be coupled with them in order to define their intent more certainly, as "from and out of," "together with," etc. We deny altogether the ambiguity imputed to these innocent prepositions, and must maintain that the author's attempt to remove ambiguity from them is not only wholly unnecessary, but confusing. "From Dan to Beersheba" is not an ambiguous phrase. "With all my worldly goods I thee endow" is perfectly clear. The fact is, that the amplified prepositions mean something different from the others. The law has not attached any technical signification to them. These matters cannot be regarded as trivial in a work dealing largely with questions of interpretation.

Mr. Daniel's treatise on negotiable instruments has become a work of such established authority that it is hardly necessary to say more than that a new edition is very welcome. The last one appeared in 1882, and some two thousand new cases are now added, which, according to the preface, "are the result of new illustrations and diversities of established principles rather than of the evolution of new ones." The very remarkable success of this book is a striking proof (to make use of the apt quotation of the author) of what an abundance of new corn can be got out of the old fields of the law by good husbandry. When 'Daniel on Negotiable Instruments' first appeared, probably few lawyers imagined that a new text-book was needed on the subject. Yet it has already distanced all its competitors, and may fairly be said to be at present the standard work on the subject.

Mr. William G. Myer is favorably known to lawyers as the compiler of 'Myer's Federal Decisions,' a voluminous and exhaustive digest, the preparation of which has peculiarly qualified him for taking up any branch of law involving constitutional questions. His work on 'Vested Rights' comprises, according to the preface, "a selection of cases, annotated, on those fundamental and constitutional principles which have for their object the protection of vested rights of property." The annotations do not consist, however, of a gloss by the author, as in most collections of leading cases: they are a digest of decisions grouped under the principal case; and the whole book is consequently at once a collection of leading decisions and a digest. It deals chiefly with Retrospective Laws, the constitutional guarantee of "due process of law," and the provision prohibiting the impairment of the obligation of contracts. There are some fifty-odd leading decisions given in full, and some two thousand other cases briefly digested. There can be no doubt of the value of the work as a digest, but it can hardly take the place of a treatise. The method of arrangement is such as to bring together matters widely diverse in principle, merely because they fall under the same constitutional clause. Thus, Munn vs. Illinois is necessarily annotated together with Eames vs. Savage, because they are both leading cases under section 1 of the 14th Amendment, declaring that no State shall "deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law." But the considerations governing the decision in the two cases were quite different. In the first, the point involved was whether a State law prescribing a maximum rate of toll for warehousing grain was or was not an arbitrary invasion of a *property* right; in the second, whether a summary process for satisfying a judgment against a town by levy and execution upon the goods of any inhabitant was "due process of law." In the first, the discussion turned on the question whether the public had an interest in the property and occupation involved which authorized it to interfere with the price fixed for the service rendered; in the second, whether a particular kind of summary process was included in the constitutional conception of "due process." One was primarily a question of power, the other of interpretation. We cannot agree with the author in thinking that his method renders the result "more useful than if it had been put into the form of a treatise."

Life Insurance is a subject of entirely modern origin, and there is no great accumulation of works devoted to it. The last edition of Bliss's work appeared in 1874. The plan adopted in Mr. Cooke's volume has been that of reserving for the text the statement and exposition of general and fundamental principles, putting all exceptions to and limitations upon these rules into the notes. In this way the book is made very compact, for with apparently a larger number of cases, it does not reach half the size of Bliss's treatise. So far as we have been able to examine it, the work is creditably done. The subject is a difficult and perplexing one, the contract of insurance being governed in many respects by principles not applied in the cases of other contracts, and the effect of warranties and representations being often confusing. We notice one or two statements which seem to need reconsideration—for example, the proposition that "all that the law recognizes as of value to a person and as capable of injury are his *life* and his *property*." Even when the author has explained that in "life" he means to include "health," the statement is incorrect, because it leaves out both liberty and reputation, which are equally under the protection of the law. Again, "In *some cases* there has been asserted a distinction between a contract for insurance against injury to life and one against injury to property; the latter being declared a *contract of indemnity*, and the former a *mere contract to pay on condition*. The only significance of this distinction seems to lie in its bearing on the amount of recovery under the contract." There is no more fundamental distinction between fire and life insurance than that the one is a contract of indemnity, the other not. At page 236 are collected the cases showing the full effect of the distinction, *e. g.*, that an assignee recovers in full, without regard to the amount paid for the assignment; that a creditor is not limited to the amount of his debt; that a tenant insuring the life of his landlord recovers the full amount without reference to the value of his interest and regardless of the expiration of his tenancy. In the well-known case of the insurance of Mr. Pitt's life (the debts having been subsequently paid), it was held that there could be no recovery; but, as Mr. Cooke's researches sufficiently show, this is not good law now. Under these circumstances the reference to the matter above given is a little misleading. Upon the whole, Mr. Cooke has performed a difficult task with more than common success.

It is seldom that a second edition of a law-book is smaller than the first, but this is the case with Mr. Hochheimer's revision of his work on the custody of infants. By condensation and excision, he has transformed a considerable octavo into a diminutive hand-book. He is fortunate in having, what is denied to many writers of law, a faculty of condensed statement, and his book in its new form will be found a convenient compendium.

Mr. Williams's hand-book is one of those attempts to state the law of a subject in a small compass which is open to two criticisms: for lawyers it does not give enough; for laymen it gives too much. As a guide to the student or instructor it has some good points, particularly its historical account of wills. For the full enjoyment of the legal feast which the subject may be made to yield—the delicacies furnished by the evolution of the distinction between latent and patent ambiguities, the succulent learning of the marshalling of assets and the wholesome nutriment of charitable uses—for these we must browse in the ampler pastures of Redfield and Jarman.

SANBORN'S LIFE OF HOWE.

Dr. S. G. Howe, the Philanthropist. By F. B. Sanborn. Funk & Wagnalls. 1891.

As a piece of biographical writing, Mr. Sanborn's life of Dr. Howe is clearly an advance upon his lives of Thoreau and John Brown. For writing it Mr. Sanborn had truly admirable preparation. He shared the vicissitudes of Dr. Howe's political career; was his companion in various attempts to defeat the Fugitive Slave Law and in the preparations for the John Brown raid; at a later period was intimately associated with him as Secretary of the State Board of Charities, of which Dr. Howe was president for many years, an office in which Mr. Sanborn succeeded him, retaining it until the Massachusetts spoilsmen cast him out after the brutal manner of their kind. All of this preparation was unconscious; a conscious part was a visit which Mr. Sanborn made to Greece in 1890, when he went over much of the ground associated with Dr. Howe's adventures in 1824 and the five following years. But with all this wealth of general and special preparation, Mr. Sanborn's work has been subject to one serious limitation which has made the net result greatly inferior to what it might otherwise have been. The family of Dr. Howe are preparing a more extended biography, with many extracts from letters and journals which have not been available for Mr. Sanborn, except as he has found them here and there in print. But the life of Dr. Howe would appear to have been one particularly needing the illumination of letters and journals for its fit apprehension, and the little of it that we have makes it evident how much we miss in what remains behind.

Born in 1801, and graduating in 1821 from Brown University, where he abused a meagre opportunity, the medical studies on which he entered were disturbed by rumors of an uprising of the Greeks against the Turks, and, though he took his medical degree in 1824, he set sail for Greece the same year to join the insurgent forces. Byron, with whom popular tradition has associated him as a fellow-soldier, died in April of this year, some months before young Howe's arrival, but his name and fame were everywhere, and he was known only as "great and good." Great misfortune fell upon the Greeks soon after Howe's arrival; the regular warfare ceased, and he joined a guerrilla band, of which another member was the young Whitcombe who shot and nearly killed Byron's friend, Trelawny, in his cavern on Parnassus. Of this episode Mr. Sanborn gives a full account, which is justified by its intrinsic interest, if not by its connection with the main affair. The guerrilla life was rough and hard: "Months without eating other flesh than mountain snails or roasted wasps; weeks without bread, and days without a morsel of food of any kind." So Howe reported his own experience to Horace Mann, but in general only with difficulty could he be induced to talk about his personal adventures, and, though he wrote 'An Historical Sketch of the Greek Revolution,' his own part, so far as it appears, is carelessly slurred over or deliberately veiled. He visited America in 1828, and returned to Greece with a good supply of money, food, and clothing for the miserable victims of oppression. Later he organized a settlement at Corinth, and, when he returned there in 1844, was recognized and made the object of a popular ovation. Mr. Sanborn's account of Howe's Greek life is less continuous and more episodical than we could wish, and the defect, though partly owing to the scantiness of his material, hints at a certain lack of skill as a narrator in his equipment for his task. Howe, the mature man, disparaged the enthusiasm of his youth, setting down his Greek outing to "thoughtless indifference, perhaps ignorance of what courses would have been profitable for him. Lacking prudence and calculation, he followed an adventurous spirit."

There was a "pre-established harmony" in his finding himself in Paris at the time of the Revolution of 1830 and joining the insurrectionists who accompanied Lafayette to the Hôtel de Ville, and also in his being made Chairman of the American-Polish Committee in 1832, and going to Prussian Poland to carry money for the Polish refugees. On his way back he was arrested and kept a secret prisoner in Berlin for several weeks, a fitting climax to his adventurous youth. Already he had entered on a path much less romantic than the one he had so far pursued, but not without greater wonders and surprises in its forward course for the discerning eye. He had come to Europe to study institutions for the blind, and, when freed from his imprisonment by Albert Brisbane's timely interposition, he returned to Boston and entered on the work which was the peculiar glory of his life. Hardly could anything have been more different from the striking circumstances of his earlier career than the slow and patient methods of that education which was practically to give sight to the blind and make the dumb to speak. Almost from the start, Dr. Howe improved upon the European methods. Mr. Sanborn tells the story mainly in Dr. Howe's own words, extracted from his annual reports. It attains its highest point of interest in what Mr. Sanborn's chapter-heading rightly calls "The Wondrous Story of Laura Bridgman." All its details are beautiful and impressive, but the child's discovery of her mother after their first separation is of a pathos not to be excelled. Dr. Howe's interest in the blind quickened his sympathies for every form of physical or mental limitation, and in 1847 his representations induced the State to appropriate $2,500 a year for three years for the alleviation of idiocy. The first ten idiot children were taken into his personal charge at the Blind Asylum in South Boston. Now 300 pupils are educated at a yearly expense of $50,000. Following his account of Dr. Howe's political and anti-slavery labors, Mr. Sanborn gives an account of his later labors for the teaching of articulation to the dumb, and the segregation or isolation of insane persons. Together with Horace Mann, he had advocated the teaching of articulation as early as 1844. There was a war of pamphlets, but victory crowned the standards of the conservative opposition. In 1866 the contest was renewed, the Clarke institution in Northampton was established, and now several thousand children are learning by the new method, which was a proved success in Europe fifty years ago.

Ninety pages of Mr. Sanborn's book (187-277) are devoted to the "Political Conflict," in which Dr. Howe took an active part from 1846 until slavery was destroyed. It must be confessed that these pages are much fuller on the general aspects of the conflict than on Dr. Howe's particular part in it. In one chapter Daniel Webster has an exclusive prominence, and the lack of pertinence is atoned for by the recovery of Webster's Address, written for the Anti-Texas Convention of January 29, 1845. Mr. Sanborn corrects Mr. Adams's statement in his Life of Dana—that the Address was Webster's only in part. He has had access to the manuscript, and says that it is partly in Webster's handwriting and all of his composition. The depth of Webster's fall in 1850 can best be measured by the difference between his 7th of March bid for the Presidency and the humane and spirit-stirring sentiments of this address. Mr. George T. Curtis's suppression of it, and the facts concerning it, in his Life of Webster, shows that he knew the teaching of the fable very well. It is a surprising circumstance that so active a philanthropist as Dr. Howe was so slow to wake up to the importance of the anti-slavery agitation. He gave it very little thought till 1846, when he went into politics as unsuccessful opposition candidate to Robert C. Winthrop in the Congressional election of that year. His engrossment in his special work may plead for arrest of judgment on his tardiness, but that a certain aristocratic temper, allying him with those who shut their doors on Sumner and Phillips, had something to do with it, Mr. Sanborn does not endeavor to conceal. A late recruit, Dr. Howe made large amends for his backwardness by his fidelity once he had joined the anti-slavery ranks. The sending back of fugitive slaves was intolerable to his ethical imagination, and he was one of the most active on the Committee to prevent that wickedness. But while Mr. Sanborn gives a somewhat elaborate account of slave-catching in Boston, he gives us no details of Dr. Howe's services to the poor creatures fearing things more terrible than death. His connection with John Brown was quite as intimate as that of Mr. Sanborn, Gerrit Smith, Theodore Parker, George L. Stearns, or T. W. Higginson; but though the account of this is fuller than of his connection with "the Underground Railroad," it is still insufficient. His action during the reign of terror that succeeded Harper's Ferry did not wholly meet with Mr. Sanborn's approval at the time, but he prints a letter which he then wrote to vindicate him, and it is a sufficient answer to a good deal of criticism that has been directed against the friends who furnished Brown with aid and comfort for his glorious foolishness.

That Dr. Howe had something of the Quixotism of his youth left in his ebbing veins is shown by his favorable regard for the San Domingo scheme which so excited the antagonism of his friend Sumner. Was it some vague suspicion of his resemblance to La Mancha's knight that made the story of his ad-

ventures Dr. Howe's favorite reading during his stay in San Domingo? In a closing chapter, "Character and Results," Mr. Sanborn tells us that Dr. Howe was by no means a faultless character, and indicates some of his limitations: "He could be as capricious and as persistent as if caprice and persistence were not antagonistic qualities. He loved power, though he seldom sought it; and was often unjust to his opponents, of whom, first and last, he had a great many." But in the foregoing chapters there is but the slightest exhibition of these personal traits or of any others, good or bad, and we are left with only the most vague impression of a personality that was extremely rich and strong. Whatever its defects, he loved so much, and did so much for the blind, the prisoner, the deaf and dumb, the feeble-minded, and the oppressed of two continents, that one could easily forgive him much, and our obligation to Mr. Sanborn is great for bringing home to us his high example.

New Light on Dark Africa. By Dr. Carl Peters. Ward, Lock & Co.

THE title of this book is misleading, as it contains nothing new about Africa in general or any part of it, nor does it make clear anything which had previously been obscure. It is simply the record of a buccaneering expedition, which, though ostensibly for the relief of Emin Pasha and the extension of German influence, had no other real end than the gratification of a young adventurer's ambition and love of excitement. Dr. Peters had already been twice in Africa before the time of the expedition of which he gives an account in this volume, and had gained some notoriety for his zeal and success in acquiring territory for Germany. On this occasion he proceeded on principles entirely different from those of most other African travellers. They have invariably taken with them cloth, wire, and beads to purchase food, water, and the right of way, so far as possible, for their whole projected journey. Dr. Peters, on the other hand, carried little else than ammunition, intending to refuse all tribute or gifts, and to take what he needed as he went along. If resistance should be offered by the owners of the property appropriated, he would unhesitatingly shoot them down. It was an eminently successful method—from his point of view. He marched from the mouth of the Tana River to the Victoria Nyanza, with a small, well-armed force, spreading terror among the tribes and often leaving in his track murdered natives, burned villages, and people despoiled of their cattle, their principal means of living. So far from desiring or attempting to excuse these ruthless proceedings, he glories in them, often referring to Stanley's and Thomson's just and conciliatory treatment of the natives as servile and unworthy of Europeans. He is just as unscrupulous towards the English, opening their despatches, and, in one instance, if we are not mistaken, robbing the stores of an expedition whose leaders at the moment chanced to be absent.

From the Victoria he passed through Uganda, whose king, Mwanga, he claims to have restored to his throne, though in what way is not apparent from his narrative. Judging from his description of this notorious African, it would be difficult to believe in the cruelties justly laid to his charge. He confirms, however, the accounts received from other sources of the condition of the country. The villages were burned and the groves of bananas destroyed. "By the roadsides lay skeletons and corpses still in process of decomposition, poisoning the air. The carrion vultures, who were gorging themselves with the flesh of the unburied corpses, seemed to be the only inhabitants of this land. Every trace of human beings had vanished." Of the English missionaries in Uganda he has little that is favorable to say, but the French were much more to his liking. This is not surprising, if we may judge from the advice which one of the latter, Père Lourdel, gave him: "Vous ferez bien de brûler la capitale de Mtamboa." From Uganda he returned to the coast, nearly all the way by the ordinary travelled route. At Mpwapwa he met Emin Pasha, who was on his way to the interior, and the two apparently spent their time agreeably in abusing Mr. Stanley. Zanzibar was reached in July, 1890, after an absence of thirteen months.

The literary ability of the author is small. His style is nearly always heavy, and the narrative, especially at the beginning, is so overburdened with petty personal details as to be excessively tedious. His descriptions are dull and lifeless and his humor is heavy. Very offensive, it should be said, are many of his pious allusions, considering the occasions which call them out. After planning by treachery to seize the herds of an unsuspecting tribe, he ordered his people "to get up a fence for the cattle that Heaven was going to send us." The description of the destruction of a native village after a sanguinary fight in which over a hundred natives had been slain, begins, "What time the Advent bells were calling to church in Germany, the flames were crackling over the great kraal on all sides, and mounting towards the heavens." The chief characteristics of this, to us, repulsive book are the strong personality of Dr. Peters, the exalted opinion he entertains of the importance of his abortive expedition, his intense hatred of the English, and the contempt which he showed for the negro's right to life and property. It is attractively got up; the pictures, with the exception of the portraits and possibly some of the landscapes, being apparently purely fanciful.

The Saga Library. Vol. I. By William Morris and Eirîkr Magnússon. London: Bernard Quaritch. 1891. 12mo, pp. 7+ 227.

Lad and Lass: A Story of Life in Iceland. Translated from the Icelandic of Jón Thordarson Thóroddsen by Arthur M. Reeves. London: S. Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington.

MR. BERNARD QUARITCH has reverted to an old-time interest of his in undertaking the publication of a "Saga Library," to consist of fifteen or more volumes, containing the leading Icelandic mythological and historical sagas. These are to be edited and translated by Mr. William Morris and Prof. Magnússon of the Cambridge University Library. Of the works selected for publication in the new form, all but the three narratives making up the first volume of the series have been put into English before, several of them by Mr. Morris himself. That there is room for a new edition cannot be doubted, and the editors, whose previous work in popularizing Icelandic literature has secured them a well-earned reputation for brilliant translation, should find a ready welcome for their new venture. Indeed, it is a matter for regret that a popular edition of these original and decidedly interesting works is limited to 1,000 copies, for thrice that number ought to find their way into private collections, while every public library in England and America should subscribe for the set. An introductory preface to the first volume of the series contains a sketch of Icelandic literature in general and considerable detailed information concerning the history of the three stories included in the book, but this cannot be recommended as especially interesting reading. The somewhat voluminous notes at the end of the volume, however, contain many interesting illustrations of Icelandic manners and customs.

The editors have done well in beginning their series with the three semi-historical sagas of "Howard the Halt," "The Banded Men," and "Hen Thorir," because they will be new to English readers, and are capital examples of a distinct type of Icelandic narrative. These stories have the robust quality of the air of the country that gave birth to their heroes. Their great dramatic power, combined with simplicity and directness of narration, has kept them fresh and virile through centuries. It must be admitted that their prevailing sentiment is an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth, with usury; but the spiritual light by which these primitive people were guided was almost as scanty as the daylight of their long winters; and even a superficial reading will show that the vendetta that flourished so lustily was not a mere outgrowth of private passion, but a crude expression of the instinct of justice, and made obligatory by public opinion. Boldly drawn, and characterized by keen insight into human nature, these pictures, though of a rude age, are yet free from coarseness, and the translators have happily preserved enough of the original quaint phraseology to lend a peculiar charm to this English version. "Howard the Halt" possesses the liveliest dramatic interest. A man of former prowess, but now old and maimed—hence the title—loses by treachery and violence at the hands of Thorbiorn, a man of position but very unjust, his only and promising son. Weighed down with age and benumbed by grief, the poor old man is bedridden for three years, rousing at the end of each twelvemonth to seek redress, only to be met with brutal insult. His wife, Biargey, "the most stirring of women," keeps the fires of vengeance burning, and, having engaged the aid of her kinsfolk, rouses Howard with a final adjuration and a prophecy. "So when he heard her words he leapt up from his bed and forth on to the floor and sang:

> "'Once more amid my old age
> I ask for quiet hearing,
> Although the speech of song-craft
> Scarce in my heart abideth
> Since then when first I wotted
> Of weapon-god downfallen.
> O son, how surely wert thou
> The strength of all my welfare!'

And now was Howard as brisk as might be and halt no longer." The rejuvenated man and his kinsfolk perform the most prodigious feats of valor when they meet Thorbiorn and his powerful allies. We have an amusing revelation of the workings of the human mind when Howard, coming face to face with his enemy, is minded that a new faith—the Christian—has been put forth, and he vows that "if any could show him that that faith was better and fairer, then would he trow in it if he might overcome Thorbiorn." When there are no more enemies to slay, Howard fares to Norway and embraces Christianity, but on the death of Biargey he returns to Iceland, and, having carried "church wood" there, a church was built from it after his death and his grave made therein.

"The Banded Men" is a humorous satire on the administration of courts of law. Ufeig, a man full of good counsel but "unhandy at money-getting," prodigal of meat and meal, and borrowing to keep the household going,

has a prudent son, who leaves home early on account of the lack of love between his father and himself. The son amasses much property, but the father remains as poor as before, and there is no intercourse between the two. It falls out after awhile that the son has a case in court, but, there being a flaw in the prosecution, he is obliged to withdraw. The father meets him on the way home and derisively assumes that he has won the suit. On being told the contrary, an agreement is made between them, and Ufeig assumes control. Here his native shrewdness and knowledge of human nature come into play, and the description of his manner of treating the corruptible court of justice is highly amusing. Ufeig wins not only the lawsuit, but a bride for his son, and "ever after endured the good will and kindly affection between the father and son."

A few bold strokes tell the story of "Hen Thorir," a huckster of low degree trafficking at one time in hens—whence his nickname. As a story it is not so readable as the two preceding, but as a sketch of sharply defined contrasts of character it is very effective.

In conjunction with the three Saga stories it is interesting to read a modern Icelandic novel. 'Lad and Lass,' by Jón Thóroddsen, considered the most important modern Icelandic tale, was written in 1848–'49, and published in Copenhagen a year later, a second edition being issued in 1867. It has been twice translated into Danish and once into German. An English version of one of the Danish translations appeared some years since. The present version is from the original Icelandic, by Mr. Arthur M. Reeves, in whose recent untimely death Icelandic literature lost an enthusiastic lover and intelligent interpreter. 'Lad and Lass' gives many evidences of true poetic feeling; and the figure of the heroine, Sigrid, is drawn with delicacy and faithfulness, while the other characters are clearly individualized. The plot is a familiar one to novel-readers, illustrating the old proverb on the course of true love; but, thanks to the same tenacity of purpose that so notably characterizes the heroes of the Sagas, Sigrid and her faithful lover eventually set at naught the machinations of their enemies. In point of dramatic force this story suffers by comparison with the older narratives. The dialogue is sometimes labored, and the pleasantry lacks the arrow-like lightness and swiftness of the old story-tellers. It would be unfair, however, to make too close a comparison with what was produced under far different conditions. The stirring life of the old Icelanders found dramatic narrative its most natural expression, while the comparative monotony and isolation of the present age give little scope for heroic action or expression.

Städte Pamphyliens und Pisidiens. Unter Mitwirkung von G. Niemann und E. Petersen herausgegeben von Karl Grafen Lanckoronski. I. Band. Pamphylien. Vienna: F. Tempsky.

STRANGE to say, a country that has played a most important, a unique rôle in the history of the world and in the history of our own immediate civilization, Asia Minor, was virtually *terra incognita* until about ten years ago. But during the last decade the world has been awakening to its importance as a field for archæological exploration. In view of the centuries of lethargic neglect, this sudden awakening has been remarkable for the unexpected energy displayed, and in consequence the decade can chronicle most gratifying results in every branch of archæological investigation, thanks to a band of devoted workers. Among the chiefest of these must be reckoned Count Lanckoronski. Not that he has worked especially with his own brains, time, and energy, but with the brains, time, and energy of such distinguished scholars as Petersen and Niemann. None the less honor is due him on that account, none the less be his meed of praise, none the less be the gratitude we owe him for the unselfish enthusiasm for antiquity that has led him to fit out with generous, nay, even lavish hand, and send expedition after expedition to Lycia, Caria, Pamphylia, and Pisidia, in order to survey, measure, and publish the ruins of the chiefest cities of those countries. These expeditions have necessitated a great and long-continued outlay of money, and the editing and publication of their results in such magnificent style have cost perhaps as much as the expeditions themselves. And all this expense has been met by Count Lanckoronski. Such single-hearted and unselfish devotion to the science of antiquity is rare nowadays among men of wealth, and it is worthy of grateful remembrance and mention at the hands of all classical students, who, we feel sure, will devoutly wish for many successors and imitators of Count Lanckoronski.

The magnificent volume on Pamphylia to which this notice would call attention is a worthy sequel to the two imperial volumes ('Reisen in Lykien und Karien') that were presented to the public several years ago. The printer has spared no pains on it, and, so far as paper, typography, and illustrations are concerned, the book is simply faultless. Indeed, we have but one fault to find with this as with the former volumes. It is too sumptuous and too costly to have a wide circulation, for, as a class, scholars are not in condition to present themselves with *éditions de luxe*, even in their own individual specialty. The circulation of the book must therefore be limited to public libraries and to men of means. And yet science would have been distinctly the loser had the book been made a cheap one; for books whose value lies in great measure in the illustrations cannot be made cheap, and the magnificent illustrations of this volume, both those from copper-plate at the end of the volume and those in the body of the text as well, form perhaps its most valuable feature, and certainly render more tangible by pleasing presentation to the eye the great gains to the science of antiquity that are chronicled in the volume.

The expeditions were led by E. Petersen, now First Secretary of the Imperial German Archæological Institute at Rome, as archæologist, and G. Niemann of Vienna, as architect. Associated with them from time to time were Von Hartel, professor in the University of Vienna, and Von Sokolowski, professor in the University of Cracow, as archæologists; Moriz Hartel of the *Akademie* of Vienna, and Rausch of Cracow, as architects; Von Malczewski, as artist (painter); Lieut. Hausner, as chartographer; Drs. von Luschan and Heyder, as physicians, and lastly a photographer. From such a corps of experts good work was to be expected, and in general the account given by Petersen and Niemann is exhaustive and satisfactory, although now and then we meet with a confession that this or that detail was overlooked or not investigated on the spot. But circumstances usually excuse these sins of omission. For instance, the walls of Attaleia were not surveyed accurately because of the excitement incident to the Bulgarian troubles of October, 1885, at which time a general call to arms had been sounded, and in consequence the roads were lined with men marching to the sea in order to be transported to the seat of war.

Count Lanckoronski wrote the pleasing preface to the volume, in which the ruins of five cities of Pamphylia are discussed, viz.: of Attaleia, Perge, Sillyon, Aspendos, and Side. In this discussion Petersen and Niemann took part as follows: the archæological account, including history, epigraphy, topography, geography, and the general description of the ruins, comes from the pen of Petersen, while all matters pertaining to pure architecture are treated by Niemann.

The most interesting ruin in Attaleia is a gateway of three arches erected by Hadrian, that inveterate traveller and gate-builder. The theatre, stadion, walls, and principal gateway of Perge all furnish matter worthy of being given to the world. The celebrated and beautiful theatre of Aspendos has long been known, though a detailed account of it is presented to us now for the first time. One of the most interesting monuments discussed is the Nymphæum at Side, a palatial Enneakrounos, whose magnificent proportions and chaste architecture excite our admiration. Similar Nymphæa were found at other cities of Pamphylia, but none so elaborate as that of Side. Owing to the sickness of Niemann, the architect's account of Side is reduced to a minimum, but Petersen's excellent description of the ruins makes us forget his absence.

One hundred and eight inscriptions, mostly new, were found in the five cities of Pamphylia. In republishing inscriptions that are already known in poor copies, Petersen gives the correct part of the old copy in minuscules, but his own corrections in majuscules. Future travellers should adopt the idea, for by it one can see at a glance what improvement has been made in the text, and much time will thus be spared to the reader.

But the results of these expeditions are not confined merely to the cities mentioned above. The map of the country has been a great gainer, for careful route surveys were made as the party journeyed through the land from city to city, and not only this, but geographical excursions were undertaken, especially by Dr. von Luschan, whose attention was extended to ethnographical matters also.

The book appeared simultaneously in German, French, and Polish. In conclusion, we hope that the volume on Pisidia may not be long delayed.

William Ewart Gladstone. By George W. E. Russell. [The Prime Ministers of Queen Victoria.] Harper & Brothers.

IN his preface, Mr. Russell states that as his space is limited, he has "touched lightly on those later events of Mr. Gladstone's career which are within general recollection, and has bestowed more detailed attention on the early stages which are now, to most people, either unknown or forgotten." This arrangement is open to various objections. In the first place, however brief a biography may be, it should cover all the really important events in the life of the subject, and the space given to each event should be measured by its relative importance rather than by an assumed memory or forgetfulness on the part of the reader. Again, the keynote of Mr. Gladstone's character being his extraordinary receptivity, and his willingness to modify opinions as a result of logical conviction, it follows that the later stages of his career are more interesting and

more important to the world at large than the earlier. We think, therefore, that Mr. Russell would have made a wiser distribution of his space if he had devoted more pages to Mr. Gladstone's Ministry of 1880–85 (to which very scanty reference is made), and fewer to the theological controversies of his early manhood, which possess to-day a purely antiquarian interest. Mr. Russell says that he has aimed at a clear statement of facts, chronologically arranged, and no one will gainsay the correctness of his facts or their proper arrangement. But sins of omission and lack of perspective are serious faults—especially in biographies—and it becomes a question whether the various series now in course of publication do not lose much of their value as biographies by reason of excessive brevity.

Having said this much in condemnation of the *plan* of Mr. Russell's volume, we must add that, while he gives due prominence to certain characteristics of Mr. Gladstone which have largely influenced his action at critical times, he does not seem fully to appreciate their value. In replying to Palmerston's celebrated "Don Pacifico" speech in 1850, Mr. Gladstone had the courage to rebuke the bullying and blustering tone adopted by that popular minister, and spoke of "the vain conception that we, forsooth, have a mission to be the censors of vice and folly, of abuse and imperfection, among the other countries of the world; that we are the universal schoolmasters." Mr. Russell considers that this tendency to ignore the "homely prejudice of patriotism" and this ability to see the faults of his fellow-countrymen as well as the virtues of other nations, have done much to mar Mr. Gladstone's popularity and to limit his range of influence. Now, it is at least doubtful if this be true of the English constituencies. It is certainly the reverse of the truth as regards other nations, for it will be generally admitted that what raises Mr. Gladstone above the level of his countrymen, and justifies Bunsen's remark that he "has heard higher tones than any one else in this land," is the cosmopolitan character of his mind. Hence his vehement advocacy of arbitration as a means of settling international difficulties, in preference to the threats and bluster of the Jingo party. Hence, also, the bitter hatred with which the British Tory regards him and speaks of him—a hatred which constitutes one of his strongest claims on our sympathy and our affection.

Mr. Russell holds that Mr. Gladstone's defeat on the home-rule question in 1886 was due to the fact that the electorate had not sufficient time to consider the question at issue, and certainly the result of recent bye-elections would seem to confirm the correctness of this opinion. In this respect there is a curious analogy between the British voter's fear of home rule in 1886 and the inability of the American voter to grasp Mr. Cleveland's enlightened tariff policy, in 1888. In both cases, the time allowed for education was too short, but subsequent events show that in both cases a clearer understanding is gradually but surely gaining ground.

It would be hardly possible to write an uninteresting life of Mr. Gladstone, but, apart from such inherent interest, the main merit of Mr. Russell's sketch is that it whets the appetite for that something better which is, doubtless, even now in a forward state of preparation.

Who Wrote the Bible? A Book for the People. By Washington Gladden. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

MR. GLADDEN'S book does not make good its title so perfectly as we could wish. It is not "a book for the people." With many admirable qualities, he has not a talent for exposition. Something in the manner of his writing obscures all definite impression. We enjoy, or do not, the argument and the polemic as we go along, but at the end of the chapter or the book the amount of clear instruction we have consciously received is small for the amount of matter we have read. Moreover, the book is vitiated by its apologetic tone. This may ingratiate it with the orthodox reader, and it may be that it is well adapted to the modification of his traditional views, but it can only be repellent to the radical mind, to which a fair judgment of the Bible is quite as important as to the orthodox. It is Mr. Gladden's persuasion that the Bible, as Republicans say of the tariff, should be revised by its friends, and suggestions abound in his chapters that there are those who are not its friends, and there is great show of hustling them about and making them appear ridiculous. But it is quite sufficient to make a critic "anti-Christian," or an "enemy of the Bible," for him to be a little more radical in his conclusions than Mr. Gladden is himself, and it never seems to occur to him that only yesterday those holding his general and particular views were considered anti-Christian and enemies of the Bible by the more orthodox, and, indeed, are so considered still by the majority. There is nothing in the temper of the more radical critics as such that differentiates them from those a little more conservative, that they should be treated with suspicion or contempt. From Hengstenberg to Delitzsch is much further than from Delitzsch to Baur or Toy.

Mr. Gladden's book reflects the uncertainties that attach to many questions of Biblical criticism. When in doubt, he generally plays the traditional opinion, as in placing Joel chronologically first among the prophets, though Prof. Toy would place him last, with certain fragments of Zechariah. The composite character of the Pentateuch is insisted on, but any reader who is acquainted with the argument of Kuenen and Reuss and Wellhausen and Smith for the late origin of the priestly legislation will seriously object to their being set aside so cavalierly as they are by Mr. Gladden. They will even wonder if he has ever read them at first hand. The chapter on the prophets, which should have been one of the most valuable and suggestive, is one of the least important, much of the energy being wasted on Prof. Huxley that should have served a higher end. The Book of Esther is pounced upon with savage animosity; but suppose it came up from the deep heart of such an experience as that which the Jews are undergoing at the present time in Russia: then might not its truculence be regarded with more sympathy than blame? And this would seem to be more likely than that it was merely a literary brochure to excuse the feast of Purim. Such an important matter as that of the Deutero-Isaiah is passed over with no treatment proportionate to that given to Daniel and other more indifferent matters. The treatment of the New Testament is marked by the same difference from the treatment of the Old as we find almost universally in the criticism of the New Orthodoxy. It is much less courageous, much more apologetic. "The reason is, of course, obvious," says Principal Gore in 'Lux Mundi,' "why what can be admitted in the Old Testament could not without results disastrous to the Christian creed be admitted in the New." Though Mr. Gladden does not announce this principle, its unconscious operation is central to his treatment of the New Testament books, his easy satisfaction with traditional opinions, and his determination to surrender nothing to the radical critics except what is, like the Pauline authorship of Hebrews, incapable of any plausible defence. His average results are by so much less radical than those of Prof. Briggs as he is less a scholar and more a homilist, but they are sufficiently near to them to indicate the wide extent of that disintegration to which, for better or worse, the traditional ideas of the Bible are subject at the present time.

John Wesley. By J. H. Overton, M.A. London: Methuen & Co. 1891.

THE latest biographer of Wesley was born at Epworth, Wesley's birthplace, and is now rector of the parish over which Wesley's father ruled and in which Wesley for a time assisted him; he is also living in the rectory in which Wesley lived after the burning of the old rectory in 1709—an event which made such a deep impression on Wesley's mind that, writing his own epitaph, he described himself as "a brand plucked out of the burning." Mr. Overton can further boast himself a member of Wesley's University and a scholar on the same foundation. So much in common with Wesley has no doubt excited his interest in him, but it is no such qualification for his present task as the work that he had previously done, first, as a joint worker on Abbey and Overton's 'English Church in the Eighteenth Century,' and, second, as the author of 'The Evangelical Revival of the Eighteenth Century.' The reader of his last production would do well to read his 'Evangelical Revival' in connection with it. Wesley cannot be seen aright in any isolated view. Mr. Overton's biography has apparently obeyed some stern restriction as to its extent. He has made good use of the space at his command, but there are serious omissions. Wesley's relation to the Moravians is dismissed in the most summary manner, though Wesley derived from it the spiritual impulse of his wonderful career. Wesley's relations to Whitefield, which were of capital importance, are got over in a single page and a few incidental phrases. But the most conspicuous defect of Mr. Overton's book is not so much an omission as an excess in one particular, Wesley's relation to the English Church. What he has written is less a biography than an apology for Wesley's life, an argument to prove that he was a good Churchman from first to last, and never meant to separate himself or his people from his spiritual mother. He recurs to this with damnable iteration, and the reader must be a good Churchman who will not resent such persistent harping on a single string. Whatever the sentiments of the founder, English Methodism of the present day is so inimical to the Church that, at the centenary observance of Wesley's death, March 2, hostility to the Church was the one shrill note sounding above all others. Mr. Overton's book may have contributed a little to the manifest hostility to all praise of Wesley's churchmanship, as it is, of course, a criticism of the Methodist schism.

It is plain sailing for our author a good deal of his way. The beginnings of Methodism at Oxford in 1729 had a very singular resemblance to those of the Oxford movement just a century later, notwithstanding Newman's hatred almost or quite as much as of liberalism of that type of churchmanship which Methodism had created. In Georgia it was as a rigid sacramentarian that Wesley failed; for that his failure was most lamentable, Mr. Overton makes plain enough in spite of his de-

nial, and though he obscures the most painful aspects of the situation. So, after his return to England, his first collision with his bishop was a sacramental one, and he was the High Churchman stickling for the rebaptism of dissenters. But all of these things are burned up like wisps of straw in the flame of Wesley's "American Ordinations," in the last years of his life. Mr. Overton struggles manfully with these, but all in vain. Where he is weak as water is in his failure to perceive that Wesley was still less willing to have his societies absorbed in the Church than to have them separated from it, and that their absorption in it was as impossible as the absorption of the New England abolitionists by the New England churches. But if they were not to be absorbed, separation was inevitable. They could not go on for ever standing on one leg, neither this, that, nor the other.

Mr. Overton's chapters on "Georgia" and "The Moravian Influence" are miserably inadequate. That on "Wesley's Teaching" argues his soundness in the Anglican faith, and makes too little account of his emphasis of some things to the neglect of others as a constant means of differentiation. The chapter on his itineracy is but a meagre compend of that wondrous Odyssey, with its 225,000 miles of travel and its 40,000 sermons preached, for the most part in the open air, the man rising habitually at four in the morning and preaching at five. The chapter "Wesley as an Organizer" repeats the well-known facts which show that he originated next to nothing in the way of organization, but knew a good thing when he found it, and was wise to follow the leadings of necessity. Far too much is made of the analogues of his Societies in the Primitive Church. There are brief chapters on internal divisions, friends and opponents, and literary work, the last a testimony almost as remarkable as his itineracy to marvellous diligence. There is a minimum of emphasis on clerical opposition, agreeably to the purpose of the book. That Butler of the 'Analogy,' Bishop of Bristol, was one of Wesley's firmest opponents, suggests that the Church was not entirely in the wrong.

The chapter on his personal traits is the most painful in the book, it is so evident that the prophet spoiled the man. Humanity was Wesley's crowning lack. It declared itself in the perfect silliness of his relations with women at all times, in his cruel ignorance of children, and in his passionate weakness for those "physical manifestations," of which his brother was suspicious from the first. At the school he founded he would have children rise at four and engage an hour in private devotion, and they were to be allowed no play. An Irish Wesley wished to adopt Charles, but, failing of this, took another youth from whom came Arthur Wellesley (another form of Wesley), Duke of Wellington. The conjunction is mainly interesting as suggesting that John Wesley, for all his splendid force and high devotion, was not, like the great Duke, "rich in saving common sense." He had the temper of Calvin, though he rejected his theology. He had no grain of Luther's kindly humor, and as little of his broad humanity and loving heart.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bauman, Oscar. Usambara und seine Nachbargebiete. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Chase, Frederick. History of Dartmouth College. Vol. I. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Cotes, V. C. Two Girls on a Barge. D. Appleton & Co.
Cowan, Rev. J. F. The Jo-Boat Boys. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Doctor Lamar. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Douglass, Amanda M. Osborne of Arrochar. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Dowie, Miss M. M. A Girl in the Karpathians. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Easby-Smith, J. S. The Songs of Sappho. Washington: Stormont & Jackson. $1.
Falconer, L. The Hôtel d'Angleterre, and Other Stories. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Ford, Worthington C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. XI. 1785—1790. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Franzos, Karl E. Judith Trachtenberg. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Frederic, Harold. The Young Emperor. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
George, A. J. Burke's American Orations. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50 cents.
Gide, Prof. Charles. Principles of Political Economy. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $2.
Heyne, Prof. Moriz. Deutsches Wörterbuch. Dritter Halbband. H—Licht. Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Holden, H. A. The Seventh Book of the History of Thucydides. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hosmer, Prof. J. K. A Short History of German Literature. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Kenyon, F. G. Classical Texts from Papyri in the British Museum, including the newly discovered Poems of Herodas. London: British Museum.
Lamartine, Alphonse. Le Tailleur de Pierres de Saint-Point. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lee, Florence P. Sunshine in Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Lee, Rev. G. S. About an Old New England Church. Boston: Congregational Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Lewis, Monk. Rosario, or the Female Monk. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Lindley, Percy. Tourist-Guide to the Continent. London: Great Eastern Railway Company.
Macqueary, Rev. Howard. Topics of the Times. John W. Lovell Co. $1.
Merrill's Word and Sentence Book. New York: Charles E. Merrill & Co.
Miller, Mrs. Olive Thorne. The Woman's Club. John W. Lovell Co. $1.
Morley, Prof. H. English Writers. Vol. 7. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Morris, Prof. E. D. A Friendly Talk about Revision. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 30 cents.
Muller, Donizetti. The Origin of Will o' the Wisp. The Republic Press. $1.50.
Nichols, Ida P. and De Morgan, Mary. Princess Girlikin, and Other Fairy Tales. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Reinach, S. Chroniques d'Orient. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.
Richardson, Dr. B. W. Thomas Sopwith. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Warner, C. D. As We Were Saying. Harper & Bros.
Weismann, Prof. August. Essays upon Heredity. 2d ed. Vol. I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 24, 1891.

The Week.

THE necessity of having a man in the office of Secretary of State who is physically able to discharge its duties, is plainly indicated in this passage from a speech by President Harrison in reply to an invitation to attend an exposition in Georgia:

> "I have a good many very important matters demanding attention from now on to the meeting of Congress. Some are home matters of importance and some are foreign. Looking back over the past year, it would seem probable that there was a conspiracy among the Powers to see that those in responsible places should have no rest. Many of these things must now come to my personal attention."

While the nation feels much safer with Mr. Harrison acting as Secretary of State than with Mr. Blaine in charge of the Department, it is obviously unjust to require the President to carry, month after month, so heavy a load in addition to the duties of the Executive.

Balmaceda's death is a dramatic close to his career. His suicide has saved him the protracted misery of a trial and public execution, and leaves his memory in somewhat better condition than if he had been judicially shot or hanged. People always feel a little sorry for a man who kills himself in despair, though in South America suicide is unusually disreputable. He appears to have tried a *coup d'état*, after the fashion of Louis Napoleon in 1851, by corrupting the army in much the same way, and possibly persuaded himself, as his prototype probably did, that he was in some little degree acting in the interest of the people, as well as providing himself with a snug berth for life. But it is for the best interests of mankind that any man who tries to play this game should feel that his life is staked on the issue; that if he fails, he must either submit to be hanged or must blow his brains out. Balmaceda has made a contribution of immense value to the art of government in South America. It will be a relief to most people to hear that the *Herald's* story about his escape through the assistance of Admiral Brown had no foundation. The Valparaiso correspondent of that paper has done such good service that he will be easily forgiven for letting himself be imposed on in this instance. But the story, though untrue, illustrated certain rules of international law and of sound public policy which we hope will now appear plainer to the State and Navy Departments than they have of late. The god Jingo is a worthless, drunken rascal, who is constantly getting his worshippers into scrapes.

The defence of Egan put forth at Washington by Admiral McCann undoubtedly relieves him of the suspicion of being an open blunderer, but does not touch the main charges against him. The Admiral takes to himself the blame of having made public Egan's opinion that the Balmaceda Government was invincible; but how is that opinion, supposing it honest, to be accounted for? On the spot as he was, he should at least have been as well informed as people in England, yet it was months ago that Col. North, the "nitrate king," publicly declared that the Congressionalists had with them the wealth and intelligence of the country, and were certain to win in the end, while but a week or two before the Balmaceda bubble was finally pricked, the *South American Journal* said it had reason to believe that desirable operation to be imminent. The reason why public opinion in this country was so misled and so surprised at the actual outcome, was the persistent laudation of Balmaceda which was given out at Washington, and which had its origin in Egan's despatches. We see no escape from the conclusion that his judgment was temporarily clouded by the desire to become a "nitrate king" himself. Nor does Admiral McCann squarely meet Mr. Foster's charge that Egan was at first disposed to back up Balmaceda in his purpose of violating the safe-conduct guaranteed the insurgent peace-envoys. And as to the pawn-broking and other business ventures of our Minister, to which Mr. Foster referred, nothing was said by the naval officer. The real significance of the public attack on Egan by the Congressionalist agent in this country lay in the fact that it was meant to head off the attempt to make him out a much-abused man, and to make it plain that he was distinctly a *persona non grata* to the new Government. There is no doubt that he is such, or that he will have to come home, sooner or later, despite his "indefatigable efforts" to serve the *Herald* correspondent.

Wall Street has unquestionably been taken completely by surprise by the sudden awakening of the craze for stock speculation among the people at large. It has been clear, all along, that our marvellous grain crops of this year would enrich not only the farmers who raised them, but the railroads which transported them, and that, with the return of prosperity to these two great industries, activity would by degrees revive throughout the industrial community. But it is a tradition of the street that the outside public rarely "discounts" the future unless it is excited by some sudden and unexpected good news, and stimulated by the stock-market operations of professional leaders. There were, moreover, several distinctly unfavorable elements in the present financial situation. The money market is approaching closeness; two of the most extensive railway systems in the country are even now hovering on the verge of bankruptcy, and the buying public of Europe, which contributes so largely to Wall Street bull markets, is overshadowed with industrial discouragement and distress. The speculative public, however, knows no traditions. Powerful and skilful operators attempted to depress the market by means of these unfavorable elements; but they were swept aside last week, as indeed was the whole amazed and incredulous speculating fraternity. The course of the stock market has told its own story, not merely in the advance in prices, but in the enormous volume of transactions, now averaging every day six or eight times the daily average of a few months ago.

It is eminently fitting that the collapse of Gov. Hill should be attended by circumstances which forcibly illustrate the character of both himself and his system. He wished to control the recent Democratic Convention so absolutely that he could put upon its ticket only such men as he could depend upon to administer their offices in the interest of his personal ambition, and could put into its platform such views upon questions of high national importance as would show to the country that the State of New York stood with him, and not with the honest men of his party, in regard to those issues. To carry his point in regard to nominations, he broke his personal pledge to one of his most subservient followers and sought to force him from the ticket at the last moment. He also sought to put on another man who had no claim to the position except a miserable record of incompetency in office and a willingness to pledge himself to do the Governor's bidding. The Convention refused to obey the Governor's orders in both instances. To carry his point on national issues, he sent to the Committee on Resolutions a platform that contained a silver plank which, if adopted, would have committed the party in this State to free silver by making it appear unwilling to come out squarely against it. This was one of the best instances of Hillism ever afforded. In order to gain a supposed personal advantage for himself, the Governor was willing to have his party take the one step which was almost certain to bring it to defeat in the State this year and in the nation next year. Provided he could show the free-silver advocates in the South and West that he had his party behind him on that question in New York, he cared nothing for either the financial and commercial stability of the country or the welfare of his own party. The Committee on Resolutions promptly rejected this plank, and substituted a declaration in favor of honest money in its place.

It seemed for a time as if the high degree of dexterity acquired through long years of practice by the makers of the tariff plank in Republican platforms were in danger of

going to waste since the passage of the McKinley Bill. That measure put an end to the familiar displays of agility in attempting to ride two horses going opposite ways, as it is such a brutally definite affair, and leaves no room for the old vague and balanced phrases promising the millennium to laborers and the Elysian Fields to farmers. But the necessity of saying something about "reciprocity" has suddenly come in to put the talent for ambiguous utterance to new use. Thus, the New York Republicans sang their praises of that policy which let in free those articles which we "cannot produce in *adequate* quantity," and opened markets for those products of the "farm and factory which it is *profitable* to export." The Massachusetts Republicans, however, showed a distinct advance in their deliverance on the subject. They boldly approved of a policy which, by "a *wise* discrimination in the exchange of products," would secure "the *most profitable* foreign commerce," and would "*increase*, without *endangering*, the prosperity of our domestic industries." These are fine-drawn distinctions worthy of being promulgated on the spot where the theologians of a by-gone age used to bring out their triumphant reconciliations between free-will and predestination.

The independent voter in New York, disgusted at being shut up to a choice of evils in the approaching election, must envy the happy position of his brethren in Massachusetts. The contest for the Governorship in that State is between two young men each of whom is well qualified to fill the office with credit to the commonwealth, and neither of whom represents any boss or machine. The canvass is to be a friendly controversy between two rivals as to which can make the better showing of advantage to the community to accrue from his success; and, whichever wins, the State is sure to be well served. Fortunate indeed is the lot of the Massachusetts Mugwump this year.

Much stress is laid by many of Mr. Fassett's supporters upon his remark in his speech of acceptance—"One thing at a time." This has been interpreted to signify that he is running for Governor on State issues alone, and that he should be supported on those issues without regard to questions of national politics. In our opinion, this is not merely a sound position, but it is the only one upon which Mr. Fassett can hope to win. Yet he himself has made the mistake of bringing the sectional issue into the canvass; and now comes the *Press* of this city, the leading penny paper of the party, with another and far more disturbing issue, which it presents to the voters in the following form:

"DON'T FORGET THIS.

"One important fact should not be forgotten. The political engagement of '91 is the beginning of the great battle of 1892, and every vote cast for Flower will also be a vote for British free trade."

If every vote cast for Flower will be a vote for British free trade, then every vote cast for Fassett will be a vote for McKinley protection. That issue was squarely presented in this State last November, and the verdict was 75,000 majority against McKinleyism. With that and the Force Bill as Republican battle-cries, the chances for Mr. Fassett's election will be very slim.

Concerning the appointment of ex-Senator Hendricks of Syracuse as Collector of this port, it is to be said that if political considerations rather than merit and fitness are to be the deciding qualifications, there are reasons for thankfulness that a man of such excellent personal character has been chosen. It is a thoroughly political appointment, and is made in complete defiance of the President's civil-service-reform pledges. Mr. Hendricks has served several terms in the State Senate, where he has preserved an enviable record of personal integrity and an undeviating record of party loyalty. He occupies towards Senator Hiscock the same relation that Mr. Fassett occupies towards Mr. Platt. As Messrs. Hiscock and Platt are now working in harmony in New York Republican politics, the appointment of Mr. Hendricks to take charge of those politics in the Custom-house is acceptable to both of them. We trust that for the incidental interest of the customs service Mr. Hendricks will be allowed to retain the office a much longer time than his two immediate predecessors were. While he is likely to make an efficient Collector, we feel justified in predicting that any members of the unclassified service in the Custom-house who for any reason are not congenial to Messrs. Platt and Hiscock, will have to "go."

The reappearance of Custom-house collectors as active managers in Republican canvasses and attendants upon Republican conventions is a striking proof of the decline of principle in the party. There is only one sound rule for such cases, and it is found in the order to office-holders issued by a Republican President on June 22, 1877, which said:

"No officers should be required or permitted to take part in the arrangement of political organizations, caucuses, conventions, or election campaigns. Their right to vote and to express their views on public questions, either orally or through the press, is not denied, provided it does not interfere with the discharge of their official duties. No assessment for political purposes on officers or subordinates should be allowed."

Naturally enough, when the collectors of the chief custom-houses in the States of New York and Massachusetts leave their offices to run party conventions, and know that they will not even receive a rebuke for such conduct, Republican managers throughout the country take the next step, and openly demand "voluntary contributions" from Republican office-holders. Here is the "stand-and-deliver" sort of notification which has just been sent by the Chairman of the Ohio Republican State Executive Committee to the clerks in the Washington departments:

"The Republican Executive Committee of Ohio is now fully organized and actively at work. Funds are required for this work. The campaign in Ohio is now more than a State campaign. It is national in both its importance and effect. The election of Hon. William McKinley, jr., and his associates on the ticket, and a Republican General Assembly this fall in Ohio, and a Republican United States Senator from this State, assures Republican success in the campaign of 1892. You are the incumbent of place made possible by the success of the party in the past. The continued success of the Republican party is of great interest and advantage to the whole country, and you no doubt appreciate it. A liberal contribution from you as an individual will largely aid the Committee in the furtherance of its work. In the ordinary business affairs of life, promptness of payment is absolutely required. Such promptness in our business is equally important. We will be pleased to hear from you at once."

The activity of Federal office-holders in the Republican campaign in this State becomes more pronounced every week. Nor does it anywhere meet rebuke from the Republican press. On the contrary, the leading organ of the party commends it with the utmost heartiness. Says the New York *Tribune:*

"Much credit is due to Postmaster Van Cott for the fine campaign meeting in Hardman Hall on Thursday evening. Mr. Van Cott and the Seventh District were on deck early this year: they organized a Fassett and Vrooman Club on the very day the nominations were made at Rochester, and they propose to remain there until sunset on Election Day."

The *Tribune* adds that "it is going to be a lively and a winning campaign." Does it really think that the constant presence of Mr. Van Cott "on deck," instead of employed in the discharge of his duties as Postmaster, is calculated to win independent voters to the support of the Republican ticket?

As the time for the assembling of Congress approaches, the Republicans are beginning to realize what a mess of scandals the Administration has been accumulating for a Democratic House to investigate. The Washington correspondent of the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* sounds a warning note. "The Census Office will be a mine for the Democrats," he writes, "and they will show the country just how little Bob Porter knew about the business of census-taking. There are many transactions in that office which will be paraded before the country and be used against the Republican party in the next campaign. No bureau of the Government seems so rotten and where so many offences have been committed as in this Census Office. Not only is it clear that the census is utterly unreliable, but it seems that enormous sums have been spent, and how or where will only come out when some one is made to tell the truth about the inside transactions of the office." Next to the Census Office, the worst showing will probably be made by an investigation of the methods of Green B. Raum in the Pension Office. "Many good Republicans," says the correspondent, "have been earnestly hoping that Raum would get out and leave the office in the hands of some capable and efficient officer who was, moreover, known to be thoroughly honest." It

is also likely that the Naval Committee will look into the management of that Department and see if it is true, as charged by a great many, that Acting-Admiral Walker has been exercising "a pull," to the detriment of the navy. Still another scandal which this correspondent overlooks is that of Wanamaker and the Keystone Bank of Philadelphia, which should engage the early attention of the Banking and Currency Committee. Altogether, it is safe to predict that the Democrats will make the most of the great opportunities which the Republicans have given them.

The Legislative Committee in Pennsylvania which is investigating the affairs of the State Treasury and Auditor-General's Office in connection with the Bardsley robberies in Philadelphia, is having some trouble because of the absence from the State of the most desirable witnesses. It will be remembered that all the living ex-Treasurers and ex-Treasury clerks, including Quay, hastened to get out of the State as soon as the Committee came together. The Auditor-General, Mr. McCamant, did not venture to flee, however, and he took the witness-stand on Saturday. He denied all charges of guilty knowledge of Bardsley's doings, but he had some difficulty in giving plausible explanations of some letters which had passed between him and Bardsley, and which the District Attorney of Philadelphia placed in evidence. These showed that Bardsley had been in the habit of making presents of various kinds to Mr. McCamant, ranging from neckties and rare books to French clocks. In explanation of these, Mr. McCamant said that he found it difficult to obtain rare books in Harrisburg, and so he got Mr. Bardsley to buy them for him in Philadelphia. As for the neckties, he happened to want some one day when he was in Philadelphia, and, as he had not time to buy them, Bardsley offered to get them for him. "I preferred purchasing them there," he added, "as I wear an unusually long tie and it is not easy to find those in Harrisburg. I generally buy such little things when I am in Philadelphia."

That this explanation, like the neckties, is "unusually long," is shown by the citation which the Philadelphia *Public Ledger* makes from some remarks recently uttered by the District Attorney in court. It had been shown by the stubs of Bardsley's checkbooks that he had drawn checks for several large amounts, like $1,000, $500, $666, to "L. and Mc," "Mc," "W. L.," and at other times to Thomas McCamant and William Livsey. Livsey was cashier in the State Treasurer's office, and he first left the State and then resigned. Bardsley was brought from prison to court last week in order to explain these checks, but he refused to testify. This refusal forced the District Attorney to drop the cases against McCamant and Livsey for the present, and in doing so he said:

"For instance, check No. 318, April 1, 1890, for $500; for that we have a post-office receipt and registered letters from both Mr. McCamant and Mr. Livsey, dated April 2, 1890; No. 324, May 1, 1890, $666—in regard to that I find a letter of Mr. McCamant's dated May 3, in which he says: 'Please accept my thanks for favors received'; No. 426—there is a letter comes of corresponding date, 'Your favor of yesterday received; accept my thanks.' So it goes on continually, the letter and check corresponding in date, allowing merely for what would be the time in the transmission from here to there—the receipt of the money. I mention this simply to show why I have kept these letters—why I have preserved them for the purposes of prosecution."

In commenting upon this statement in connection with Mr. McCamant's testimony, the *Ledger* says:

"If it had not been for the perversity of Mr. Bardsley, we might have had a week ago the simple and satisfying explanation that the then City Treasurer was engaged in buying neckties and handkerchiefs, books, etc., for the Auditor-General, and that these were the favors of which acknowledgment was made. It was an awkward coincidence that Mr. McCamant should need a necktie or something of that sort on the very days that Mr. Bardsley was drawing these tell-tale checks!"

There is one newspaper in a very grouty state over the shortening of time between England and Japan, as exemplified by the carrying of the mail from Yokohama to London in twenty days. This is the *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia. This shortening, it says, "simply means quickening the processes of filching from the Japanese their substance." Great Britain, it thinks, is breaking down the native industries of Japan, as she did long ago those of India. The shortening of mail carriage will hasten the day when no Japanese will be able to earn a living by his labor, but will have to stand still and submit to be clothed and fed, tobaccoed and liquored, by John Bull exclusively. So serious is this prospect, and so much does it rouse the missionary zeal in the organ of the Manufacturers' Club that it thinks we ought to interfere and force Japan to adopt a tariff of some kind—we hardly know what kind, and the organ does not explain. It says that "we buy far more from Japan than England does, and sell far less to Japan. Last year our imports amounted to $21,000,000 and our exports only to $5,000,000, while in the case of England the figures are just about reversed." A dreadful state of things, indeed! Since, in the present state of our navy, we cannot spare a fleet to go to Japan and compel her to buy more from us, the only alternative is for us to buy less from her. It is quite within our power to stop buying $21,000,000 from Japan. Then if she should continue to buy $5,000,000 from us (and she might be such a fool if we didn't make much noise about it), the situation would be reversed, and we should be as happy as England is. Why will some people take such roundabout ways to attain felicity when it is immediately within their grasp?

The proposed treaty between Brazil and the Argentine Republic for the settlement of the Missiones boundary dispute was rejected by the Brazilian Chamber of Deputies, August 10, by an overwhelming majority. This result had been for some time foreseen, inasmuch as the terms of the treaty appeared to be a flat abandonment of almost the entire Brazilian contention. The negotiation was conducted hastily, and, it is now alleged, in a glaringly incompetent manner, by the Provisional Government, and its upsetting is only one of many signs of popular disapproval of the goings on in the time of the Dictatorship. The ex-Emperor was brought into the debate through a declaration by one of his friends, that he considered the treaty a surrender of national rights, and that he never would have consented to it while Emperor. This fell in so pat with the general temper that it distinctly enhanced the public regard for Dom Pedro. The exact effect of the rejection of the treaty is in dispute. There was a pre-existing agreement between the two countries to submit the matter to arbitration, but it is now held that this was superseded and nullified by the treaty. However, a peaceful settlement of the difficulty in some way or other is to be looked for, as neither country is in a condition to do any fighting.

The International Corn Market at Vienna was opened on the 30th of August, and the results of the European harvests, prepared by the best statisticians, were then exhibited. Omitting the smaller countries and subdivisions, the showing as to wheat and rye was as follows, the figure 100 representing an average crop:

	Wheat.	Rye.
Austria	93	83
Hungary	100	71
Prussia	92	76
Bavaria	78	80
Italy	86	
Belgium	26	45
France	64	90
Great Britain and Ireland	95	
Russia—Podolia	100	60
Bessarabia	70	50
Poland	82	87
Central	55	65
Kherson and Yekaterinoslav	90	60
Kurland and Lithuania	95	75
Northern	45	45
Egypt	95	

The wheat production of India was set down at 6,824,000 tons, being an increase of 700,000 tons over last year. That of the United States was given as 545,000,000 bushels, against 399,000,000 bushels last year. This great gain in the United States, the London *Economist's* correspondent says, "created quite a sensation." But later accounts than those known at Vienna, from the spring-wheat districts of the Northwest, authorize the belief that the wheat crop of the United States will be fully 50,000,000 bushels larger than that given above. The opinion was expressed that the harvest of the United States would suffice to balance the deficiencies in Russia and in western Europe.

THE NEW YORK DEMOCRATIC CONVENTION.

THE gains resulting from the action of the Democratic Convention, so far as Federal politics is concerned, are obvious. That action has thrown the State unmistakably on the side of good money, so that it will not now be possible for the Republicans to ignore the tariff in 1892, and go to the country, as they had hoped, on the issue of free coinage. It has completely overthrown Hill and destroyed his machine, thus removing him completely from the arena as a competitor with Mr. Cleveland for the vote of the New York delegation. The effect of this on Democratic politics and politicians all over the country will doubtless be very strong. It will probably give a death-blow to the silver craze long before the National Convention meets.

The platform touching the silver question is both uncompromising and aggressive. Its attack upon the present silver law (the Act of July 14, 1890) betrays both a discerning mind and a courageous spirit. We confess that we did not look for either of these qualities in the degree in which we find them set out in the platform. Neither Tilden nor Manning ever produced anything more to the point, or more worthy of the support of the business community. The act named is the Republican party's chief stumbling-block in a financial way. The difference between that and free coinage is one of degree only. Both point to the substitution of the silver standard in place of the gold standard in the progress of time. That this is the tendency and drift of the Act of July 14 is tacitly confessed in the measure itself. After providing for the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion each month, the act declares it to be the policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other. That language would never have been used if there had not been, in the minds of the framers of the law, a belief that its operation would at some time put the two metals *off* a parity with each other. There could have been no other motive for embodying this clause in the bill, as it was only a stump speech in any case. It is declaratory, or rather declamatory, and without legislative force. It puts up a finger-post for the executive branch of the Government, and in this way advertises the fact that the purchase of 54,000,000 ounces of silver per year does tend to disparity between the two metals. It is an apology for a conscious financial blunder, and the mischief of it is, that it requires the Republican party to go on apologizing for it indefinitely, and thus perpetuating the evil apologized for. Both Senator Sherman and Mr. McKinley in Ohio have taken the ground that the Act of July 14 is a good thing *per se*, and all the people whom they can persuade are parroting their words. Now Mr. Sherman knows that that act is a very bad and dangerous one. It is well known that he gave it his assent and his vote under protest and with the greatest reluctance. He knows better than any other Senator that the purchase and coinage of silver ought to be stopped altogether. If his partisan interests were not involved—if he were free to speak as he thinks—he would applaud the resolution of the New York Democratic Convention with both hands. But it has turned out, as often before in Mr. Sherman's career, that he is now giving his sanction and his support, and such educating influence as he commands, to policies which he knows to be bad, and which will lead to financial wreck unless the business community is saved by more courageous men than himself.

Now the Democratic party in the West and South has gone in for free coinage. The Democrats of the East, and particularly those of New York, have taken the opposite tack. If the latter succeed in the elections this year, they will stem the tide and remove that danger from the field. Especially will this result follow if the Democrats lose Ohio and hold New York and Massachusetts. There is now, for the first time in many years, an opportunity for the party to return to its old platform—the platform of Jackson, Benton, Marcy, and Silas Wright. The traditional policy of the Democratic party on the money question was sound. It was always in favor of the best dollar that could be had. No dollar was then too good for the wage-earner or for any American citizen. It is only since the war, and since the insidious and debasing influence of legal-tender notes came into play, that the party has been led into the mischievous and ruinous policy of favoring clipped money. Once out of this rut—and there is now a fair chance of getting out—there will be no free-coinage party left in any part of the country, and we shall have only to deal with the pestilent Act of July 14, which the Republicans are hypocritically praising. The financial firmament has been much cleared by the action taken at Saratoga, and we feel a due sense of thankfulness to the men whose persistence and courage have given the voice of the party in the Empire State against the further coinage of silver, except on the basis of its intrinsic equality with gold.

But in saying this, we must not overlook the fact that the Convention at Saratoga was, after all, a State Convention; that it influences Federal politics only indirectly and remotely. Concerning Federal legislation it can exercise only the power of advice or persuasion. Concerning State politics it speaks with the voice of a probable ruler. If its ticket should win this fall, the result will, in the Federal arena, fortify certain opinions concerning the national finances and discredit certain other opinions, but in the State arena it will put certain men in power in this city and in the State, and firmly intrench certain others in power which they already hold. Consequently, while our interest in the Convention's action in Federal politics is to a certain degree a speculative interest, our interest in its State action is an intensely practical interest. In the one sphere, the Federal arena, the politicians at Saratoga simply think; in the State arena they act. They will have power; they will handle public moneys; they will fill important public offices, both ministerial and judicial; they will shape legislation affecting fully two-thirds of the things which most concern the safety, honor, and welfare of the people of this city and State.

The nature of the ruling influence in the Convention and its attitude towards State and municipal politics, therefore, are of extreme importance to all of us. It is to be observed, in the first place, that the managers in it who carried the day, who excluded the County Democracy, deposed Hill, nominated Mr. Flower, and drafted the platform, were the chiefs of Tammany Hall—notably, Messrs. Croker, Gilroy, Bourke Cockran, and Martin. The interest of these gentlemen in Federal politics, on such questions as currency, the tariff, and the like, is well known, as we have often pointed out in these columns, to be very slight. Their interest in the distribution of State and city offices is intense. Should they win at the coming election, Mr. Flower will, as their choice, perforce both veto and sign bills under their direction. Should they carry the Legislature, their best efforts will, we are sure, be directed towards strengthening the hold which Tammany Hall now possesses on the city government, which is very strong already, and cannot be shaken as long as it has the support or control of the State Government.

The general direction of this legislation may be inferred both from the action of the Democratic minority in the last Legislature and from some of the planks in the present platform. One of these denounces the Republican attempts to regulate the liquor traffic as attempts to "pass sumptuary laws which needlessly interfere with the personal liberty of law-abiding citizens." What this means we know from the character of the present Tammany Excise Board. Another accuses the Republicans of "covertly lending their influence to the restriction of manhood suffrage." What this means we know from the attitude of Tammany and the Democrats in the Legislature last winter towards the Ballot Act. Another "denounces expensive legislative investigating committees, whose investigations degenerate into strikes for political patronage upon the official authorities of Democratic municipalities." What this means we know from the revelations made by the Fassett Committee touching the condition of the Sheriff's office under Mayor Grant, the presentment of the same by the Grand Jury, the condition of the Register's office, and the indictment of one of the leaders of the Convention, viz., "Barney" Martin, for corruption in office, and his appointment to a more important place after indictment. There would be no inconvenient or expensive investigations, we may be sure, under a Tammany régime, and yet these investigations are the salt of our local politics. They save us from absolute putridity.

These things have to be considered by every honest voter. Hillism *was* a bad thing, and Plattism *is* a bad thing. The destruction of the one ought to be rejoiced over, and the destruction of the other pursued in every way possible. But politics is a very practical matter, and every election is apt to be, in the present state of human nature, a choice of evils which we *must* make. There is no escape from it.

THE OHIO CAMPAIGN.

THE campaign in Ohio, which promised at the outset to be a square fight on the tariff question between two able men, has been deprived of its representative character by the injection into it of the silver question. The step by which this change was brought about was taken by the Democrats with deliberation. A majority of their Convention —although not a large majority—voted for the free coinage of silver, with all which that implies. Gov. Campbell now says, in his opening speech, that the Democrats "desire the subject to be discussed by the people, and believe that it will be disposed of honestly and intelligently by the next Democratic National Convention. They indignantly resent, as insolent and untrue, the charge that they desire to restore the free and unlimited coinage of silver in any manner *except that which will make every silver dollar as good in purchasing power as any other dollar, and worth 100 cents,* as it is to-day, wherever the American flag may cover it." The words in italics are a very important saving clause, but they are not found in the platform of the Ohio Democrats. They may serve to indicate what Gov. Campbell's views are, but they are imported into the canvass, and we may be sure that the glance of Senator Sherman will detect the discrepancy and make the most of it, and that McKinley will follow Sherman's lead.

Considering all the embarrassments that the silver issue put in Mr. Campbell's way, his speech at Sidney was a very able one. He showed that McKinley had been blowing both hot and cold on the silver question from the beginning, and that he had voted in Congress on the 5th of November, 1877, for the free and unlimited coinage of silver. Since that time he has probably had no opinions on the subject, one way or the other, except as they have been doled out to him. He reported with much unction the clause of the last national Republican platform which condemned the Cleveland Administration for its hostility to silver. Referring to this matter in a speech in the last Congress, on the 7th of June, 1890, Mr. Payson of Illinois justly remarked:

> "I remember as an auditor in that Convention hearing the distinguished gentleman from Ohio [Mr. McKinley], the Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, read the platform in the great Auditorium building in which that Convention was held. I do not forget, when the ringing words came from his lips to an audience then conscious as a matter of recent recollection of the position of the Cleveland Administration in regard to silver, the response of that audience when he read the declaration:
>
> "'We, the Republican party, believe in the use of gold and silver as money, and we denounce the present Democratic Administration for its hostility to silver.'
>
> "The words that thus fell from his lips as he read that platform to that assembled multitude met with an enthusiastic response that I shall never forget so long as I live."

That enthusiastic response was probably still ringing in McKinley's ears, as in Payson's, when at Toledo, as late as February of the present year, he again denounced President Cleveland for his hostility to silver. But he was turned around by Senator Sherman, and was induced by him, or by the stress of weather, to utter words of commendation of Mr. Cleveland within six months of his Toledo speech. If the contest in Ohio were to be decided by the showing of inconsistencies in the course of one's opponents, Gov. Campbell's chances of reëlection would be very good.

His treatment of the present silver law was very successful in proving that there is no more reason for issuing legal-tender notes against pig silver than in issuing them against pig-lead or any other kind of property. "It is mere pawnbroking," he continued. "Printed tickets or certificates might as well be issued upon the temporary deposit of watches, jewelry, or second-hand clothes. Under this new system of financiering, the Mint at Philadelphia should be abandoned, and the symbolical sign of three golden balls hung over the entrance to the Treasury at Washington." Very true, but what is your plan, Governor? He goes on to say that "the Ohio Democracy would invoke the legislative and *treaty* powers to undo the wrong they [the Republicans] have perpetrated, and to aid, so far as lies in their power, to restore silver to its proper place and use." The word treaty, or language implying a treaty, is not to be found in the platform of the Ohio Democrats. When Gov. Campbell says that there is a difference of opinion among Democrats in regard to silver, he speaks truly, and there is apparently a difference between himself as an individual and those who voted the free-coinage plank into the platform. But his interpretation of the platform itself cannot be accepted. The poison is there and it cannot be explained away. "Unsettled questions have no pity for the repose of nations"; as little have they for the internal harmony of parties.

Mr. Mills of Texas has rendered the country and his own party a very great service in puncturing the "per capita" windbag in his speech at Mansfield, Ohio, on Saturday last. Although he voted for free coinage in the House, and still believes that "the United States can open their mints to the free coinage of silver at fifteen and one-half ounces, equal to one of gold, and can keep the two metals at par," he has begun to ask the fatal question, "But what good would it do us?" There's the rub. What is the object of running even a small amount of risk by engaging in any such enterprise? Why should the United States undertake the job of keeping the two metals at par, from which all the other great nations of the world shrink? How would it profit the people of the United States? How would it relieve the existing distress, if distress does really exist?

As soon as these questions are asked, the huge gap in the argument of the silver-men, which we have often pointed out in these columns, becomes fully apparent. That gap consists in the failure to explain the difference between money "per capita" and money in the pocket. There is now, say, $23 per capita of currency afloat, but does this show that each man, woman, and child has $23 in hand? By no means. Some have millions, some have thousands, some have hundreds, but a great body have not $10 in cash. Supposing the currency were increased by free coinage or otherwise to $50 per capita, would this increase the amount in possession per pocket? Not in the least. It would be divided as before in about the same proportions. The millionaires would get the largest share, the thousand-dollar men would get the next largest, and so on down.

In other words, the free-coinage scheme, like all schemes for additions to the currency, would fail, as an instrumentality for the relief of distress, owing to the total want in it of any contrivance for transferring the coins when issued to the pockets of those who are short of money. Under the free-coinage plan, they would be given to the man who brought in the silver to the mint to be coined. In other words, the Government would buy his silver from him at a certain fixed rate. When he drew the money, would he hasten to distribute it among the suffering farmers or the poorly paid mechanics? Would he hand it over to the pensioners, or pay it into the charitable associations of the great cities? By no means. He would sordidly pay it into his own bank account and draw on it for his own purposes, in entire indifference to the generous motives of the framers of the bill.

Mr. Mills makes this clearer than any party politician has hitherto ventured to do, and it raises him far above the ordinary campaign orator. We have not now many men in public life who have the courage to combat a popular delusion on the stump, and they seem to grow fewer. The scarcity of them has been made painfully apparent by the currenc and pension agitation, but there are, nevertheless, some left, and Mr Mills towers above them all. When he told the Ohio farmers that no matter how much currency we have "per capita," none of it can get into the farmers' pockets except in exchange for labor or goods, he told the saving truth of the present crisis. He laid the axe to the root of the "per capita" delusion. He showed the road to the only relief the farmer can get from the Government in the present economical condition of the world. That relief consists not in getting more money from the Government, but in compelling the Government to stop taking so much money from the farmer. In other words, the farmer must be raised out of his present slough by reducing his taxes.

THE GOLD MOVEMENT.

THE return movement of gold to this country, which was predicted to begin about the middle of September, has set in, and it is not impossible that we may get back all that we have sent abroad this year, or even more, as a result of the remarkable crop conditions of the two continents. Whenever such a movement becomes excessive, or seems to be so, to the exporting country, we hear of steps taken to resist it, which, however, always fail of their object. Thus, when the movement became a little

alarming here a few months ago, Congress changed the law which required the Treasury Department to exchange gold bars for gold coin, and authorized the Department to charge for bars the cost of manufacturing them, or to refuse bars altogether. The latter policy was adopted, with the evident intent to check the exportation of gold. But it had no such effect. It had no other effect than to add a fraction to the cost of paying the debts which private individuals here owed to foreigners. As the Government was never under obligation to supply to its citizens anything better than gold coin of standard weight and fineness, the supplying of gold bars previously was a gratuity; but it was a gratuity to Americans, not to foreigners. The withdrawal of the privilege could not be complained of, but the expediency of it is open to question. Certainly the gold movement went on without the smallest interruption, much the largest part of it taking place after the Department had declined to furnish gold bars at all.

We now hear of steps taken on the other side, or about to be taken, to check the movement in this direction. Such steps may be taken in France, where the Bank has the option of redeeming its notes in silver, but they cannot be taken in England. In his speech at Leeds some months ago, Mr. Goschen, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, said that England was the only country in Europe which did not offer any obstacles to the exportation of gold, and that this fact (the establishment of a fixed standard of payments) had had an important influence in making London the centre of the world's commerce. He showed how very small a part of the trading done by mankind is really transacted by the actual use and handling of money, and how large a part by letters of credit. Only a small part, probably not 5 per cent., of the commerce that centres in London or in New York could be done at all if the passing of money to and fro were required to carry it on. In the first place, the money does not exist in sufficient quantity, and if it did exist, the traders could not handle and count it without a ruinous loss of time. The course of international trade is this: A banker whose credit is known and established in the principal seats of commerce, issues a letter of credit to the trader. The latter buys goods with drafts drawn against the letter of credit; that is, on the issuing banker. These drafts are paid in the money of the country or place where the banker transacts his business. If the money is gold, the draft is paid in gold; if silver, it is paid in silver; if it is one of the "limping standard" countries, the draft may be paid in gold at a small premium, the standard of payments being thus slightly variable.

A "limping standard" country is one in which bimetallism once existed but has since been discarded in favor of the single gold standard, leaving a considerable amount of old legal-tender silver on hand. France and all the countries of the Latin Monetary Union are of this type. The old silver coin drifts to the Bank of France. It is bulky and inconvenient. People do not like to be bothered with it more than is necessary. The Bank must take it on deposit because it is legal money. Thus about two hundred and fifty million dollars of the old silver has got lodged in its vaults. The Bank is a private institution. Every five-franc piece in its vaults is good to pay its own debts with. Four of them are as good for this purpose as a louis d'or. They are as good to any and every debtor in France, and, with some restrictions and qualifications, in any part of the Latin Union. But outside of those boundaries the difference in value between twenty francs of French silver and twenty francs of French gold is perhaps 30 per cent., or would be but for the fact that any foreigner having French silver can buy French goods with it, the seller of the goods depositing it in the Bank of France as the equivalent of gold.

Here we find the measure of the Bank's ability to charge a premium on gold drawn from it for export. It is troublesome to draw silver and cart it around to pay for goods. But the exporters would never go to the trouble, except in extreme cases, of buying French goods in order to realize on their silver. They would simply buy gold from the money-changers. The premium charged by the latter would be the measure of the trouble of getting the money into the form of exportable goods. This premium the Bank can charge for gold, and no more. It is easy to see that the man who pays the premium is the French debtor, not the American creditor, the French buyer and not the American seller. The Frenchman has to pay his debt anyhow, or go into bankruptcy. He must pay it in our unit of value, which is, up to this time, the gold dollar. If the Bank in which he keeps his money puts him to the trouble and expense of going to the money-changers to buy gold, that is his trouble and expense, not ours. The Bank may properly say to its customer: "You put this silver in here, and you must take it back or pay us something for taking care of it for you."

It is, undoubtedly, an injury to French credit and to French commerce that one cannot know for certain whether a draft drawn on Paris will be paid in gold at its face value, or whether a premium will be charged for the gold—the alternative being payment in silver and the selling of the silver in the street. Persons selling to France or taking French drafts will generally charge enough more to cover the possible shave. There is no way in which the loss can be put upon foreigners after they have once learned what the practice is. It is not often that the Bank charges a premium in gold, but the liability to a premium is always present, and insurance against it is one of the costs of the French trader. It is one of the expenses of doing business in that country. It does not check or delay in the smallest degree the exportation of gold when trade conditions require it.

The United States are not as yet a silver-standard or even a limping-standard country. We offer no obstacles to the exportation of gold. The withdrawal of the gold-bar privilege was the withdrawal of a gratuity, not the interposition of an obstacle. Perhaps the experience of this remarkable year—remarkable for the movement of gold to and fro — will teach us all that the exportation of the metal is not an evil to be resisted, since we get the worth of it in something that we have voluntarily sought, and that we prefer for the time being to have instead of gold. It may show us, also, that resistance, unless it takes the form of not buying the thing we want, is always and absolutely futile.

PROPERTY AND JUSTICE.

THE address delivered by Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court of the United States to the graduates of the Yale Law School, which is published in the *New Englander* for August, deserves the attention of all students of our constitutional history. It marks what we sincerely hope may be a turning-point in the course of judicial decision affecting legislative confiscation of property. The legal-tender decisions, the slaughter-house cases, the elevator cases, and the judgment affirming the constitutionality of the Kansas prohibitory law, had gone far to establish the principle, announced by Chief-Justice Waite in the opinion of the Court in Munn vs. Illinois, that "for protection against abuses by legislatures the people must resort to the polls, not to the courts." This startling doctrine, which, in its broad statement, would subvert all constitutional liberties, has, in the recent railway case from Minnesota, been substantially repudiated. In that case, Justice Brewer declares, it was decided "that, under the guise of legislative control over tariffs, it was not possible for State or nation to destroy the investments of private capital in such enterprises; that the individual had rights as well as the public, and rights which the public could not take from him." This opinion, Justice Brewer emphatically asserts, "will ever remain a strong and unconquerable fortress in the long struggle between individual rights and public greed," and he adds: "I rejoice to have been permitted to put one stone into that fortress."

These words, so highly reassuring to those who fail to discover ideal justice in the destruction by the State of rights of property which it has long recognized, represent no mere expression of personal feeling or of legal conservatism on the part of Justice Brewer. They contain the logical result of a theory of the relations of men to the State that was once almost unquestioned in this country, but has of late been so far lost sight of that its public reaffirmation by a Justice of the Supreme Court is extremely encouraging. According to this theory, "the corner-stone of the foundation upon which the Constitution was built, and upon which it rests to-day, was and is the Declaration of Independence," and that Declaration affirmed—

"that sacredness of life, of liberty, and of property, are rights—unalienable rights; anteceding human government and its only sure foundation; given not by man to man, but

granted by the Almighty to every one; something which he has by virtue of his manhood, which he may not surrender, and of which he cannot be deprived. . . . When, among the affirmations of the Declaration of Independence, it is asserted that the pursuit of happiness is one of the unalienable rights, it is meant that the acquisition, possession, and enjoyment of property are matters which human government cannot forbid and which it cannot destroy; that, except in punishment for crime, no man's property, nor any value thereof, can be taken from him without just compensation. . . . Whatever dreams may exist of an ideal human nature which cares nothing for possession and looks only to labor for the good of others, actual human experience, from the dawn of history to the present hour, declares that the love of acquirement, mingled with the joy of possession, is the real stimulus to human activity."

The right of property asserted by this theory is thus based upon a sound psychology, alike supported by the lessons of history and recognized by the Constitutions of the United States and of the several States. Our governments exist to secure the rights of the individual against the assaults of the majority. It is the individual who needs protection, for he is weak; the majority is strong and can take care of itself. Of direct destruction of property by Government we are in little danger, but its value may be diminished or destroyed by forbidding or prescribing charges for its use. In the "Granger" cases the question involved was not the extent of the right to prescribe the charges of common carriers, but the existence of this right, which was denied by the railroads. But in the "elevator" cases the extent of the right was at issue; and its limitation in such a way as not to result in practical confiscation was what was accomplished by the Minnesota case to which Justice Brewer has referred above, with such honorable pride.

As it is the use of property that gives it its value, it is obvious that to forbid the use is to destroy the value, and here, unfortunately, the record of the Supreme Court is not so good as in the matter of prescribing charges. As to the abstract question there is authority enough, and it is indeed impossible to maintain any plausible distinction between an act that deprives a man of his property and an act that prevents him from using it. But in sustaining the constitutionality of the Kansas act prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating drinks, the court practically adopted this distinction. The case came up on appeal from Justice Brewer's judgment against the constitutionality of the act, and it is entirely clear that he has not altered his original views. To do so, indeed, would be in such a case to stultify himself, for he was reversed by a weak court in an opinion of exceptional feebleness, and, as he very judiciously observes, it was unfortunate that this question came into the courts "along the line of deep feeling, and in the furtherance of a lofty and noble effort to suppress the enormous evils of intemperance." In as plain language as his position would allow, he intimates that posterity may look upon this decision as we look upon the decrees of the Massachusetts courts in the witchcraft cases. Personally, it seems, Justice Brewer believes in prohibitory legislation; but he believes even more in justice, and, as the Kansas act destroyed the property of individuals without compensation, he condemns it. He regrets that

"In the glory of success and the furtherance of a good cause, the State forgot to be just. There were four or five breweries, with machinery and appliances valuable only for one use, worth a few thousand dollars (a mere bagatelle in comparison with the wealth of the State), built up under the sanction of the law, owned by citizens whose convictions were different from those of the majority, and who believed the manufacture and sale of beer to be right and wise. As good citizens it was fitting that they should yield to the judgment of the majority. As honest men, it was fitting for the majority not to destroy without compensation, and to share with the few the burden of that change in public sentiment evidenced by the Constitutional amendment. It will be said hereafter, to the glory of the State, that she pioneered the way to temperance; to her shame, that at the same time she forgot to be honest and just, and was willing to be temperate at the expense of the individual."

It is not to be expected that the Supreme Court will directly repudiate its own precedents, but we think that these utterances by Justice Brewer may be taken to indicate that, in the immediate future at least, that court will not sustain legislative acts impairing the value of property, either by fixing charges for its use that are unremunerative, or by forbidding uses essential to its value, unless compensation to owners is provided. Justice Brewer, of course, recognizes the existence of the police power, and goes to perhaps an unnecessary length in declaring that Government may regulate or destroy any use of property in the name of public morality, health, or welfare; but he insists that this power involves as its complement "the full, absolute, and unqualified recognition and enforcement" of the right of compensation. The existence of this right restrains hasty action. "It induces a small majority to hesitate in imposing upon an unwilling and large minority its notions of what is demanded by public health or morals or welfare." Moreover, all experience shows that attempts of this kind fail of their aim, because jurors and witnesses reflect the feeling of the minority as well as of the majority. This, however, is an argument of a different order, and might be turned upon Justice Brewer's approval of prohibitory legislation with damaging effect.

The great truth emphasized by this address is, in short, that as in criminal matters *ex-post-facto* laws are unrighteous, so in civil affairs no Legislature can disturb vested rights. Rights of property created in reliance upon laws which sanction their creation are not to be ruthlessly extinguished by the withdrawal of that sanction. Popular government especially, Justice Brewer maintains, cannot endure unless this principle is upheld. He frankly declares that if our own Government is to be permanent, we must recast some of our judicial decisions, "and if that be not possible, we must rewrite into our Constitution the affirmations of the Declaration of Independence, in language so clear and peremptory that no judge can doubt or hesitate, and no man, not even a legislator, misunderstand"—a passage followed by an allusion which those familiar with the slaughter-house cases will appreciate.

We have commended this address to the attention of students of the Constitution; and as a species of Pretorian edict it is certainly noteworthy. But there is so much in it that every thoughtful citizen should consider, and the spirit breathed is so wholesome, that the societies engaged in disseminating political information would do well to republish it in a form suitable for distribution. It is very short, but, short as it is, it contains several important intimations to which we have not referred. The more conservative portion of the legal profession will experience a revival of their somewhat impaired confidence in the Supreme Court if its new members are imbued with the convictions expressed by Justice Brewer, and the business community will rejoice in the possession of judges who have sufficient courage to recognize and assert their function as the guardians of constitutional rights against the vagaries of legislators.

THE OUTLOOK FOR CHURCH UNION.

It was in 1886 that the bishops of the Episcopal Church made their Chicago Declaration, laying down the four fundamentals upon which they asked all Protestant churches to unite. When their proposals for church union, or at least church federation, were ratified by the bishops of the English Church at Lambeth, in 1888, a great deal of enthusiasm was aroused in various other denominations. Some of them—for example, the Presbyterian—took official action in consequence of these proposals, and appointed committees of correspondence and conference on the subject. More striking than this was the warm approval given to the project in the religious press, and the hearty response to the Episcopal advances made by various leaders of prominence in different churches, both by addresses and publications. Thus it seemed for a time as if the latest attempt to unify divided Protestantism might meet with a fair degree of success; but the turn of more recent discussion and action shows that it is to have no more immediate or practical effect than foregoing efforts of the sort.

The four points of this new irenic theology relate to the Scriptures, the Apostles' and the Nicene Creed, the two sacraments, and the "Historic Episcopate locally adapted." No especial difficulty has arisen with respect to the first and third, upon which, indeed, the affirmations are conveniently vague. But in reference to the creeds and the episcopate, the debate has taken an acute turn, and it is upon them that the entire project will go to wreck. This may be seen in the attitude of the two denominations which may best be taken as the Right and the Left, if the Episcopalians are to be regarded as the Centre—namely, the Presbyterian and the Unitarian. The first stands for a compact and highly organized system of church polity which rejects episcopacy. It also stands for an extremely conservative type of theology. The Unitarians, on the other hand, are among the most extreme defenders of the independence and sovereignty of the

individual church, as well as the most liberal of all in theology.

Now the curious thing is, that these two widely differing denominations attack the proposals of the Episcopalians precisely at these points of creed and organization. "The Nicene Creed?" asks the Presbyterian dubiously; "that did well enough for the fourth century, and might even now pass as a compend for the use of converts, but it is quite too vague and undeveloped to be the official creed of a church." This was the gist of the talk at the last General Assembly, when the subject was up for discussion, and the subsequent action taken was practically a breaking off of the entire negotiation. On the other hand, Dr. William Everett, in the September *Unitarian Review*, speaking for his co-religionists, declares that the Nicene Creed is altogether too much "expanded by glosses," and filled with "subtleties of the Byzantine Church," to "attract the faith of churches whose members have never repeated it as catechumens or listened to it as worshippers." He also resents, in the name of local autonomy, the invitation to submit to Episcopal church-government, just as strenuously as the Presbyterians did in the name of the divine right of Presbytery.

This cross-fire on both flanks may very well confirm the Episcopal Church in the belief that it is the true *via media* to which both extremes are bound to come; yet the vigor of the firing must convince it that the extremes are as yet by no means minded to make a start. The fact is, the movement has been too theoretic and abstract to succeed. If the question is simply one of friendly feeling and perfect toleration between the churches, it is already solved. As an Episcopal minister lately wrote, "We have more unity now than our machinery can handle." The attempt should have begun at the practical end. If the proposal had been to arrange for an equitable division of charitable and religious work in cities, for example, so that the present great waste from overlapping and conflict might be avoided, or for a similar partition of territory in new countries, like our remote West, or in foreign missionary enterprises, it could hardly have failed so to appeal to the business men in the various churches who have to foot the bills, that a beginning at least would have been made. But as soon as the proposed basis of union was made predominantly speculative, it was certain that, sooner or later, the discussion would awaken the dormant instinct and passion of denominationalism, and that, so far from leading to real unity, the proposal would result, as it has resulted, in a distinct sharpening of the sectarian spirit.

Moreover, along with this has come the breaking out of serious divisions within several of the churches. In one case at least there is grave danger that a denomination may be cleft into two, adding one more to the discordant sections of Protestant Christianity. We refer, of course, to the pending trial for heresy of Prof. Briggs, and, in his person, of the large body of his sympathizers in the Presbyterian Church. Some of the best-informed Presbyterians in this city look to see a split in their denomination, as a result of the probable issue of that trial and of the position already taken by Union Seminary. In the Baptist Church, too, there is a storm-centre gathering in the region of Boston, and even the Methodists have their theological "suspects." Most significant of all, the Episcopal Church itself, the one that invited the differing sects to find peace and unity within its ample and tolerant communion, has a trial for heresy on foot, which may bring about the cutting off of a leading rector and his followers. All these evidences of the persistence of the tendency to subdivision, even within a particular sect, certainly make the outlook for church union on a large scale sufficiently gloomy.

To many minds it will seem that not enough attention has been given to the preliminary question, Is church union, of the sort contemplated, really desirable? Doubtless the Protestant Reformers did not foresee the divisive nature of the principles to which they committed themselves; but now that we do clearly enough, we must either accept the divisions or give up the principles. It may very seriously be doubted if any church union can be formed among those who really believe in the right of private judgment. Any basis upon which they could all stand would either be so vague as to be worthless, or would speedily break down under the weight of conflicting interpretation. In short, the most obvious ground of unity among Protestants is the common conviction that private judgment is too important and too sacred to make possible any organized unity worth the having. The Catholic Church has known how to attain and preserve solidarity, but it has been at the expense of what Protestantism regards as dearer than solidarity. For better or for worse, the Protestant world is committed to inquiry and to liberty. Free inquiry has thus far meant ecclesiastical division, and bids fair to continue to do so. As a writer in the *Andover Review* says, speaking of the subject in its widest bearings, "They who look for a reconciliation of Romanism and Protestantism, of Ecclesiasticism and Criticism, are dreaming idle dreams, having no knowledge of the principles upon which these opposing parties stand, and the eternal antagonism that exists between them."

NEW HAMPSHIRE INNKEEPING.

BETHLEHEM, N. H., Sept. 10, 1891.

THE growth of this little mountain village during the past quarter of a century is one of the most significant chapters in the history of the transformation which the State of New Hampshire has been and still is undergoing. The simple statement of the Commissioner of Agriculture and Immigration, that more than five millions of dollars are annually brought into the State by summer visitors, gives us a starting-point for some very curious considerations as to the nature and the process of the present development. Driving with my landlord, a man of perhaps thirty-five, I was shown the house in which the first city boarders in Bethlehem were entertained. It was a little "story and a half" cottage, hardly visible in the midst of the great ugly barracks which have grown up around it. The city folks, so said the landlord, were stared at and followed about by himself and his contemporaries like beings from another sphere. At that time there was not a person in the region who had the faintest conception of that fine art, keeping a hotel. From such beginnings there has grown, within less than a generation, the accumulation of architectural horrors known the country over as "Bethlehem Street," maintaining and increasing from year to year its hold upon our travelling population, until it now draws thousands and thousands annually into its numerous hostelries.

It is evident that here was a most peculiar demand suddenly laid upon a community totally unprepared for it. Not only was the mountain region destitute of inns such as one would find in any rural region of Europe, but there was and is a something in the nature of the New England people distinctly opposed to innkeeping as a profession. The "tahvern" was a disreputable place, usually kept by some moral or commercial failure, and properly enough regarded by serious people as a plague-spot upon their community. The fare dispensed to the unlucky wayfarer at such a place was of the most appalling description, bad enough to counteract in a few days the good effects of the splendid mountain air. A good flat bed was unknown; drainage and water-supply had received no intelligent thought. Evidently, the evolution of the future hotel was not to take place along the native professional line, and, in fact, the old taverns have only in very rare cases become, through some accident of situation, the popular hotels and boarding-houses of the present.

Another alternative would have been that professional hotel-keepers from the cities should carry their capital and experience into the country, anticipating, as shrewd business men, the movement of population in the summer, and making use of the immense advantage of their city connections to meet it. It is a very singular fact that this was not done. Almost without one exception the mountain landlords, from old Ethan Crawford down, have been New Hampshire men, and generally natives of the region in which their work has been done. This continues true to the present day, and it finds its echo in the language of the people. While the houses themselves bear such alluring titles as the "Alpine," "Highland," "Mountain View," etc., the native never uses these words if he can help it. He greets you with, "Stoppin' over to Charley Smith's?" or "John Henry's folks done pretty well this season?" or "Kind o' thinnin' out over to Amos's now?" Indeed, the moment one gets away from the very largest centres of mountain resort, the native is likely to be found totally ignorant of hotel names, and will be quite confused if asked to direct you to the "Sylvan Glade."

In estimating the growth of the summer industries of New Hampshire this native quality must be kept steadily in view, and really the results are most surprising. Taking Bethlehem Street as typical, we find, grown up over night as it were, fairly well-built wooden buildings capable of holding from 30 to 300 persons each, and managed chiefly by men who, as my landlord frankly confessed of himself, have not, and never did have, any idea of the business of keeping a hotel. What they know they have got by the rough-and-ready process of tumbling into it as emergencies arise, and trusting to their native common sense not to make the same mistake too many times. For instance, the art of attractive and wholesome cookery has but just begun to be

studied here. Except in the most expensive hotels, the bill of fare is still essentially that of the average well-to-do New Hampshire family, and the method of cooking has varied little with the increase in its dimensions. On the other hand, the methods of service have approximated to those of city hotels and restaurants, keeping generally a decade behind the times. The usual hotel table, with its awful collection of pickle bottles, fiery sauces and other condiments in the centre, and its multitude of little dishes containing bits of cold vegetables badly cooked, is a heathenish affair developed through ignorant imitation of bad models. It does not provide what city people really like best, for it is apt to be most deficient in true country products, such as unlimited cream, eggs, and butter, while it strives ineffectually after "what city folks are used to."

There is a second element in the growth of summer industry which I have found even more curious than its native character, and which is in some ways curiously inconsistent with it. The entertainment of strangers not only ought to bring profit to the keepers of boarding-houses and hotels, but ought to stimulate all those industries which supply the wants of these houses. This has been done thus far to a surprisingly small extent: even those houses which have farms attached and whose advertisements treat so seductively of cream, butter, and eggs, raise but a small part of the products they consume. Here and there a very large house has found its profit in this work, but by far the larger part of the supply comes from the Boston market.

I have never heard either landlord or farmer deny the folly of this situation. Here are thousands of acres of land, close to an immense market which demands the best there is, and is forced to send hundreds of miles for a poor article when the best should be produced abundantly at its doors. The reasons are not far to seek. Truck-farming demands a kind of man that is rarely found in New Hampshire. It involves constant watchfulness, a wide knowledge of varieties of products, a capacity to change quickly from one crop to another, a study of soils and manures; in short, a world of things which the average wasteful New England farmer has no patience to "bother with." The same is true of the egg and poultry industry. The mountain hotels are using to-day turkeys frozen last autumn in Vermont, chickens, few and poor, gathered in from the accidental raisings of scattered farmers or sent up from Boston, and eggs as to whose antecedents the less said the better.

Small fruits, strawberries, currants, and raspberries, all of which ripen during the best season, with their immense value both for the table and for the making of preserves, are hardly grown here at all. Yet I found on inquiring that all over the smiling hills between Lisbon and Franconia flowers could be set out almost as early as in Massachusetts, and these small fruits would require no forcing to bear abundantly when prices are highest. I have seen nowhere in the State more beautiful fields, neater houses, or larger and finer barns than within a radius of five miles from Sugar Hill, where hotels and cottages are growing with great rapidity. With hay at less than $10 a ton, one would suppose that farmers would take the hint, diminish the area of their mowing-land, and try what brains and painstaking would do as against a wasteful use of muscle.

Another industry, until recently strangely neglected in New Hampshire, is the raising of cattle and horses; and here, too, the summer influx is already making itself felt. These rocky pastures of the mountain country are wonderfully rich in those short, sweet grasses which give flesh and power to growing stock of every kind. There is a demand for horses here, during the season, which is most imperfectly met. One needs only to watch the equipment of any mountain vehicle to see what a low standard of horseflesh prevails here. Vermont, with its horse-raising traditions, is close at hand, to be sure, but it can look southward for its market more hopefully than eastward. The mountain farmers are beginning to look to themselves to supply the need. As for neat cattle, I can find no indication that any serious competition with the great West is for the moment being thought of. Probably it will be necessary to wait until Western grazing has reached a lower margin of profit, a thing of not so many years yet, before this branch of industry will attain great proportions here.

Here are prospects sufficiently alluring, one would say, to change in the next generation the whole face of New Hampshire farming. It is not likely that city life will soon cease to exercise its baleful charm upon the rural population, but the more clearly the young man in the country can see before him a reasonable certainty of gain, and can be brought to understand that his farm-life has not to be led in quite the sordid conditions of his forefathers, the more successfully may this attraction be combated. The summer invasion is doing a grand work in producing new conditions under which New Hampshire farming may reassert itself. Along both the lines I have indicated, the profession of innkeeping and the supply of provisions needed by the innkeeper, there is abundant room for native tact to put itself into profitable exercise.

Let any clever son of the mountains take a run over to Switzerland, the Black Forest, and Tyrol, and he would find time and money well spent. He would discover a theory of innkeeping which regards it as a respectable profession, to be learned like any other, and he would perhaps overcome that view of the guest as an enemy which, with the best of intentions, the New Hampshire landlord has not yet got out of his creed. E. E.

NEW MOUNTAIN RAILWAYS IN SWITZERLAND.

LOCARNO, Sept. 3, 1891.

THE season of 1891 will be remembered in Switzerland as the poorest in a decade, if not in several decades. June, July, and August did not have more than half-a-dozen fine days each; consequently, crops are short or ruined, including even the wild berries. The poor guides and carriers, who rely on these three months for their whole year's support, are looking forward with their families to a winter of privation, while the tourists, a large proportion of whose time was limited, spent a comfortless week or two among the mountains without a ray of sunshine or a single glimpse of the famous snow peaks. September still remains, but comparatively few of the tourists seem to have discovered as yet that this month is, in Switzerland, almost always the finest in the year, with the largest number of clear days and the balmiest air. Those who have left this land of lakes and mountains, rain and clouds, without seeing any but the latter features, have this one consolation, that they would have been equally wet anywhere else; for, except in the extreme South, it has rained all over Europe as incessantly as in Switzerland—so incessantly that an English paper, a few days ago, had an editorial on "The Disappearance of Summer," with the semi-serious proposal that London should be roofed over and made independent of the sun and the weather by means of electric contrivances.

The general falling off in Swiss travel may be estimated from the fact that the receipts of the railway to the top of Mt. Pilatus during July were 20,000 francs less than in the same month last year, although that also had an unusually rainy season. Yet, instead of discouraging the Swiss, this climatic perversity seems only to stimulate them to renewed efforts to make their famous summer resorts easily accessible to foreign visitors. There is at present a regular "fad" for building mountain railways. The oldest of these, which lead up the Rigi from Vitznau and Arth, now seem quite simple and primitive compared with some that have been built within the last two or three years. Foremost among these is the railway which leads up the forbiddingly steep and bare sides of Pilatus; a reckless invitation, it would seem, to inevitable disaster, were it not that the car is so securely held between its granite substructure and its upper framework of steel and iron that accident is made almost impossible. In its way this road is no less remarkable than the St. Gothard Railway, with its ten-mile tunnel 3,000 feet below the summit of a mountain, and its curious loop-tunnels—strokes of engineering genius without which this railroad would have been impossible. The Pilatus road was finished only three years ago, and its success seems to have stimulated the forming of projects which will make it seem mere child's play in comparison. For Pilatus is only 6,998 feet high, while the summits of the Jungfrau, the Matterhorn, and Mont Blanc, which it is now proposed to reach by rail, are respectively 13,670, 14,705, and 15,730 feet above sea level. It has been shown, theoretically, that such roads are not impossible, and the only question now is, whether they could be made remunerative, which seems doubtful, considering that the fares would have to be very high, and that the roads would be used only on clear days, which are becoming increasingly few and far between.

I have before me a pamphlet in which an attempt is made to prove the feasibility of a road leading up through the interior of the Jungfrau to its top. The author, Major E. Löcher, modestly calls his project only a "study," but he feels confident that all engineering, hygienic, and meteorological obstacles could be overcome. The roadbed would assume the shape of a double tunnel, while the cars would be supplied with ventilators and propelled by means of compressed air. The summit could thus be safely reached in fifteen minutes, instead of the present twelve hours of hard and perilous climbing; and a tourist could leave Lauterbrunnen half an hour before sunrise, enjoy that phenomenon on the snowy summit (which embraces a view of almost all the Swiss peaks), and return to his hotel in the valley in time for an early breakfast. Inasmuch as the car would be invisible on the outside, no one could complain of its spoiling the scenery, while the Queen of the Alps would be made accessible even to invalids (provided they have no heart disease), whereas at present she offers a welcome only to thorough Alpine experts. If the Jungfrau road is built, the Matterhorn and Mont Blanc projects will be dropped, as it would, of course, not pay to build more than one road of this kind.

If this scheme, and another almost equally daring one, should ever be carried

out—and there are not a few who believe they will be—the village of Lauterbrunnen, at the foot of the famous Staubbach Fall, which, until last year, was accessible only by carriage, will be one of the most important railway centres in Switzerland, and certainly the most remarkable one in the world. The other project referred to is the building of a road across and through the mountain giants that lie between Interlaken and the Rhone Valley Railroad. At present the short distance between these points requires a two days' trip by carriage to Kandersteg, and on foot across the Gemmi Pass, delightful on a clear day, but dreadful in bad weather, and expensive to all but pedestrians; or else a simply absurd détour by rail via Bern and Lausanne, taking almost as long. The road in question would cover the distance in five or six hours.

Even without these two doubtful roads, Lauterbrunnen will soon be an important railway centre, for it was connected last year with Interlaken and Grindelwald, while a new mountain road up to Mürren was opened a few weeks ago; and next year still another mountain road, leading up from Lauterbrunnen to the Wengernalp and down on the other side to Grindelwald, is to be operated. The road from Interlaken to Lauterbrunnen is an ingenious combination of the rack-and-pinion system with the ordinary adhesive system, the former being used only where there is a considerable rise, whereby much time is saved; and the transition from one system to the other is made without stopping. Much bolder, however, and more interesting, is the branch road which leads up to Mürren, 2,735 feet above Lauterbrunnen. This consists of two sections, the first being worked by a wire rope, which raises the car to a height of about 2,000 feet, at a gradient rising from 40 per cent. to 60 per cent.; while the second is an electric railway on the trolley system, which takes the passengers on slightly rising ground to the superbly situated Hôtel des Alpes. This is, I believe, the first electric railway ever built at a height approximating the top of Mount Washington. Coal being dear in Switzerland, and water-power superabundant (especially on this slope of *Lauterbrunnen—i. e.*, "nothing but springs"), this road can be run on very economic principles, the motive power being furnished by an upper section of the same brook which, leaping into the valley 980 feet, forms the Staubbach, or "dust-brook," falls. Inasmuch as even telegraph and telephone wires are interfered with by electric storms, it will be interesting to see how this electric mountain road will be affected by them.

There was a slight accident a few days before the line was opened to the public, the car in which the projector of the road, the engineer, and a few others were seated being thrown from the track; one man, who jumped overboard, struck a rock, and was slightly injured, while the others, who remained in the car, escaped with the shock. The accident was on the electric section, and was due to some miscalculation regarding the length of the cars and the curvature of the road. The cars were therefore discarded, and the shorter baggage-cars substituted pending the completion of new passenger cars; and so great is the confidence of the public in modern engineers that the very first trains were crowded to their utmost capacity, and have remained so ever since, many, indeed, being compelled to ride or walk for want of room. Thus it seems probable that Mürren, which has been hitherto visited by about 20,000 tourists every summer, will see double that number hereafter. To those who love quiet in a summer resort, the daily arrival of hundreds of tourists, to stay only a few hours, by the new railway will prove an annoyance; and there are not a few who object to mountain railways altogether as unæsthetic intruders into the sublime Alpine solitude. It is also a sad blow to the scores of carriers who have hitherto plied their trade between Lauterbrunnen and Mürren. Yet these men will find some other employment, and thank heaven for releasing them from a trade which is little removed from slavery. Carrying huge Saratoga trunks and heavy men and women up a steep mountain side, about 3,000 feet in two hours, is an occupation the injuriousness of which is proved by the fact that almost all these carriers are pale and age prematurely. The horses, too, will be glad to be released of the burden of carrying daily up this mountain provisions for 500 guests in the two large hotels. For tourists who do not walk, the expense has been greatly lowered. The round trip on the train costs six francs, and the baggage a franc or two, while the price of a horse for yourself, and another (or two men) for the baggage, is twenty-four francs each way, or almost five times as much. It is from the point of economy (of money and time) that tourists will most value the new mountain railroads.

Mürren, which Prof. Tyndall is said to have declared the finest spot in Switzerland, and which certainly has the grandest view of all places adapted for a longish stay (with the possible exception of the Riffelberg above Zermatt), has had special attention attracted to it this summer by the new railway and by the fact that Mr. Stanley had to prolong his stay there for two months on account of the accident to his leg. He slipped and broke his ankle—some say in making way for a lady on a narrow path, others in showing his nephew how to throw a javelin; so that at the very source of history it is sometimes difficult to obtain accurate facts. Mr. Stanley still had to be carried when he left, and during the two weeks that I was at the Hôtel des Alpes he came down stairs only once, on the occasion of a concert by hotel guests on behalf of the poor in Mürren—which, by the way, netted no less than 375 francs, a sum which, as the local pastor announced, was to be expended on a Christmas dinner for the poor, a Christmas tree, and (if aught remained) on warm clothes—a list which might be more sensibly reversed, for they are evidently in need of warm clothes, these poor peasants, whose winter fare consists chiefly of bread and cheese, while their scantily warmed houses are surrounded by walls of snow three to four feet deep, and the roofs are weighed down by huge bowlders, in evidence of the savageness of winter storms. A few francs might also have been reserved for a bath, which these peasants need very much, for they are horribly malodorous and uncleanly—the very antipodes of the "uncivilized" Japanese peasants.

I have spent parts of three summers at Mürren, and have always wondered why among the guests there are so few Americans. A glance at any page of the hotel-register shows that fully two-thirds of the tourists are English, and only about a tenth Americans, which is strange considering that here is some of the finest scenery in the world, with two of the best hotels in Switzerland, and prices only one-half those in American mountain hotels of the same class, so that one can save in a summer the expense of a trip to Europe. Americans have a way of flocking to a few places like Chamounix, Geneva, and Grindelwald, which do not compare with Mürren or Zermatt, where they are scarce. At Mürren they would see from their windows a complete semicircle of snow mountains, including the Wetterhorn, Eiger, Mönch, Jungfrau, Ebnefluh, Breithorn, Gspaltenhorn, etc., with ever new illuminations, pink sunsets, and a play of clouds above and below, almost as interesting as the peaks themselves. The same may be said of the snow-water brooks, the milky-way of glacier streams, and the numerous waterfalls visible from the very hotels. Some of these falls, on the massive sides of the Jungfrau, are temporary, lasting only during the continuance of a rain-storm on the vast mountain; one of these is divided into four falls of tremendous height, suggesting the Yosemite Falls, and is so fine as almost to reconcile one to a rainy day. There are even temporary snow peaks. On August 24 we had a snow-storm during the night, and in the morning the charm of the panoramic view was doubled by what a friend somewhat boldly called "a mushroom growth of snow peaks." It is, indeed, a source of constant wonder to me how much snow adds to the beauty and grandeur of mountains. It makes them not only seem larger, but more plastic in outline. The peaks towards Interlaken, which you had hardly glanced at before, gain from their temporary snow cover a beauty that makes them surprisingly conspicuous and fascinating.

Twenty minutes below Mürren, in a meadow known as the Farnthal (a lovely site for some future hotel), one can also see the avalanches of snow and ice tumbling down the sides of the Jungfrau with a noise like that of artillery. A nearer and more imposing view of these is, however, obtained on the opposite mountain side, at the hotel on the Wengernalp, which faces the place where the avalanches fall down. It is a sublime spectacle to see these hundreds of tons of compressed snow becoming detached from the immeasurable snow fields, and tumbling down headlong over a precipice thousands of feet deep. Then the snow runs down in regular channels till it comes to another precipice, over which it tumbles again, looking very much like a large waterfall; and so on, all the way down to the very foot of the mountain.

Having got so far as this place, you will of course not return to Lauterbrunnen the same way, but go on to the top of the pass known as the Kleine Scheidegg, noting on the way how astoundingly the Jungfrau broadens and changes the aspect of its sides and the position of its peaks, the most conspicuous one being fortunately the aptly named Silberhorn, the most beautiful summit in the world, for it is round as a dome, and not a single bare rock spots the snowy continuity of its surface. Then, from the Scheidegg, you will walk down on the Grindelwald side, along the broadening side of the Eiger, a sheer black precipice of 13,000 feet. When you arrive at Grindelwald, you will wonder where that place got its extraordinary reputation. Everybody goes there, as a matter of course, and nowhere else are there so many Alpenhorn-blowers, yodlers, singing children, useless gate-openers, beggars, and other incarnate nuisances. Germans probably go there because it is in a *geschützte Lage*—that is, down in a hole, where there isn't a breath of fresh air (for the Germans are afraid of a "draught" even when they go to the Alps for an "air-cure"); but why all Americans should go there is a mystery to me, for the sole attraction of Grindelwald is a couple of dirty little glaciers which are mere pigmies compared to the Rhone Glacier on the Furka Pass — which no one can afford to miss—not to speak of the fourteen giant gla-

ciers visible from the Gorner Grat above Zermatt.

The mention of Grindelwald and Zermatt reminds me that I have not by any means enumerated all the new mountain railroads in Switzerland. Zermatt, which, until this summer, was accessible only by a bridle-path, can now be reached from Visp in less than three hours, on a road combining the two systems, like the Interlaken-Lauterbrunnen road. During my stay at Mürren I daily heard the blasting on the road which is to connect Lauterbrunnen with Grindelwald via the Wengernalp. Then there is the road up the St. Beatenberg on the Lake of Thun, opened in 1889. A thousand men are at work on another one near Interlaken, up the Schynige-Platte; and still another is to be opened next year on the Brienzer Rothhorn; while further south, by the Swiss Italian lakes, Monte Generoso has been scaled since last year by a railway which opens such a superb view that Baedeker compares it to the Rigi, and has added a special panorama of it to his new edition. This view I have not seen, but expect to enjoy it in a few days, and in the meantime I hope, for the sake of the bold projectors and tourists who cannot walk, that there is no truth in the pessimistic predictions of those who declare this wholesale building of mountain railways a sort of "boom" which will soon end in a collapse. HENRY T. FINCK.

THE THREE GERMAN LUXEMBOURGS.

MUNICH, September, 1891.

APPARENTLY modern German art at home enjoys a popularity no less great than its reputation abroad. In many German towns artists are sumptuously established in gorgeous *Künstlerhäuser;* in many more they annually hold small local or large national and international exhibitions. In State and public alike they have, it would seem, found profitable patrons.

The pictures they are exhibiting this summer may account for their popularity, but hardly for their reputation. In Berlin and Munich, in Stuttgart and Nuremberg, in shows small and great, I have been struck with the absence of interest in the subjects selected and methods employed by painters, with the dispiriting dulness of the collections as a whole, though here and there a canvas by Arnold Böcklin or Franz Stuck, by Von Uhde or Liebermann, has served as a cheerful antidote. The group of artists who some fifteen years ago came back from the German schools to infuse new life into painting and illustration in America have given Americans a very high opinion of the art of modern Germany—an opinion not to be arbitrarily reversed because one year's exhibitions fail to support it. German artists no doubt have their own substitute for the London fog to explain a year's failure. But in the three German national galleries of modern art, in the three German Luxembourgs, at Berlin, Munich, and Dresden, a fair idea should be formed of the work that has been done of late years in Germany, or at least of that which the Germans themselves think worth honoring by a place in their permanent collections. Certainly in the Paris Luxembourg are to be seen the best examples of the greatest artists in France.

To the imperial capital one naturally turns first. In art, as in politics and social life, Berlin should be to Germany as London is to England, Paris to France. And in Berlin evidently no effort has been spared to treat the modern artist with every distinction. It is but thirty years since the bequest of Herr Wagener served as foundation to the present collection, but the modern pictures have for almost as long been hung in a fine building of their own, more pretentious, perhaps, than artistic in its architecture, like so many other modern German buildings, and have been carefully catalogued by a system more elaborate than lucid, of which I hope to have something to say another time. The galleries are well lighted, and their division into comparatively small cabinets is restful and agreeable, or would be if one cared to look at the limited number of pictures which each contains. But to make the rounds of all is as dreary a function as to go through a Royal Academy.

If in recent times great pictures have been painted in Germany, only too few have found their way into the Berlin National Gallery. The royal portraits and allegories, here as elsewhere, one accepts as painful necessities, below or above criticism. But without considering these, the walls reveal a tendency on the part of the German artist to turn out innumerable battle scenes in which Frenchmen ever figure as so many demons, but which are without the action and power a De Neuville or a Detaille could give to the subject, without the decorative treatment which, with the old men, made up in a measure for want of realism; to tell anecdotes in paint and with a degree of sentiment which would put an English Burton Barber or an American J. G. Brown to the blush; to paint landscapes as devoid of light and atmosphere as if Constable and Corot and Monet had never been, and portraits as lifeless as those that annually adorn the walls of Burlington House. And the worst of it is that on many canvases are well-known names, reverenced as the most eminent in the modern German art world—Kaulbach and Lessing, Meyerheim and Achenbach, Defregger and Feuerbach.

Not on the work which is here to represent them permanently can their reputation rest. Either their fame was, or is, the mere outcome of a passing fad or fancy, or else the directors of the National Gallery have done their utmost to belittle it. A more unpardonable error of judgment, because more obviously absurd, is the covering the walls of three or four large galleries with the Cornelius and Overbeck and Alfred Rethel cartoons, which could be of no possible service to any one unless they were turned the other side out and used as wall paper. The only people who are interested in such productions are the compilers of guide-books and art-histories. To this general rule of uninteresting work, of course, there are very notable exceptions—enough, perhaps, to fill one room. Every true lover of art would travel far to see Menzel's "Modern Cyclops," the most successful picture of an artist who is really greater as a draughtsman than as a painter, though, but for his name, one would not give a second glance to his three other pictures included in the collection. The examples of Diez, Von Uhde, Liebermann, Hans Makart (the "Catherine Cornaro" exhibited in the United States), Brozik, Schuch, and above all of Arnold Böcklin, are as fine and as characteristic as they ought to be. But the treatment of the last is a curious comment upon the policy of the directors. Böcklin, though a Swiss by birth, has identified himself with the South German group of artists. Therefore, in the North German galleries his "Fields of the Blessed," a marvellously brilliant work by one of the most brilliant among contemporary painters, has been skied, while another picture by him, an entombment, is hidden away in a small cabinet, a species of art rubbish-hole, to which the public is not admitted, while the directors decide whether they can overcome their petty prejudices and jealousies and give it the conspicuous place on the walls which it deserves. But for the kindness of the head of one of the departments, who realized how much interested I was in Böcklin, I should never have seen it or, indeed, have known of its presence in the gallery. The favoritism which prevails in Berlin, since it shields itself under a national guise, leads to more serious consequences than in England, where hitherto it has been confined to a close corporation like the Royal Academy.

Even allowing for this favoritism, it is not easy to understand the commonplaceness of the sculpture, since it is in sculpture that the German artist of to-day excels. The inadequacy of the National Gallery in this respect is keenly felt just now when at the Berlin International Exhibition German sculptors are making such an unusually strong showing. It seems as if the directors, or selecting committee, must have gone out of their way to secure what was least striking in the sculptor's studio. Equally difficult of explanation would be the failure of the drawings and engravings to represent modern German illustration, were not illustration an art which in its modern development has nowhere received the official national recognition its healthy popularity demands for it. Thousands of marks have been spent upon the drawings of Adolf Menzel, and of these more than a thousand are now owned by the Gallery. That honor should be shown to one of the greatest masters of modern illustration, I would be the last to dispute. Nor would I question the value of gathering together, as has been done here, as many drawings by Max Klinger as possible, for each is a marvel of technique and style and fancy as wild as Böcklin's. But it must be admitted that one-half the Menzels would have sufficed, many being of no special importance. The money could have been more usefully devoted to examples of Diez and Leibl and the younger draughtsmen who, after Menzel, have made the illustrated books and papers of Germany what they are and have given such an impetus to the illustrators of other countries. But the names of these younger men appear to be unknown to the officials in charge.

At Dresden, matters are not much better or very differently ordered. The modern division of the Royal Gallery there dates back twenty years earlier (1843) than the Berlin collection. But from the beginning it suffered from the generosity of men with less knowledge of art than money to spend on it, or else with greater eagerness for their own self-glorification than for the benefit of the institution they endowed. Like Mr. Tait in England, they presented their pictures to the nation; with the results of private benevolence now to be seen in Dresden, the wisdom of the English Government in refusing Mr. Tait's gift for the National Gallery, and their folly in accepting it as the nucleus of an English Luxembourg, must be more than ever realized. The average in Dresden is not higher than in Berlin, nor is the number of masterpieces greater. Herr Karl Woermann, director and compiler of the Catalogue, boasts that during the last ten years pictures have been added to the modern department which now make it rival in attraction the older portion. But the disinterested visitor can scarcely reëcho his enthusiasm. It is true that the "Crucifixion" by Munkacsy is as worthy of a crowd of worshippers, though fashion has not yet made it a show picture for

the tourist, like the Sistine Madonna, before which the faithful readers of Baedeker for ever sit in awe-struck ignorance.

It is also true that Böcklin and Leibl are well represented, that Andreas Achenbach shows to far better advantage than at Berlin, that Kaulbach's artificial composition rises to the highest degree of monumental and magnificent superficiality, and that of these men, Ferdinand Keller, Carl Ludwig, and a few others, there is sufficient work to form a good, if very small, collection. But what is to be said of the rest—of the inane anecdotes, the inanimate portraits, the flat landscapes? Not even Hans Makart, though as lavish with his canvas as usual, has here the decorative quality which makes him in his most successful efforts the Veronese of his day. And if one recognizes the originals of certain popular engravings—the "Child Jesus in the Temple," by Hofmann, the "Rope Dancer's Life before and behind the Scenes," by Ludwig Knaus, for example—it is but to wonder why, as too often with English work, the reproductions in black and white are so much better. The pictures at Berlin and Dresden alike do but confirm the impression given by this year's exhibitions. The gallery of engravings and drawings is not more satisfactory. There are tons of rubbish, the sweepings, probably, of the studios at the time of the formation of the gallery; but of the original work now being done which is of real value to the draughtsman, there is but little. The student interested in contemporary illustration could pass by Dresden and lose nothing.

Berlin may be the capital of the empire, but Munich, as any art student will tell you, is its true artistic centre. There one would look for better things, and there, I must confess, one finds them. Good work is still the exception even at the New Pinakothek or Bavarian Luxembourg. In room after room the walls are hung with hopeless trash which would be rejected with contempt by an impartial hanging committee, even in London. One would not stop to look at it or to consider it if its presence in such a collection were not so glaring an impertinence. It is no exaggeration to say that fully two-thirds of the canvases could be thrown away without compunction; while it is almost impossible to believe that any one but a Barnum or the superintendent of a Sunday-school festival could have taken seriously the Greek landscapes by Karl Rottman, to which a special gallery has been devoted. But, after all, the proportion of good work is greater than in the Saxon and Prussian galleries. Care and thought have been given to the selection of examples of painters of note. If Menzel has been entirely ignored, which seems (though there may be better reasons) but the result of small squabbling between north and south, on the other hand full justice is done to Feuerbach and Piloty, Albert Keller and Gabriel Max, so that how they came by their reputation no longer remains a problem; a portrait of Bismarck leaves no doubt as to the strength of Lenbach; two panels by Makart confirm his fame as a decorative painter; and Böcklin is, if possible, more than ever to the fore.

But it is in the latest acquisitions that the directors show they are beginning to understand the duties of their office to mean something more than the buying or accepting any chance pictures that come in their way. There is a growing tendency to dispense with trash, to recognize the talent of younger men, and to include only what is fairly and creditably representative. The fine canvases by Leibl, Von Uhde, and Liebermann, Robert Haug and Karl Albrecht are all recent additions. Moreover, as in the Paris Luxembourg, space is found for distinguished foreigners; Munich in this particular proving far broader than Paris, where the Luxembourg is solely for Frenchmen and residents of Paris. Dagnan-Bouveret and Boldini, Mauve, the Belgian Courtens—painters as little appreciated at home as the Scotchmen, John Reid and John Lavery—are among those who have already been included in the New Pinakothek. Altogether, when the weeding-out process begins, as begin it must, in the three German Luxembourgs, it will be least wholesale in Munich. In the department of modern drawings, however, everything remains to be done. A few rough notes by Böcklin, probably odd leaves torn from his sketch-book and almost too trivial for State preservation, are all that could detain the art student. There is absolutely none of the black-and-white work that should by rights be there. To learn what the black-and-white men of Germany are now doing, it is not to Old or New Pinakothek you must go, but to the office of *Fliegende Blätter*.

It is, I know, inevitable in collecting modern pictures that some mistakes should be made. Passing fancy or fashion often gives prominence to a painter destined to be forgotten by after generations; the very healthiness of a reaction against old conventions may lead to extremes the value of which is purely negative and, therefore, temporary. But this alone cannot explain the aggressive defects in these three great galleries. There is no doubt that many of their shortcomings may be attributed, first of all, to the ignorance of directors, who, as a rule, are not artists, and in the selection of modern work have not tradition to guide them, or, at least, to back up their selection; and, next, to the impossibility of one country nowadays supporting three large art centres. Germany really shows the danger we should run if each of our principal States tried to set up a little Luxembourg of its own—if the good examples of American artists were scattered in rival would-be national galleries in New York and Boston, Washington and Chicago. If we are ever to have a valuable and representative collection, one town, no matter which, must be accepted as the national art centre. But the German galleries also emphasize the absurdity of limiting such a collection to the productions of native artists. The only permanent exhibition of modern pictures worth establishing is one to which the painters of the world, whether American or European, should be asked to contribute. France escapes the evil into which Germany has fallen, since, though almost all the leading French provincial towns have galleries, and very good some of them are, only the Luxembourg in Paris is accepted as the central national collection. English art likewise, even if it has only escaped this Scylla to be wrecked upon a worse Charybdis, has its national headquarters in London, and the Liverpool and Manchester permanent exhibitions, like those of Lyons and Toulouse, are looked upon as wholly provincial.

But it would be difficult to make Germans agree upon the national supremacy of Berlin, or Dresden, or Munich. Pictures which, if collected together, would make a fairly good show, though one not to be compared to the Paris Luxembourg, are now divided among three institutions. Unfortunately, directors would rather cover their walls with acres of paint and canvas that cannot by courtesy be called art than leave them decently bare. Despite the number of pictures bought every year by the State, France has shown her good sense by reserving only the best and the most typical for the Luxembourg. But in this respect England is now following the lead of Germany. Just as the National Gallery is laboring hard to get rid of its valueless purchases and gifts, the English Luxembourg, the building for which will shortly be erected in South Kensington, begins its career by accepting from Mr. Tait all the paintings he chooses to bestow upon it, good and bad—a tribute to his cleverness in carrying his point rather than to the nation's shrewdness. However, that which gives one least hope for the needed reforms in the German galleries is the wretched favoritism from which the art world is no more free than the social or political. It is the old story—the story told of the State purchase of pictures at the Salon, of the use made of the Chantry Bequest fund by the Royal Academy trustees. Northern and southern German artists are continually bickering, and their childish squabbles, their prejudices and preferences, rather than the quality of their work, open or shut the doors of the galleries against them. Indeed, private patronage at times has proved much more reliable than State recognition, and the finest examples of many painters have found their way into private collections.

That the German Luxembourgs fall so far short of fulfilling the end for which they were instituted is the more deplorable because their management is in most respects admirable. The attendants are unusually intelligent, while the heads of the various departments are ready to render every possible service to the student. Upon mere application and without restriction, drawings are shown to a stranger, who in the British Museum for a similar privilege probably would be asked for a reference, and then carefully superintended. If only the choice of paintings and drawings was as excellent as the organization of the staff in charge of them, then the German would be the ideal Luxembourg. N. N.

Correspondence.

OUR COAL SUPPLY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the interesting paper of Prof. G. Frederick Wright in the *Nation* of September 10, 1891, entitled "England's Coal Supply," in which the quantity now remaining in that country, exclusive of the insufficiently authenticated "southeastern field," is estimated at little over fifty years' consumption, it is pertinent for Americans to remember that the excessive estimates of duration by the Royal Commission (of 1866?) erred not so much by misconception of areas and contents as by failure to foresee the astonishing rate of acceleration in consumption.

On the other hand, while we in the United States have the advantage of twenty-five years' additional observation of the ever-increasing rate of consumption—which increase has averaged not far from 10 per cent. per annum, compounding annually—we still lack precise information respecting area, thickness, and quantity. The census reports of 1890, though abounding in voluminous figures concerning production, price, cost, capital and hands employed, and other details already familiar to those interested in the subject, seem, as far as published, to afford little new light on the essential elements of the calculation for duration. In the absence of sufficiently precise knowledge on those points, one is driven to hypothetic estimates which can

at present be little better than intelligent guesses, useful rather for directing the attention of better-informed and more competent inquirers to the subject than as final calculations.

If we assume that the United States contain—including all tertiary and other deposits posterior to those of the carboniferous period—150,000 square miles, or 96,000,000 acres of coal territory on which the minable coal, ranging from one to sixty feet in thickness, averages eight feet throughout, the entire tonnage of removable coal would be about 768,000 million tons, which is probably a large over-estimate. Taking the present annual production at 130 million tons, with an annual compounding increase of 10 per cent. (the actual rate) for the next twenty-five years; of 5 per cent. for the next fifty years thereafter; and of 3 per cent. for the twenty-five years following, the aggregate consumption by the end of one hundred years, *i. e.*, by A. D. 1991, will have been 840,000 million tons, a quantity exceeding, or at least approaching, exhaustion.

Of course, the above is the merest approximation, since of the three principal elements of the calculation, all are as yet enveloped in doubt. We have not a precise knowledge of the carboniferous area, and there are even less reliable data for estimating its average thickness. Still more uncertain is the future rate of increase in consumption. We, however, know nearly what it has averaged during two generations past, and there seems little reason to doubt that the existing rate of increase will be maintained until artificial power shall have been applied to nearly all the work of a population whose necessities and luxuries tend to augment even faster than its numbers, and can have no limits but the final barriers of human knowledge, if any such exist. The exhaustion that must at some time be reached of the diminishing accumulations of mineral oil and gas, and even the growing use of electricity and water-gas—as those commodities are now produced—must tend to a still more rapid consumption of fuel, since these but change the form of application of power obtained only by its combustion, with considerable loss of power in the conversion.

It is therefore only the most tentative estimates that can now be ventured respecting the quantity and duration of American coal, but this initial attempt may at least serve to attract attention to what, in the absence of some new conquest over Nature, is likely to become a subject of universal interest before the expiration of some lives already in existence.

I. J. Wistar.

Philadelphia, September 16, 1891.

"BEEN" AND "GOTTEN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to your remarks, in a recent review, about the pronunciation of the word *been*, let me ask whether the prevailing American usage be not a survival of what was common in England two or three centuries ago. The present English pronunciation was adopted, probably, gradually. Pope makes *been* rhyme with *sin* about half the time, but I think no English poet of the nineteenth century rhymes it with anything but *seen*. Is not this a fair proof of present English use? For it is well known that the license in the matter of rhymes once allowed to English poets is much restricted, perhaps confined to certain common words with few or no perfect rhymes.

The American use of *gotten*, as the past participle of *get*, is harder to explain. In England it would be considered as much an archaism as *holpen* or *washen*, and in modern English books occurs only as representing rustic speech. In America, it does not seem to be one of the numerous survivals, for it is heard not so much among the uneducated as among certain persons who are careful in their language, and who seem to use the word with some effort.—Yours respectfully, X.

Philadelphia, September 14, 1891.

Notes.

Thomas Whittaker is soon to publish 'The Church in Nova Scotia and the Tory Clergy of the Revolution,' by Arthur Wentworth Eaton.

D. Appleton's fall announcements include *éditions de luxe* of Jules Breton's 'Life of an Artist' and 'The Story of My House,' by George H. Ellwanger; a large-paper edition, of one hundred numbered copies only, of Bancroft's 'History of the United States,' in six volumes, with a portrait; 'The Tragedy of Ida Noble,' by W. Clark Russell; three translations of examples of modern Dutch fiction ('Eline Vere,' 'Footsteps of Fate,' and 'Avenged'); illustrated juveniles by Octave Thanet, William O. Stoddard, Molly Elliot Seawell, and others; Père Didon's 'Life of Christ'; the third volume of Prof. J. B. McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States'; 'Man and the Glacial Period,' by G. Frederick Wright; 'The Courses of Study for Schools and Colleges,' by W. T. Harris; and 'The Dog in Health and Disease, by Wesley Mills.

The Scribners are to issue a series of University Extension Manuals, the volumes announced to lead off being 'The Use and Abuse of Money,' by Dr. W. Cunningham, and 'The Fine Arts,' by G. B. Brown.

A new novel by Grant Allen, 'Recalled to Life,' is soon to be published by Henry Holt & Co.

Additional fall announcements by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. promise Prof. C. E. Norton's translation of Dante's 'Divine Comedy,' in three volumes; 'Vermont' and 'New Jersey' in the American Commonwealths Series; 'Huckleberries Gathered from New England Hills,' by Rose Terry Cooke; 'Masks, Heads, and Faces,' by Ellen Russell Emerson; 'Colonial Furniture of New England,' by Irving Whitall Lyon; Edward Robinson's 'Catalogue of Casts' of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts; 'The Silva of North America,' vol. iii., by Charles S. Sargent; 'William Gilmore Simms,' by Prof. William P. Trent (vol. xii. in the American Men of Letters Series); a new edition, more attractively bound, of a charming story for children, 'The Birds' Christmas Carol,' by Kate Douglas Wiggin; and Mr. Justin Winsor's long-expected and very timely book, 'Christopher Columbus.'

Two Scottish works, 'Auld Scots Humor' and 'Auld Scots Ballads,' are soon to issue from the press of J. G. Cupples, Boston. The same publisher has in preparation a Life of Paul Revere, by E. H. Goss.

A second edition of Dr. Benjamin Rand's 'Selections Illustrating Economic History since the Seven Years' War' will soon be published. The work is used at Harvard and some other American universities as a text-book of required reading to accompany courses of lectures on economic history. The second edition will be much enlarged, containing several new chapters on such subjects as land tenure, transportation, progress in trade and industry, navigation acts, industrial development of the United States, etc. This new edition will be published early in October.

A 'Hand-book of Industrial Organic Chemistry,' by Prof. Samuel P. Sadtler, is about to issue from the press of the J. B. Lippincott Co. Full bibliographical lists are promised for each chapter, with many illustrative cuts of apparatus, etc.

The young women publishers of Chicago—the Misses Searle and Gorton—announce several booklets for children, among which we mention 'Our Dumb Friends,' 'Mother Goose's Christmas Party,' and 'How the Rose Found the King's Daughter.'

A fifth volume of Mr. William Archer's edition of Ibsen's Prose Dramas has appeared this fall; it contains "Rosmersholm," "The Lady from the Sea," and the editor's own translation of "Hedda Gabler." About the same time has been published 'The Quintessence of Ibsenism,' by Mr. G. Bernard Shaw, the author of that most unconventional of English novels, 'Cashel Byron's Profession.' Another British novelist, Mr. D. Christie Murray, has recently been writing to the London *Times*, declaring fervently that no possible temptation shall ever make him swerve from the straight path of English morality into indecent by-ways of Ibsenism.

The interesting announcement is made that Mr. Pinches is to write a series of articles for the *Expository Times* on the Old Testament and the cuneiform inscriptions. The whole field of discovery in this department is to be traversed, Schrader's work being taken as the basis; the corrections and additions made necessary by new material will be noticed in their places. Prof. Sayce, who cordially commends the undertaking, is himself to write for the same journal several papers on the higher criticism and the monuments.

Nine of the articles which Agnes Repplier has printed in the *Atlantic Monthly* and elsewhere are collected in book form under the title 'Points of View' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The author's unconventional and witty handling of her topics, mostly literary and critical, strikes one afresh in this massing of scattered writings.

Mr. Theodore Graham Gribble, an English civil engineer, is the author of 'Preliminary Survey and Estimates' (Longmans, Green & Co.), containing about one-half as much matter as Johnson's or Gillespie's 'Surveying.' It is one of the most straightforward, clear, and practical works of its class ever written. Mr. Gribble received what in England is considered a first-class education in surveying and engineering, and then sought his fortune in the colonies. He found employment on the Canadian Pacific Railway, and soon came to the conclusion, which subsequent wide experience confirmed, that the English engineer was "educated as much as possible in things he *could not* use, and as little as possible in things which *would* be needed by him in a new country." The belief that an English engineer who has had no experience out of England, is "no good" in a new country, is one long entertained by American engineers, but we have never seen it or heard it expressed with such emphasis and in such various forms as by Mr. Gribble. The object of a "preliminary survey," more especially for a railway, is to determine, among other things, whether any kind of line is feasible; whether it is likely to be profitable; what type of railway would be most suitable and what style of rolling-stock; and to obtain the data for a plan, profile, and estimate of one or more routes which the surveyor considers eligible. Upon all these matters and many others mentioned by Mr. Gribble the engineer must report to his

employers. Of course work of this sort is given only to engineers of experience, and it is for such primarily that the book was written; but it will be found interesting and instructive to every one who is, or intends to become, an engineer.

John Wiley & Sons have just issued the seventh edition of 'Theory and Practice of Surveying,' by J. B. Johnson, C.E., Professor of Civil Engineering in Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. It is but a little more than four years since this large, elaborate, and consequently costly work was first issued, and in that short time six editions have been exhausted. Yet it never sacrifices one jot or tittle of theoretical completeness and accuracy, nor makes any concessions to the ignorance of those who endeavor to practise a profession for which they lack the necessary preliminary training. The author has striven after perfection, not popularity. Moreover, the work was launched upon a market already supplied and to be supplied with first-rate rivals, such as Gillespie's two admirable volumes and the excellent work on 'Plane-Surveying' by Prof. Carhart of the Western University of Pennsylvania. The appearance within less than five years of a revised and enlarged seventh edition of Johnson's work, in the face of such competition, renders all detailed criticism unnecessary.

A new quiz-book for medical students is published by P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philaphia, comprising some 3,000 questions arranged for self-examination and with proper references to standard works. The same firm brings out a third edition, revised and enlarged, of Prof. Louis Starr's successful 'Hygiene of the Nursery.'

M. Hugues de Roux, one of the most facile of the younger Parisian journalists, has recently gathered into a volume, 'Portraits de Cire' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern), a score or more of semi-critical, semi-gossiping personal articles. The most interesting are those devoted to M. Jules Lemaitre, one of whose pupils M. Le Roux was when the author of 'Les Contemporains' was still a professor of literature, and to M. Melchior de Vogüé, to whom the younger generation of French authors is deeply indebted for the opening of new horizons. The sketches of the late Jules Garnier, the illustrator of Rabelais, and of M. Jules Cheret, the inventor of the brilliant lithographic "poster," are also noteworthy.

It is not a bad thing to be reminded now and then that no literary phenomenon, however trifling, is ever strictly local in its manifestation. No literary "movement" was ever slighter than the Young Englandism that Thackeray laughed at in 'Jeames's Diary,' and none was ever more completely forgotten. It may be doubted whether the Duke of Rutland himself remembers more than one couplet of Lord John Manners's verses. But the death of Oscar von Redwitz, which has just occurred, brings back to memory the fact that Germany had, simultaneously with England, a touch of the same stained-glass romanticism. Von Redwitz's name was at one time almost famous. He published in 1849 a mediæval poem, "Amaranth," which ran through forty or fifty editions. In smooth and agreeable verse, of pleasing rhythm, he sang of Gothic castles and chivalry and ladies and knights, quite after the fashion of Thackeray's young Lord Southdown. But the brief moment passed, and he lost at once his hold on the public. Though continuing to write for many years, he never regained it. Then he retired, and was only to be seen now and then at literary gatherings, an old man, kindly to the young, and fond of telling the story of a student duel in which he got the great scar that marked his face. He went to his grave (as the *Revue Bleue* says) "forgotten, misunderstood, old before his time." His fate seems not less but more pathetic by reason of the worthlessness of his work.

Parliamentary Paper C. 6366, 1891, 'Report by Mr. C. W. Campbell of a Journey in North Corea' in 1889, gives singular proof of that untiring energy, love of exploration, and devotion to service which so much characterizes the Foreign Civil Service of the British Empire, and which has made that Empire the success which it is. It is seldom that "Her Majesty" ever presents to "Both Houses of Parliament" a more interesting document, and ninepence would be much better spent upon it than upon most books of adventure and summer reading. It is not every civil-servant that feels inclined to spend his time in exploring an unknown country. Corea is shown to be naturally rich and fertile, but cursed with an imbecile government and inhabited by a supine population. Upon the whole, Mr. Campbell carries away a kindly feeling towards the inhabitants, although upon one occasion he was roughly handled. It is not usual to find people in the Corean stage of development so appreciative of fine scenery. "Manchester goods" have already established a firm hold on the markets of the country. Large districts are undoubtedly rich in gold. Money goes far: we are told of a perpetual shooting right over ninety square miles of land being sold for $1 50. The narrative is simple, straightforward, and unaffected.

Under the title of 'The Karankawa Indians of Texas,' the Peabody Museum of Cambridge, Mass., has published an account of this people, together with a short vocabulary of their language. It was prepared by Albert S. Gatschet of the Bureau of Ethnology, and is based upon the early records and the recollections of Mrs. Alice W. Oliver of Lynn, Mass. This lady lived, for some years subsequent to 1838, on the shores of Matagorda Bay, and it was at this time and while the Indians still frequented the spot that she learned to speak their language. As the tribe has become extinct and Mrs. Oliver herself has lately passed away, it is not probable that we shall ever know any more about the matter than is here set forth. This, unfortunately, is very little; for, aside from what Joutel tells us of their manners and customs, our knowledge may be summed up in the fact that their language was allied to that of the Tonkaway, and to the dialects spoken by some of the tribes called by Mr. Gatschet the Pakawa, who lived on the lower Rio Grande.

The first number of a new monthly, the *Charities Review*, is announced to appear on November 1. It is to be devoted to the discussion of social questions, and particularly the organization of charity. It will be published by the *Critic* Co.

An article on our new international copyright law in the *Revue Bleue* of September 5 gives a sufficiently adequate account of that measure, with its deficiencies, but rather ludicrously assigns a large share of the credit of securing its enactment to French initiative. After giving an account of the successive triumphs won by France, "le pays, par excellence, de la production littéraire et artistique," in her endeavors to lead the nations to the due recognition of the rights of authors, the author, M. de Varigny, adds, "restait à y amener les États-Unis." The thing was mostly done by M. de Kératry, we are told, though it is conceded that he was "puissamment secondé" by the Literary and Artistic Association (of Paris), the Minister for Foreign Affairs (of France), and his agent (the French Minister) at Washington, and—gracious recognition of the legislative body swayed by the Count—the "sense of fairness of the United States Congress."

The last Bulletin of the French Geographical Society contains an interesting account of the French Sudan by Lieut.-Col. Humbert. Little attention is paid to the physical features of the country, but the people, their modes of life, their religion, and relations to the French are described briefly, yet carefully and clearly. The slave-trade is prohibited, but domestic slavery is not interfered with, though free villages have been established for the reception of runaway slaves. Here, if they are not claimed by their masters within a certain time, they receive a house with a piece of land to cultivate, and after a probation of three months are declared free men. The French occupying force, consisting of 350 Europeans and 900 blacks, garrison fifteen posts about one hundred kilometres (sixty-two miles) apart, but they are regarded as far too few for the proper defence of the country and the development of its commerce. The present situation is summed up as follows: "The French Sudan is scantily populated; there are few ways of communication; peace is not absolutely established; our organization is not yet complete." The author very strenuously advocates the completion of the railway connecting Senegal with the Niger. Two lines of different gauges, 172 kilometres long, are now built, leaving 348 kilometres to be constructed. This road, he thinks, should take precedence of the now popular scheme of building a railway across the Sahara.

Mr. Alfred B. Westrup writes us that the paper of which he is the editor, the *Auditor*, is not "an Alliance newspaper," as we supposed, but "an independent journal devoted exclusively to the money question."

—The Atlas belonging to Humann-Puchstein's 'Reisen in Kleinasien und Nordsyrien' (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer) contains three maps by Kiepert and fifty-three plates, illustrating subjects widely separate in both time and locality. Nine plates illustrate the Hittito rock-sculptures of Boghazkieni and Öyük, while six are devoted to Hittite monuments of northern Syria at Sendjirli, Saktchegözü, and Marash; twenty-two plates depict the ruins around the tumulus-grave of Antiochos I., King of Kommagene, on the summit of Nemrud Dagh in the extreme northeastern corner of Syria, while seven others represent monuments at various places in Kommagene, all belonging to the reign of Antiochos; three plates show us a Roman bridge at Kiakhta in northern Syria, and, lastly, six plates refer to modern Turkey. This Antiochos I. of Kommagene, who built his tomb on the summit of the highest mountain in his kingdom, and adorned it, in truly regal fashion, with portraits of the gods and his hero-ancestors, could boast both of royal Persian and royal Hellenic descent. In the long inscriptions he gives his own family tree, in which, through Rhodogune, the Persian princess, he traces his origin back sixteen generations to Darius Hystaspis, while, through Laodike, the Syrian princess and daughter of Antiochos VIII. of Syria, he *claims* descent from Alexander the Great. Interesting to Hellenists is the fact that our Antiochos is a lineal descendant of the Orontes whom Xenophon mentions as satrap of Armenia, who, by virtue of having married into the royal house, bequeathed his satrapy to his descendants for

ever. Indeed, the Kommagenian dynasty can now be traced through a period of seven centuries.

—One of the most curious and interesting discoveries on Nemrud Dagh was that depicted on plate xl., being the horoscope of Antiochos. We see there in high relief the picture of a colossal lion, from whose neck hangs suspended a crescent moon. The body of the lion is bestrewn with eight-rayed stars, while in the background are seen three sixteen-rayed stars, bearing the names of Mars, Mercury, and Jupiter. Plainly the relief has an astrological meaning, and informs us that when Antiochos was conceived, the sign of the lion rose, and that at the same time the Moon, Mars, Mercury, and Jupiter stood in the sign of the lion. Prof. Tietjen of Berlin caused the time of the constellation to be reckoned by Paul Lehmann, who found that the day referred to by the relief was the 17th of July in the year 98 B. C. Now Antiochos states in his inscription that he was a seven months' child, and so this would throw his birth into the beginning of the year 97 B. C., a date which corresponds well with what is known of the king in history. Such a constellation was called *royal* by the astrologers, since he who fulfilled the conditions must needs become king.

—The extraordinary and varied productiveness of some of the younger French scholars of the present generation calls to mind the wonderful days of the Estiennes and Scaligers. M. Salomon Reinach, for example, is already known as the author of valuable works on philosophy, Latin grammar, Greek epigraphy, classical archæology, and also as the editor of not a few monumental publications relating to Greek and Roman antiquity. To this list he now adds 'Chroniques d'Orient' (Paris: Firmin-Didot), a bulky volume of nearly eight hundred pages, consisting mainly of reprints of reports which appeared from his hand in the *Revue Archéologique* upon excavations and discoveries in Greek lands between 1883 and 1890, together with several articles upon like topics, also written by the author for various periodicals. The value of the original reports is greatly enhanced, not only by the index of fifty pages—with hardly less than ten thousand references—but also by the addition of many foot-notes, in which the information given in the text is brought to date and attention is called to recent literature. These 'Chroniques,' at first little more than meagre reports of recent finds, gradually became a complete repertory of information not alone upon these matters, but also upon the substance of the more important articles and minor publications upon Greek archæological discoveries, as they were issued; upon bibliography in general, and upon the acquisitions of museums. Though the last seven years have not been signalized by campaigns as brilliant or as extensive as those of the former decade—which saw the excavation of Olympia, Pergamon, Delos, Dodona, Myrina—they have yet afforded much that is highly important—innumerable minor discoveries at various points, not to dwell on the light shed upon Greek art under the Peisistratidae by the excavations upon the Acropolis of Athens since 1886, nor upon the results of the work at Epidaurus, Cyprus, Icaria, and elsewhere, interesting from more than one point of view. Of all these later discoveries this volume contains a well-digested record, always presented attractively and often very fully. The author has his aversions and does not conceal them. The articles, printed here as appendices, on the so-called "Asiatic terracottas"—as a rule, forgeries made in Athens, probably by Italian artists—are interesting reading. M. Reinach's warnings are needed. For, although archæologists are in the main of one mind on the matter, they are not outspoken, and, as a result of this apathy, the forgers and the dealers in these figurines continue their corrupt practices upon a public still reluctant to be undeceived. This handsome volume—with its convenient index to an important part of the unindexed *Revue Archéologique*—will be a boon to many a library, and not least to the increasing number of persons who wish to keep themselves informed as to what has lately been done and is now doing in archæological research in Greece and in the Hellenic Orient.

—A grievous loss has befallen the native community of Calcutta in the death, on the 29th of July, at the age of seventy, of the most eminent and enlightened of its scholars and one of the foremost of its philanthropists, Pandit Iswarachandra Vidyasagara. Learned, liberal, conciliating, and modest, the Pandit was in equal measure revered by his own people and respected by all Englishmen and Americans with whom he was brought into contact. Of his sterling merits, whether as a man, as an educationist, or as a writer and editor, anything like full particulars would be out of place in our columns. Nor can more than brief reference here be made to the demonstrations of regret which followed the announcement of his decease. A single one may, however, be mentioned. As he was a Brahmin, some of the pupils of his own school evinced their sense of bereavement, inappropriately enough, though from laudable motives, by resolving to go barefoot for ten days; this being, among Hindus of sacred rank, the manner of mourning for their near kindred. Born of parents far from wealthy, the Pandit, utilizing a sound education of the old stamp and improving on it with prescient sagacity, succeeded in raising himself, by energy and perseverance, both to material prosperity and to such fame as few of his countrymen have, in later times, achieved. Alike theoretically and practically a devoted friend of female education, he established no fewer than forty schools for native girls, to the support of which he contributed with his habitual munificence. In him the remarriage of widows also had a strenuous advocate; and it was mainly owing to his exertions that the Indian Government was induced, in 1856, to pass an act by which the sons of married Hindu widows are entitled to inherit property. Of his various publications, the high value is recognized by all competent judges; and, by general acknowledgment, his mother tongue is indebted to him in no small degree for its present expansion, purity, and elegance. For independence of character, for moral excellence of every description, and especially for humanity and beneficence, one could not, by all accounts, award him praise exceeding his deserts. That, in his latter years, he withdrew himself a good deal from commerce with his educated compatriots, as distrusting their moral courage, was, let it be hoped, because of his misunderstanding them. Several meetings have, as was to be expected, been held in honor of his memory, which abundantly claims to be kept alive by some substantial endowment bearing his name.

—The death of Pandit Iswarachandra was preceded, by an interval of only three days, by that of his fellow-townsman, Rajendralal Mitra, a person who attained, outside of India, a much greater celebrity, yet one which he will eventually be found to have little deserved. His character, as drawn by those who were most intimate with him, by no means commands respect. In what he accomplished in book-making and the like, as in his literary career, traces of want of conscience are too often discoverable. As to the immense amount of work, ranging from good to exceedingly bad, for which he has the credit, by far the greater part of it was executed by others; and his assistants were seldom of the best. The traits of the jackdaw of natural history and fable are at once associated with the thought of him. In his numerous editions of Sanskrit texts, and in his translations and what not, there is little that is trustworthy, or that possesses other than slight value; his acquaintance with the ancient language of India having been that of a mere sciolist. In fact, the whole compass of his information was superficial in the extreme, while his pretentiousness knew no limits. His confusion of the Ten Commandments and the Twelve Tables will suggest what he was capable of. Prof. Max Müller has, however, seen fit to name him side by side with Niebuhr, and has also spoken of him as a Brahmin, whereas he belonged to the humblest of the Hindu castes, the Sudra, or servile. According to his own account of his origin, he was of descent no less than regal; a claim which nothing could surpass for preposterousness. In short, he was of a piece throughout, and, equally as regards scholarship and personally, was such that, the more narrowly he is scrutinized, the more unfavorable will be the estimate of him which facts will necessitate.

—Those who are versed in ecclesiastical lore tell us that, from and including St. John, who was Bishop of Ephesus, there have been but five instances of bishops whose episcopate has reached the length of fifty years. Such being the case, there is good reason to hope that the New World may add one more jubilee in the history of the Christian Church. On the 24th of August the Right Reverend William Piercy Austin, Bishop of Guiana and Primate of the West Indies, entered upon the fiftieth year of his Episcopate in Guiana, and on that day he received from the Archbishop of Canterbury the short but expressive telegram: "*Felicitates*, CANTUAR." Should Bishop Austin attain the completion of his jubilee, the event is to be heartily celebrated on the 24th of August, 1892, at Georgetown, British Guiana, where the Bishops of the West Indian Province of the Anglican Church will at that time assemble. A cathedral is now being built in Georgetown, and it is hoped that it will be completed in time to be used for the services at the jubilee. Bishop Austin proposes to invite some of the bishops of the American branch of the Anglican Communion to join in the rejoicings next year at Georgetown. To some of his American brethren the Bishop is known from his presence at the Pan-Anglican synods which have been held in England of late years, where he was conspicuous by his tall, stately form and handsome face. Although himself born in England (November 7, 1807), Dr. Austin is a member of an old West Indian family, which has for generations been settled in Barbados and Guiana.

—In a recent number of *Black and White*, the new London weekly illustrated journal, Justin McCarthy says he has lately been reading 'Sam Slick,' and has found in it the slang phrase "real jam" as genuine slang from New

England, although he had thought it was a bit of London slang. "In fact," says the genial Historian of our Own Times, "I know that in an English novel published about twelve years ago by an author who knew America, some ridicule is poured out on an Englishwoman who fancied 'real jam' was American and not Cockney slang." The original record of many a term in use on this side of the Atlantic will be found in Judge Haliburton's entertaining pages. Even Topsy's famous expression, in chapter xx. of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' "'*spect I grow'd*," was anticipated by the Judge, for, in chapter xii. of the 'Clockmaker,' the girl who asked the minister whether he wanted "a young lady to do chamber business and breed worms" (housework and rearing silk worms), used the same language. Asked by the minister where she was brought up, "Why," says she, "I guess I warn't brought up at all. I grow'd up." Mrs. Stowe's book appeared in 1852, Judge Haliburton's was published by Bentley in London, in 1838, but the first twenty chapters of it had appeared two or three years before in Joseph Howe's newspaper, the *Nova Scotian*. Haliburton was recognized by Artemus Ward as the pioneer of the American literary humorists. Some half-dozen of his humorous works are advertised daily by the old-established London firm of Hurst & Blackett. His political writings are frequently quoted by writers upon questions affecting the government of the British Colonies. Nevertheless, it has not been the "Old Judge's" lot to be included either in the series of English Men of Letters or in the like series of American.

—It was but in March last that we noticed Mr. G. Kruell's surpassing wood-portrait of Lincoln, and now we have before us a Webster from the same cunning hand, on an even larger scale (12x10½), and in point of technique—what we should not have thought possible—perhaps even more to be admired. The tone of this engraving is brighter than that of the Lincoln, yet there is a sober gravity in the countenance which fully expresses the weight of the lawyer and statesman. The view is a front one; the mouth firmly closed, the eyes shaded in their cavernous recesses. We cannot yet say—

"from those great eyes
The soul has fled:"

but the age depicted cannot be far from Webster's end. The modelling of the face is extraordinarily minute, divining and interpreting the features of the original daguerreotype; but the treatment is equally broad, harmonious, unified, and in no other one of the series of Kruell's portraits is the brushlike and plastic quality of his art more manifest. We said deliberately of the Lincoln that it was destined to be the historic likeness of the President, for never had that homely face been treated before with so much sympathy and poetry, and at the same time so authentically. The Webster is not less calculated to cast all previous prints in the shade. To the legal profession, apt to cherish the portraits of its great luminaries, it must commend itself at sight. Connoisseurs of engraving, on their part, will esteem it among the highest productions of the present or any other period. The Webster is published by F. Keppel, 20 East Sixteenth Street, New York.

BURGESS'S POLITICAL SCIENCE.

Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law. By John W. Burgess. 2 vols. Ginn & Co. 1891.

It is not easy to condense the succinct although somewhat involved statement of the theory of the State which constitutes the principal feature of this treatise, but we shall attempt to give the substance of this theory. It consists in the main in the establishment and application of distinctions between the nation, the State, and the government. A population of an ethnic unity, inhabiting a territory of a geographic unity, is a nation. By geographic unity is meant a territory separated from other territories by physical barriers to communication. By ethnic unity is meant "a population having a common language and literature, a common tradition and history, a common custom, and a common consciousness of rights and wrongs," and especially a common speech. Common descent and sameness of race are not qualities necessary to national existence. Where these unities coincide, "the nation is almost sure to organize itself politically—to become a State." But not every nation becomes a State, and the author infers from history that many nations will never become States, but must always be subject to nations of greater capacity for political organization. He goes so far, indeed, as to declare that the national State has hitherto been created only by Teutonic political genius—a fact which "stamps the Teutonic nations as the political nations *par excellence*, and authorizes them, in the economy of the world, to assume the leadership in the establishment and administration of States." Before this authority all ordinary morality yields. "The Teutonic nations can never regard the exercise of political power as a right of man." It is not only their right to subdue other nations, but their duty also. They must force organization upon "unpolitical populations" by any means which they deem necessary to accomplish this result, and if the unpolitical population resists, it may be righteously swept off the face of the earth. It is "weak sentimentality" to feel any scruple about this policy, for it is the plain mandate of Providence to his "peculiar people."

To return to Prof. Burgess's distinctions: "From the standpoint of the idea, the State is mankind viewed as an organized unit. From the standpoint of the concept, it is a particular portion of mankind viewed as an organized unit," and this is the definition required for the purposes of this treatise. The State is all-comprehensive and exclusive; there can be no stateless person within its limits, nor can there be two organizations of the State for the same population and within the same territory. It is also permanent and it is sovereign—a point to which we shall presently return. Some writers have maintained that the State was founded by God, others that it was constituted by human agreement, but Prof. Burgess's view, which reconciles all others, is that it is the product of history. This means that it is the gradual and continuous development of human society towards a perfect and universal organization of mankind; the gradual realization, in legal institutions, of the universal principles of human nature, and the gradual subordination of the individual side of that nature to the universal side. The State, therefore, has a consciousness of its own, and this consciousness is the interpreter of the order of life for its subjects. "The so-called laws of God, of nature, of reason," are therefore for the subject what the State declares them to be. There may be a world-consciousness, but as it lacks organization, it must in the present stage of evolution be treated as non-existent. The ultimate end of the State is the perfection of humanity; its proximate ends are government and liberty. The State has often been confounded with the Government, but it exists separately in idea, and in the process of evolution it tends to a separate existence in reality. Properly, the organization of the State is outside of and supreme over the Government, and this is best illustrated in our own State. Back of our Government lies the Constitution, and back of the Constitution lies the original sovereign State, which ordains the constitution both of Government and of liberty.

Liberty, therefore, is derived from and created by the State alone. Individuals have it not nor ever can have it except as the gift of the State. There are no natural rights. If there were, the individual would be above the State, whereas the State is itself the highest entity, and represents in itself the highest good. The State may, and should, protect the liberties of its subjects which it has created against the Government which it creates, but its power over the liberties of its subjects is absolute, and in the exercise of this power it can do no wrong. It is true that Prof. Burgess sometimes says that the State should exercise its powers with justice, but these expressions are evidently incautious, for they would imply that the State could do wrong and that justice was a higher good than the State itself, which he explicitly denies. It follows at once from these propositions that the prerogatives assigned above to Teutonic States belong properly to all States. Provided it conformed to "geographical unity," there was nothing immoral in the partition of Poland, and there would be nothing immoral to-day in the partition of Switzerland by the neighboring States, even if every Swiss was slaughtered in the process.

It is easy to see that whatever Prof. Burgess supposes himself to be maintaining, he is really preaching a doctrine of pure force, for by his terms he has elevated the State above the sphere of morality. The State must decide for itself what constitutes its proper geographic unity, and the voice neither of Prof. Burgess nor of any other human being, nor even of any other State, shall be heard to protest. The State wills it, and the State can do no wrong. Man, "who battles for the True, the Just," is wrong, and Nature is right—Nature, who,

"——red in tooth and claw
With ravine, shrieked against his creed."

To Prof. Burgess an "unpolitical population" is as pestilent an abomination as the uncircumcised Canaanites of old were to the Hebrew prophets. Are not their lands goodly lands, lands flowing with milk and honey, and shall we not smite them hip and thigh, and occupy their great and goodly cities, which we builded not, and eat of their vineyards and olive trees, which we planted not? The warcry of the modern State is not "The sword of the Lord and of Gideon," it is true, but it conquers in the name of its "world-duty," which is practically the same thing. It makes no difference whether it is proposed to extinguish the worship of Baal, or to attain "ethnical homogeneity," the uncivilized occupants of lands which we covet have no rights, "either public or private, which a civilized State, pursuing its great world-mission, is under any obligations, legal or moral, to respect." "There can be no dominion over territory or property in land apart from State organization," and it is ridiculous for a State to go through the form of contract and sale in taking possession of the abodes of the politically unorganized.

It seems strange to find the political morality of Omar and Pizarro advocated in a book which has been extensively advertised as marking the latest and highest development of political science. This extraordinary result seems

in part due to an imperfect acquaintance with the history of philosophy. Prof. Burgess has apparently become confused by the Hegelian language employed by the German writers on political science, whom he has too exclusively studied. He has mistaken a figure of speech for a concrete reality. The word "state" is an abstract term, denoting the existence of a number of men in relations to one another, but the State is a higher entity than man only in the sense that any abstraction is higher than the concrete. It may be convenient to speak of a meeting, or a party, or a city, or a State as having a consciousness. We speak of a common consciousness wherever two or three are gathered together for any purpose; but it is clear that in such locutions we are speaking metaphorically. Prof. Burgess's metaphysic is really that of the mediæval realists who held to the existence of *universalia ante rem*, and he, like them, exalts the creations of men above their creators. Without reopening a somewhat obsolete controversy, it is enough to say that consciousness, as we know it, belongs to sentient beings of a visible and tangible nature. We know no more of a state-consciousness than we do of a state-brain or a state-stomach. We will not deny that consciousness may be a quality of atoms, or, as has been thought by some astronomers, of planets—that it may be possessed by constitutions and be an attribute of general ideas; but it is entirely clear that we can never know this, even though we be conceived as elements of such a consciousness. The molecules that constitute a man may have every one its consciousness, but between their consciousness and ours an impassable gulf is fixed, and so it must be with us if we form part of another consciousness. Common sense has never questioned the maxim, "Corporations have no souls," nor will it ever admit that any fig ment of the human imagination, any concept of the human understanding, or any idea of the human reason, can be conscious in the sense that a human being is conscious.

This view of consciousness renders Prof. Burgess's theory of the State untenable. If what we speak of as State action is the action of human beings and not that of a "higher entity," it is to be measured by the standards applicable to the action of human beings. If an act is wrong when it is done by one man, it does not follow that it will be not wrong if done by two men, or by a mob, or by a great number of men united in a State. The theory breaks down most completely in face of the difficulty felt by Rousseau, when, as Mr. A. L. Lowell says in his masterly essay on the theory of the social compact, he wished to give the majority the power of legislation while keeping up the fiction that each person obeys only himself. Prof. Burgess attempts to escape this difficulty by his fiction that the action of the majority is the action of a higher entity than the human beings of which it is composed, but, as he defines the State as human beings organized, he is compelled to explain what takes place when these human beings differ as to the purpose of their organization. The State, he says, may expel by force, or "deport," an "ethnically hostile" part of its population. But what would become of the State if this part of the population should resist successfully? Shall mortals, like Jacob, wrestle with higher entities? or can a "State" be "deported"? or does the State, as some lawyers have supposed of the fee in lands in certain cases, take refuge *in nubibus* until recalled by the proper conjuncture? Is it not on the whole better when we mean, and can only mean, that certain men struggle with others, to say so, and not confuse ourselves by speaking of conflicts between men composed of flesh and blood on one side and a metaphysical entity on the other?

But it is in his discussion of sovereignty that we find Prof. Burgess's philosophical equipment most inadequate. Strangely enough, although his view is a rather unhappy compound of those of Hobbes and Austin, he mentions neither of these writers, and we might add that he nowhere alludes to most of the great names in this department of thought, whose work, if understood, would have saved him many errors. Sovereignty, according to him, must be absolute, because limited sovereignty is a *contradictio in adjecto*. He establishes this doctrine by an unconscious application of Anselm's argument. Prof. Burgess has a necessary idea of the perfect sovereignty of the State, and, as existence is necessary to perfection, therefore the perfectly sovereign State exists. But not everything necessarily is which we think ought to be, and, as a matter of fact, unlimited sovereignty does not exist in any State. No human being can altogether control the feelings and thoughts of another, nor can any organization of human beings do so. It is only a comparatively few of the overt acts of men that the State can prohibit. It has, to a certain extent, the power to put to death those who disobey, and is so far sovereign, but it is impracticable to exercise this power beyond the limits of the customary morality of its subjects. There are many things that the most despotic sovereign cannot do and dares not attempt. Whether this involves a *contradictio in adjecto* or not seems to have made no difference with history. If, as Prof. Burgess rather pathetically observes, "really the State cannot be conceived without sovereignty, *i. e.*, without unlimited power over its subjects," we can only say that then it will have to get along without being conceived at all, for without such sovereignty it certainly does exist.

Practically, of course, Prof. Burgess abandons this absurd doctrine. "The modern national popular State is the most perfectly and undisputedly sovereign organization of the State which the world has yet attained"—"The more completely and really sovereign the State is," etc.—are statements showing that there are degrees in the absolute. And it would be erroneous to suppose that this apparent "Hobbism" involves any recommendation of despotic maxims of government. On the contrary, Prof. Burgess lays great stress on the part played by the State in defending the liberties of the subject against the encroachments of Government. The greater part of the book consists of descriptions of the governments of the United States, Great Britain, France, and Germany, and here much valuable matter is to be found. Yet, so far as the observations are original, they are of interest chiefly to those who accept the author's political philosophy. As we are unable to admit that men are absolutely without rights and liberties, except in so far as they have been granted by the State, it would not be profitable to consider at length Prof. Burgess's analysis of relations that in our view have no existence.

MORE NOVELS.

News from Nowhere, or, An Epoch of Rest. By William Morris. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Murvale Eastman, Christian Socialist. By Albion W. Tourgée. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

My Lady Nicotine, and *A Window in Thrums.* By J. M. Barrie. Cassell Publishing Company.

Iermola, and *The Jew.* By Joseph Ignatius Kraszewski. Translated from the Polish by Mrs. M. Carey and Linda da Kowalewska. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Fantasy. By Matilde Serao. Translated by Henry Harland (Sydney Luska). John W. Lovell Co.

Ten Tales. By François Coppée. Translated by Walter Learned. Harper & Brothers.

The Canadians of Old. By Philippe Aubert de Gaspé. Translated by C. G. D. Roberts. D. Appleton & Co.

Of all the seers who have woven visions of the future into a tale, Mr. Morris is the most original, while, from the political economist's point of view, he is doubtless the most insane. Poets, however, are free to disregard economics, and as, before the inhabitants of the British Islands shall have reached that delightful condition described in 'News from Nowhere,' all political economists will have been long dead, their theories exploded, their books dust, it makes no difference what they may think about a Utopian romance. Mr. Morris's contribution to the literature of communism is conceived in the form of contrast between England of the nineteenth century nearing its close and England of the twenty-first. The prophets of a coming Socialist's paradise always find it essential to paint the present in the darkest colors. England of to-day, according to Mr. Morris, is rotten to the core, quite gone to the dogs. An evil spirit dominates the land, destructive of all that is good and beautiful, creative of endless misery—to wit, the spirit of commercialism. The only religion is worship of a hideous abstraction called the "world's market." The favored priests of the faith are few, relentless tyrants of millions whom they force to work stupidly, mechanically, making things for the consumption of their god—things chiefly which everybody could very well do without.

This presentation of the eternal labor question is exceedingly picturesque, and there is a polished ferocity about the indictment of the rich yet vulgar, which makes it most enjoyable reading for the cultivated though poor. Life is change. When things are bad as bad can be, they must take a turn for the better. Out of exasperation and despair comes war, and, through war, annihilation of privilege and politics and machinery and commerce. Then, by processes ingeniously described, is born a new England, a free, noble, idyllic commune, in which years pile up joys and where human life is not the one hideous mistake of nature. 'Nowhere' is certainly a much more attractive commune than is Mr. Bellamy's Boston of the future, for, though matters of common interest are regulated by the common voice, each individual is permitted the luxury of having business of his own and minding it. Individuality is, moreover, cultivated and elevated by freedom to choose one's work and to do it without haste or pressure; if it be the making of things, the habit is to make one useful and beautiful thing well, not fifty useless and ugly things badly. Mr. Morris omits to mention what would happen if any one should show an irresistible propensity for making articles of smooth, clear glass or fine porcelain, but takes it for granted that such depravity of taste is impossible. His persistent advocacy of his decorative whims is somewhat puerile and ludicrous, but, on the whole, his commune is so healthy, so happy, so beautiful,

that persons of sense ought to be willing to have it come about right away, accepting the wearing of embroidered rags and the use of rough pottery and bubbly glass without a murmur, regarding them as essential to the perpetual "peace and rest, and cleanness and smiling good will."

Doctors differ. The race will never know the delights of 'Nowhere' if it progresses along the path indicated in Mr. Tourgée's 'Christian Socialist.' This very thick book is a fine specimen of what may be called the crazy-quilt novel, made up of a thousand scraps, inharmonious and very gaudy. It is, however, a very popular kind of novel, with its sensational plot and extravagant, stagey people, its jumble of ethics, politics, and economics, and its constant exhortations, direct or indirect, to observance of the Golden Rule. If any definite notion of the scheme of living devised by the Rev. Murvale Eastman and his loquacious Christian Socialists may be gathered from their fluent dulness, it is, that rest and beauty and simplicity are things to be abhorred. Fortunately, the book ends while talk is still in full flow, before any Socialist has found time really to begin the reformation. The greatest achievement (and that is only projected), is to spoil a park in order to build a family club-house, whereby the shopping of young mothers too poor to employ nurses shall be much facilitated, which building is to be made "plain, you know—just brick and iron; for service, not for ornament." The great achievement of Mr. Morris's regenerate Englishmen is the conversion into a park of the whole island, now largely, "very plain, you know; just brick and mortar." As for divorcing service and ornament, let him who thinks that desirable, look through 'News from Nowhere' for descriptions of English architecture, of the homes of the people, their markets, bridges, and meeting-houses; then, if he change not his opinion, he should be condemned to abide for ever opposite the brick and iron club-house—not opposite the side whence issue the young impecunious mothers on business or on pleasure bent.

Mr. J. M. Barrie, who has made himself known to the British public through the monthly magazines and more sober reviews, is introduced in America by two volumes, 'My Lady Nicotine' and 'A Window in Thrums.' In the former, Mr. Barrie sings tobacco, with incidental sketches of people who smoke it and people who won't permit it to be smoked. It is a book of premeditated humor, in which the premeditation is fairly well concealed. Still, no man who believes himself to be funny, or who is regarded in that light, should risk his reputation by publishing a collection of scintillations. A Book of Fun is sadder reading than a 'Book of Gems,' or a 'Book of Thoughts, by a Young Lady.' This general reflection is not meant for the particular disparagement of 'My Lady Nicotine,' in which the fun is of a quiet, incisive kind, and unusually well sustained.

'A Window in Thrums,' read close upon 'My Lady Nicotine,' shows that Mr. Barrie is a man of some versatility, which nowadays is almost as rare a quality in an author as in an actor. These reminiscences of a very old man are grouped about a lame woman who, for twenty years or more, sat at a window looking down the brae towards the town with the dismal name of Thrums. The daily life of the decent poor is pretty much the same all the world over, always commonplace, frequently dismal. It is no more interesting in fiction than in reality, unless the people who are obliged to put up with it have some inborn strength, or grace, or purity that can't be destroyed by hard conditions. Such people Mr. Barrie has chosen to tell about very simply and plainly, as befits his subject. To appreciate the story fully, one must have some acquaintance with English as it is spoken from Maidenkirk to John o' Groat's House, though enough is told in the uncorrupted tongue to give an idea of the fine spirit inhabiting Jess Hendry's poor body, and of the great love with which she inspired family and neighbors.

Similar sweetness and courage animate the Volhynian peasant Iermola, the central figure of a Polish novel to which he gives the name. The story begins when Iermola is already an old man, at the moment when he resolves to adopt a baby left at his hut in the forest. The efforts of Iermola to live up to that baby are both amusing and pathetic as well as very real; but the means employed, many years afterwards, to separate him from the baby, grown almost to manhood, savor of a very ancient kind of fiction which never was rooted in life. The author's faculty of invention is much inferior to his observation and sympathy, which leads us to suppose that the story really is what it seems to be, a study of actual life in a very queer and primitive community. The admirable characterization of the sordid, grasping Jew, Szmula, in a very funny chapter wherein is narrated the purchase of a goat to supply nourishment for the baby, excites curiosity about another novel by the same author, entitled 'The Jew.' Here are depicted, very carefully and cleverly, several Jews who may perhaps be regarded as modern types of the chosen people. The action is dramatic, carried on mostly in Warsaw, but, as in 'Iermola,' the invention is feeble and construction faulty; therefore we care much more about what the people think than about what they do. Our prejudice against the Jew is so deep and irrational as to impregnate our literature. With a very few notable exceptions, our novelists make use of him only to misrepresent or openly caricature; the translation of a novel in which he is treated not as Hebrew but as human is therefore a work worth doing. Yet, after reading it, the reflection of the good American will doubtless be that the good Polish Jews don't emigrate.

The translations of foreign fiction, which increase in number and variety every year, are generally more interesting than the average novels written originally in the English tongue. One reason of this obvious superiority is, that an author almost always has made a reputation in his own language before his work is considered worth translating, but a weightier reason is that in the literature which deals directly with life, the Anglo-Saxon, more than any other, is conventional and unimpassioned; therefore, weak, dry, ineffective. It would be impossible for the English lady novelist to write such a book as 'Fantasy,' by Matilde Serao. An English woman might know a Lucia Altimare thoroughly, might depict her perfectly up to the crisis of her career; but just at this point she would certainly succumb to tradition. She would arrange for a Lucia a tearful parting from her lover, and sanctimonious retirement to the hearth she has come so near to desecrating, or she would kill Lucia, or represent her as doing anything, everything, except what a Lucia always does when she gets the chance—bolt with the husband of a dearest friend, leaving behind wild, ejaculatory epistles for *her* husband and *his* wife. Madame Serao does not deal in half-measures. She knows her Lucia, and gives the reader the full benefit of her knowledge. The presentation of a nervous, excitable, sensual woman, whose real character is scarcely suspected by her nearest friends, and who, with occasional spasms of scathing frankness, lives in a state of blissful self-deception, is exceedingly clever and surpassingly cold. There is not a shred of Lucia's mystery left when Madame Serao is done with her; we see her perfectly in naked deformity. She is not a pleasant person to dwell upon, and since the other characters are subservient, the book, with all its cleverness, is unpleasant. There is, however, much grasp, power, knowledge in it; no weakness or irrelevant trifling, and a sort of scornful indifference to literary convention that extends even to form and style. Mr. Edmund Gosse's introduction will save the curious the trouble of looking up Madame Serao in an encyclopædia.

He who makes acquaintance with François Coppée through the volume of tales translated by Mr. Learned will be puzzled to account for the author's fame. Here again is an introduction thoughtfully provided by Mr. Brander Matthews, a competent authority on *contes en vers* and *contes en prose*. At least half of these ten specimens of Coppée's work belong neither to that kind of fiction which we describe as tales, nor to a yet lighter form, known as sketches; they are purely examples of *contes en prose*, and, with all deference to Mr. Matthews, no more bear translation than does that untranslatable phrase. In French, such work is made worthy by the language; in English, it seems trivial, insignificant, quite beneath the force and vigor of the language.

By translating the French romance, 'The Canadians of Old,' Mr. Roberts introduces the only French Canadian fiction which is worth the trouble of putting into English. Written forty years ago by Philippe Aubert de Gaspé, then an old man, it is, from every point of view, the best Canadian novel, which, after all, is not such very high praise. The story has no particular merit, though it has some dramatic situations and is fairly well put together; but the book has a distinct value, expressed by the translator when he says that it preserves in lasting form the characteristic customs of early French Canadians, and, by its faithful depiction of their sentiment, throws a strong light on the motives and aspirations of the race.

THE LAW OF STORMS.

Hand book of Cyclonic Storms in the Bay of Bengal. For the Use of Sailors. By John Eliot, M.A., Meteorological Reporter to the Government of India. Calcutta.

SOME forty years ago, the discoveries of Redfield, Reid, and others regarding the rotary movement of the wind in hurricanes gave good reason to hope that the dangers of the seas might be greatly lessened by adopting a rational system of navigation in stormy weather. In earlier years, the navigator who was overtaken by a violent storm had no rules to guide him out of it; he knew next to nothing of its probable size, its circulation, or its course. He outlived its fury if he could, but too often his vessel was dismasted, driven ashore, or lost in the open sea. But, in the thirties and forties, the confusion of the winds was reduced to order; it was then found that the hurricanes of the tropical seas truly possess a systematic rotary movement of their winds, always from right to left in this hemisphere, and the other way south of the equator; and that these whirling storms as a whole moved at tolerably regular and moderate velocities along fairly well-defined tracks—facts now familiar to every schoolboy who studies his atlas of physi-

cal geography. The immediate result of all this was the formulation of simple rules by which the central fury of the storm could generally be avoided. The landsman might be somewhat confused by the orders to heave to on the starboard tack in one case and on the port tack in another; but this was the proper nautical way of telling the sailor how to get out of the storm, and it was not necessary that he should know anything of the reason for the rules. The basis of the whole scheme was that, as the winds were thought to blow in truly circular courses around the centre of the storm, the direction of the centre must be at a right angle to, or eight points from, the course of the wind.

The simplicity of the "eight-point rule" so strongly recommended it for popular use that the practical men of the sea gave little heed to the suspicions of several theoretical meteorologists who questioned the truly circular course of the storm-winds. But in 1861, Meldrum of Mauritius, in the track of the cyclones of the southern Indian Ocean, brought attention to the insufficiency of the rule by showing that it had led several vessels into danger if not into destruction, and that the winds really followed incurving spiral paths, and not a circular whirl around the centre of low pressure. His arguments were well grounded, but navigators have been slow to accept them. For example, it was not until about four years ago that our Hydrographic Office in Washington changed the diagram on Monthly Pilot Charts of the North Atlantic from the eight-point scheme, and brought it into accordance with the facts stated by Meldrum and his followers in later years; and among the more conservative naval officers there are, perhaps, even now some who doubt the error of the old rule. There are various sources to which such sceptics might be referred for conversion, such as Toynbee's charts of the North Atlantic during a great hurricane in August, 1873; the daily charts of the same ocean issued by the English Meteorological Council for the year of the international polar expeditions, and the subsequent continuation of the same series by the German and Danish Governments; or the various memoirs on cyclones published by the Indian meteorological service. But a more practical work, bearing largely on this very subject, is the 'Hand-book' whose title we give above.

It is in every way a worthy successor to Piddington's old 'Horn-book of Storms.' Piddington was a practical sailor rather than a scientific investigator; but, in the early years of the cyclonic theory, he entered into the question with great activity and success, and, as a result, made a thoroughly practical book, the abstract of many elaborate memoirs, and one to which the student may to this day refer for a fund of information. But this 'Horn-book' was published some forty years ago. Since then meteorology has become a systematic science. Where Piddington had to advance slowly and at great pains, collecting his records from shipmasters and from volunteers on shore, there is now a well-organized meteorological service; a daily weather map of the peninsula of India and the Bay of Bengal is issued, from which the tyro may learn at a glance what must have cost the early student months of labor; and most accurate memoirs on the meteorology of India, its winds, rainfall, and storms. The general product of all this labor has been excellently summarized by Blanford in his 'Climates and Weather of India,' already reviewed in these columns, and now we have a statement of all that has been found out about the cyclones of the Bay of Bengal, reduced to a volume of moderate size, and prepared most artfully and successfully for the use of sailors. It is not for ignorant sailors—there is little hope of writing any book from which they might profit—but it is well adapted for the intelligent officers of ships and steamers who are intrusted with vessels to cross those dangerous Indian seas. It contains, first, a chapter on meteorological phrases and principles, explaining the necessity of technical terms, which the sailor, who talks in his own technical language, must at once admit. A second chapter considers the phenomena of cyclonic storms in the Bay of Bengal, particularly with reference to their use as storm indications or prognostics. Then follows an account of six typical cyclones in the Bay since 1864, *i.e.*, during the recent period of careful, systematic observation, and prompt collection, discussion, and publication of the records. A fourth chapter is a brief summary of practical hints to sailors. The author is thoroughly qualified for his task. Like his predecessor, H. F. Blanford, he is a scientific meteorologist of high ability; there is no crude or rash theorizing in his work. He is informed on the principles of physics as well as on the proper exposure of thermometers and setting of windvanes; he is evidently well read in the literature of his science. His writing is thoroughly mature. A popular book from such an author is worth a dozen compilations by omnivorous readers and facile penmen.

There is some very wholesome reading in the first chapter, under the paragraph that shows the sun to be the source of energy by which atmospheric motions are maintained. It is first explained that air, like a railway train or a man-of-war, cannot put itself in motion, but must be started and kept going by the expenditure of energy upon it. The larger the mass of air, or the faster the motion, the greater the work to be done upon it. A large engine is needed to make a 6,000-ton steam man-of-war run at the rate of fifteen miles an hour; and yet a large cyclone in the Bay of Bengal, involving a mass of air a hundred miles in diameter and a mile high, moving at a rate of forty or more miles an hour, weighs as much as half a million 6,000 ton men-of-war. It is evidently a mistake to assign an inadequate cause for so vast a result as this. Some suggest electricity; but physical experiment shows that the amount of electricity set free in a violent thunder-storm is but a trifle compared to that needed to drive a cyclone. The attraction of the moon is appealed to by some; but this is only the one-hundred-and-fortieth part of that of the sun; its tide-producing power is, to be sure, greater, but this is not available in storm-making. The heat from the moon, even if it sent out all that it gets from the sun, would warm us only 1-300,000 as much as the sun does; that is, if in a given time the sun could melt four miles of ice on the earth's surface, the moon could not melt more than an inch. It must be, indeed, a prejudiced reader who can fail to follow Eliot in ascribing winds and storms ultimately to the heat of the sun.

On a later page, there is a simple consideration of the conversion of solar energy from one application to another during the condensation of vapor in storms. After illustrating this important process, and quoting examples of the remarkable rainfalls or deluges that accompany cyclones in India, the author concludes as follows: First, the energy given up during condensation of vapor is communicated directly to the air in which the process takes place; practically, the whole of it is utilized in producing changes in the motion of the air. Second, the process is continuous day and night while the cyclone lasts, and not intermittent, like sunshine. Third, it is, in cyclones with the heavy rains usual in such storms, a much more intense process than ordinary sunshine; it may be equal to twenty or fifty or even a hundred times the energy of sunshine in the same time and place. Fourth, the latent heat that was slowly stored up over a large area during the evaporation of the vapor, is liberated in the relatively small area of the cyclone. It is for these reasons that the latent heat of vapor has come to be regarded as of primary importance in keeping cyclones at work; and for this reason cyclones may be said to depend on "stored energy"—like the man-of-war again, whose engines are driven by the stored energy of coal.

Finally, we may briefly refer to Eliot's results as to the inclination of the storm wind—that is, its departure from a circular into a spiral path. His statements are perfectly definite that the old eight-point rule cannot be trusted, unless for a small distance close to the centre of the storm, where there is little hope of using it, and it is not surely correct even there. He concludes that, as a rule, the wind turns in two or three points from the circular path, and sometimes even four points, and yet that its irregularities are such that no simple constant rule can be given. He recalls Piddington's statement that "absolute rules are all nonsense." The incurvature of the wind is the important point of the book, and we recommend it to the most careful consideration of our shipmasters. Although the 'Hand-book' is prepared chiefly for use in the Bay of Bengal, it is of value to us in the Atlantic as well, for the hurricanes of the West Indies closely resemble the storms of the East.

The Right Hand: Left-Handedness. By Sir Daniel Wilson. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. 215.

FROM the preface we learn that the purpose of this book is to trace left-handedness to its true source, incidentally to expose the folly of trying to suppress an innate faculty of exceptional aptitude, and to set forth the advantages to be derived by all from a systematic cultivation of dexterity in both hands. This indicates the standpoint of the author. Discussing the subject in its archæological, philological, and physiological bearings, he traces a preferential use of one hand or the other back to the times of the stone implements. He concludes that the right hand is given the preference naturally and instinctively by some; that in a smaller number the left is favored by an equally strong impulse; but that in the great majority right-handedness is largely the result of education. After considering the psychophysical features and carefully weighing the different theories of causes, he finally advances his own decision that left-handedness is due to an exceptional development of the right hemisphere of the brain. As a whole, the work is a model of scholarly research; the style is such as will please all who are interested in the matter, and there is little to rouse the antagonism of those of diverse opinions; but it cannot be admitted that the volume precludes further discussion.

Before the question is settled we must have deeper investigation of the anthropoids and lower animals, and, still more important, extensive series of observations on young children about the time the preference is first manifested. It is with the earliest attempts at use that the left-handed habit becomes fixed, and by its exercise determines the greater de-

velopment of the right hemisphere in the individual. Greater development of this hemisphere follows from the greater use of the left hand, as surely as greater development of the muscles, vessels, nerves, and bones of the left side of the body. Exceptional development of a right hemisphere is a consequence of left-handedness, and may not be the cause of it, even in the particular case cited by Mr. Wilson in support of his conclusion. To strengthen his position he will have to change his claim to hereditary or congenital preponderance of the right hemisphere. But, however stated, it is unlikely that a single cause will account for all cases, as our author apparently would have us believe. Observations made while teaching gymnastics lead to the conclusion that, in some at least, left-handedness had its inception in pure imitation. If an instructor faces his class and works right-handedly, pupils become confused, and movements made by his right are imitated with the left. But if the teacher works left-handedly, the difficulty is obviated and the pupils readily follow working right-handedly. Similarly with the child: he faces his trainer, has his attention fixed upon movements of the right hand, and imitates or meets them with his opposed hand, his left. Very little exercise at his age serves to fix the habit of preferring the left, and greater development of the right hemisphere and of the left side of the body follows as a matter of course. Ordinarily correction is easy; its difficulty is increased by habit and by the persistence or stubbornness of particular infants.

No doubt the ambidextrous, in which the sides of brain and body are equally developed, is the happiest condition; but it is an open question whether an organ less developed than another is any more liable to disease. If adapted to the demands upon it, whatever its development, there is no reason why it should be less healthy. It is the organ which deteriorates from a needless development that is prey to the ills. Hence it is that excessive physical culture, athletics, in early life are not so conducive to longevity as development better adapted to the ordinary and continued demands on the system. In the right-handed it is the left hemisphere that tends to a greater development; in the left-handed it is the opposite side of the brain. The differences in mind and disposition attending such a difference in brain ought to be determined before deciding that it is folly to attempt suppression of left-handedness, especially in view of the widespread belief in the mental and moral crookedness of a left-handed man.

The volume is disfigured by a fifty-five-page advertising catalogue. Is it not time for an energetic protest against a practice that defaces the books and litters up the shelves with so much matter of no future value?

The Woman's Club: A Practical Guide and Hand-book. By Olive Thorne Miller. United States Book Company.

THIS little book contains some practical suggestions for the formation and management of clubs, which will prove valuable to many intelligent women who have not yet been trained to understand the exigencies of corporate action. It also gives some advice concerning the more elementary rules of conduct, such, for instance, as the observance of order and of good temper, which cannot be too carefully acted upon by all who wish to share in or contribute to the benefits of club organization. There can be no doubt in the mind of any thoughtful person of the value of the work that is, on the whole, being done by the somewhat protean associations grouped under the generic name of the "Woman's Club." The history of its growth and development here given is stimulating and encouraging in itself, as well as interesting as a study of the signs of the times.

There is, however, one objection to this otherwise acceptable little manual which cannot be overlooked. The writer lets her enthusiasm, from time to time, overleap the bounds of common sense and lead her into the pitfalls of cant. This is especially and regrettably the case in the three or four earlier chapters. The harm that is done by exaggerated pretensions cannot be too strongly urged upon the promoters of movements for educational or other advantages for the female sex. Women themselves whose position and influence would make them invaluable allies, are too often repelled by the bad taste of aggressive claims. Those who champion the cause of women ought certainly to see that they do not put even small unnecessary stumbling-blocks in the way of its success.

Phantasieen und Märchen. Von Isolde Kurz Stuttgart: Gö chen. Pp. 164.

ABOUT two years ago the hosts of commonplace poets who hover round the base and haunt the lower slopes of the German Parnassus were startled by the sudden appearance of a stately daughter of the Muses on one of the higher peaks. How she reached that eminence unobserved by their ever watchful and envious eyes was a mystery. That the much-abused reading public is quick to appreciate and eager to welcome genuine poetic talent whenever and wherever it may appear, is clearly shown by the fact that the first edition of the poems of Isolde Kurz was soon exhausted and a second edition, containing sixteen additional pieces, was presently brought out. The volume bears the stamp of originality on every page, from the dedicatory verses which serve as proem, to the aphorisms and epigrams with which it ends.

Miss Kurz has also essayed short stories—a volume of 'Florentiner Novellen,' four in number, of which the scenes are laid in Florence during the turbulent but picturesque period extending from the beginning of the fourteenth to the middle of the sixteenth century. If we were to attempt to classify these works of fiction, we should have to call them historical novels; at the same time they are truly artistic creations, and present, both in style and construction, the greatest possible contrast to the voluminous "historical romances"—the undigested contents of countless scrap-books—with which modern German literature is so heavily weighted. A second volume, called 'Phantasieen und Märchen,' opens with a vision entitled "Hashish," as vivid and realistic as anything in De Quincey's 'Confessions,' and evidently a record of personal experience with *cannabis indica.* The writer's description of her sudden release from all the conditions and limitations of human existence, and her excursion through illimitable space up to the region of pure abstraction, where metaphysical systems dwell cheek by jowl with mathematical formulas, and all earthly dissonances, pessimism, and *Weltschmerz* blend to full accord in the music of the spheres, is admirably done. The remaining five pieces are original fairy tales, and show an exceedingly happy faculty of invention. "Der geborgte Heiligenschein" is the story of an old hermit, whose sole possession was a large and luminous nimbus, but who was, unfortunately, led by his unbounded benevolence to lend this treasure to a poor devil in order to save him from the gallows. As might be expected, his property was never returned, but passed by sale from hand to hand, serving as an ornament to many a villanous head, and creating that sort of moral confusion in the public mind that would be caused by hearing a Tammany politician opening a primary with prayer, or seeing a saintly halo encircling the crown of a campaign worker while engaged in purchasing votes "in blocks of five." In the present case the general derangement of ethical values produced by having such a nimbus thrown on the market and thereby made venal was not confined to this world, but extended to the future life and disturbed the balance of accounts in the books of the recording angels. In "König Filz" we make the acquaintance of any quantity of queer people—King Screw himself, condemned to permanent tearlessness on account of the hardness of his heart; the physician in ordinary, Dr. Horseradish, whose most persistent efforts fail to bring a drop of moisture to the royal eyes; the charming Princess Maja and her lover, and above all old Mother Week and her seven sons, the well-dressed and much-revered Sunday, the lazy and dissipated Blue Monday, and their five sturdy and laboricus brothers. But of all these phantasies, the most original in conception and finest in execution is the "Sternenmärchen." The celebrated Orientalist and Biblicist Heinrich von Ewald used to expatiate on the serious detriment to Hebrew and German poetry arising from the fact that the sun in these languages is feminine. Here, however, this verbal accident is turned to good account; and in telling how the queen of the sky and her numerous sons and daughters, the planets, dwelt together in perfect harmony until the family union was broken up by the amorous advances of a brilliant but libertine comet, the authoress has caught and reproduced with remarkable skill the naïve tone of traditional folk-lore. That this is no easy task and is liable to lapse into mere extravagances and vapidities, has been demonstrated by scores of her countrymen who have made the attempt and lamentably failed. We strongly suspect that the fairy godmother who, in the fourth tale ("Die Goldenen Träume"), bestows upon the poor weaver's son the precious gift of golden dreams, stood sponsor for our poetess.

Labor and Life of the People. Vol. II. London Continued. Edited by Charles Booth. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

UPON the appearance of the first volume of the remarkable series projected by Mr. Booth, we gave unstinted praise both to his plan and its execution, saying that it would "mark an era in the conception and the treatment of the evil of poverty in London." This second volume confirms our conviction, and renews our admiration for the breadth and impartiality of the investigations recorded, and for the eminent fairness as well as great importance of the conclusions drawn from them. The book simply throws out of court a great deal of the current vague talk about the condition of the poor—especially of the very poor—in London, and must be consulted by all who would write or speak about the subjects touched upon without being ridiculous.

The same methods of relentless investigation which were followed in the first volume, in the case of East London, are here extended to South and Central London. The result is that Mr. Booth is now able to give us a survey of the entire city, which he does by districts, street by street, and, in several instances,

block by block and house by house. One striking conclusion is that the poverty of East London, as compared with that of the rest of the city, has been exaggerated. "In 1888," writes Mr. Booth, "I made an estimate based on the facts as to East London, and the comparative density of population in other parts, on the theory that density would probably coincide with the degree of poverty. The result was to show a probable 25 per cent. of poor for all London, or nearly 6 per cent. less than we now get." He also assures us that if his statistics err on either side, they overstate rather than underestimate the amount of poverty, especially in view of the fact that times have been better since the inquiry was made.

No adequate idea of the range and value of the inquiries made by Mr. Booth and his collaborators can be given in our limited space. The book itself must be resorted to. We must specify, however, the chapters entitled "Sketch of Life in Buildings," by "A Lady Resident," "Influence on Character" (of living in tenements), by Octavia Hill, and "Homeless Men," by Margaret A. Tillard and the editor. The most suggestive observations and reflections are scattered all the way along, as, for example, the casual remark (p. 95) that "a great quantity of bread strewn about" in the streets is "the surest sign of extreme poverty all over London." Highly enlightening, too, are the several tabulations given of the results of searching investigation into groups of men—some of them selected groups, *i. e.*, guaranteed as worthy by charitable and religious organizations—applying for public alms. The percentage that could stand the process was terribly small. The volume leaves us with one unpleasant reflection: how inevitably must the sense of personal dignity and reserve suffer in people made the subject of inquiries like these. However kindly meant and however necessary, the intrusion upon the privacy of homes, squalid though they be, and families, even if wretched, must tend to repress those qualities of independence and spirit which it is of the highest importance for the victims of poverty to develop. Something of this is indicated in the book itself where it speaks of the evil of "the struggle of different sects over these poor souls. Those who are hunted up in their homes on a Sunday morning by the emissaries of five or six religious bodies are not likely to be spiritually impressed by any" (p. 300).

An appendix and maps are bound up under a separate cover. The first gives classifications of the population by School-Board Blocks and Divisions, by Registration Districts, and by percentage of poverty; also, a table showing the birthplaces of residents of London born in other parts of the kingdom. The maps give a graphic representation of London poverty by districts and by streets, one section for each quarter of the city. Varying color shows the varying percentage of poverty. The execution is very good.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Miss Josephine L. Outlines for the Study of Art. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Alexander, Mrs. Well Won. New York: John A. Taylor & Co. 30 cents.
Allen, W. B. John Brownlow's Folks. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Amaryllis. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Archer, William. Ibsen's Prose Dramas. Vols. 4 and 5. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Baily, Rev. T. L. An Entire Stranger. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Bakody, Prof. T. Scientific Medicine in its Relation to Homœopathy. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. 50 cents.
Black, H. C. A Dictionary of Law. St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co.
Bolton, Mrs. S. K. Famous English Statesmen. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Booth, Charles. Labor and Life of the People. Vol. II. London Continued. Maps and Appendix under separate cover. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $8.40.
Caine, Hall. The Little Manx Nation. John W. Lovell Co.
Cobban, J. M. The Horned Cat. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Crawford, F. Marion. The Witch of Prague. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Dods, Rev. Marcus. The Gospel of St. John. Vol. I. [The Expositor's Bible.] A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Dole, N. H. A Score of Famous Composers. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Doyle, A. Conan. The White Company. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Dunton, L. The Young Folks' Library. Vol. 8. Silver, Burdett & Co. 60 cents.
Dyer, Oliver. General Andrew Jackson. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Eaton, Rev. A. W. The Church of England in Nova Scotia and the Tory Clergy of the Revolution. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Ellis, Edward S. Through Forest and Fire. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Ford, Paul Leicester. Orderly Book of the "Maryland Loyalist Regiment." Brooklyn: Historical Printing Club. $2.
Grigorovitch, Dimitry. The Cruel City. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
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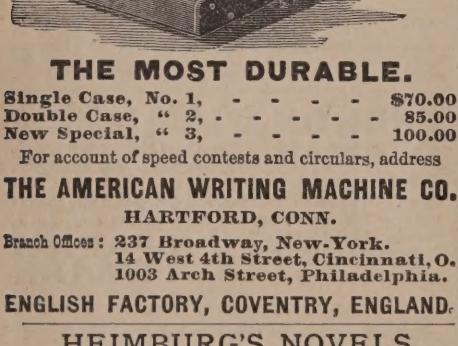

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 1, 1891.

The Week.

THE continued importation of gold, which already reaches $10,000,000, makes it interesting to inquire how our account current with Europe stands during a series of years. We append a table giving our net exports and imports of the yellow metal, as shown by our commerce and navigation reports, and our own production of it as reported by the Director of the Mint from and including 1878 to September 1, 1891:

GOLD.

	Net Exports.	Net Imports.	Production.
1878.....	.....	$4,125,760	$51,200,000
1879.....	.....	1,037,334	38,900,000
1880.....	.....	77,119,371	36,000,000
1881.....	.....	97,466,127	34,700,000
1882.....	.....	1,789,174	32,500,000
1883.....	.....	6,133,261	30,000,000
1884.....	$18,250,640	.....	30,800,000
1885.....	.....	18,213,804	31,800,000
1886.....	22,208,842	.....	35,000,000
1887.....	.....	33,209,414	33,000,000
1888.....	.....	25,558,083	33,175,000
1889.....	49,667,427	.....	32,800,000
1890.....	3,715,712	.....	32,845,000
1891*....	72,000,000		
	$165,842,621	$264,652,328	$452,720,000
Excess of imp'rts.	.....	98,809,707	
T'l imp'ts & prod'n	.....	.....	551,529,707

* To September 1.

The amount of new gold used in the industrial arts during the year 1890 was computed by the Director of the Mint at $10,717,472, and this was about $1,000,000 greater than for the previous year, showing that there is a progressive increase in such use. It is probably safe to say that the amount of gold in the Treasury and in private hands at the beginning of the year 1878, *i. e.*, before the above tabular statement begins, was at least equal to the amount that has since been used by us in the industrial arts. If we assume the equality of these two elements, there must be as much as $550,000,000 of gold coin and bullion in the country now, not reckoning what has been imported since the 1st of September, and not reckoning the production of the present year. The mint estimate of gold coin and bullion at the beginning of the present year was $704,597 128. This included, of course, the $72,000,000 exported subsequently. Subtracting this sum, the mint estimate of stock on hand would be $632,597,128.

The District Attorney of Philadelphia has given to the public the full correspondence which passed between John Bardsley and the Auditor-General and Cashier of the State Treasury, while the former was engaged in robbing the City and State Treasuries of between two and three millions of dollars. This is the correspondence which the Auditor-General, Mr. McCamant, explained on the witness-stand recently by saying it referred to the purchase of neckties, rare books, handkerchiefs, clocks, and other trifles for him by his obliging friend Bardsley. It had not then been published in full, or this explanation would, in all probability, never have been offered. It fills nearly five long columns of the *Public Ledger*, and leaves no doubt whatever that there was a corrupt understanding between Bardsley and McCamant and Livsey concerning the illegal use made by the former of public money intrusted to his care. A single letter will sufficiently establish this. It was written on January 1, 1891, and contains a postscript that will recall to our readers another correspondence which had many similar characteristics:

"Your letter received. I do not know what Jack Robinson is after, but suspect very strongly that Philadelphia parties are back of him on some action that he proposes to spring in the Legislature, in regard to the advertising of the Appraisers' lists. I should not be surprised if some of the Philadelphia Senators are behind him, and I suggest that you post Dave Martin and the Appraisers and have them be on the watch. I will tell you more when I have an opportunity of seeing you. I know Robinson very well, and will ask him what he is after, if I find I can do so without offending his dignity. He wrote me in regard to the act and authority for publishing and amounts paid. I gave him the former, but told him I did not have the latter, inasmuch as the law provided for payment by the County Treasurer, and I would not get the return of the same until after the first of the year. I do not think Robinson should ask you what he does, but, inasmuch as the *Star* published the same, you can do no harm by giving him the figures. Use your own discretion, however, in regard to the matter, first consulting the newspapers that made the publications and Dave Martin. I think Martin can control Robinson on party grounds. So can Elverson or some of the newspaper men interested in the publication. Livsey says Boyer will take to you the school warrant in person. A happy New Year to you.—Hastily,

"THOMAS MCCAMANT.

"P. S.—Burn this after reading it."

One of the most interesting revelations of the letters is that concerning the use made of the advertising of the Mercantile Appraisers' lists in the Philadelphia newspapers. It will be remembered that the newspapers which received this advertising paid Bardsley a commission of 40 per cent. in return for it. McCamant's letters show that there was much difficulty in satisfying the demands of the various papers for the advertising, and also that it was bestowed with the expectation, if not understanding, that the papers receiving it would be friendly in return for the favor. In one of his letters, McCamant says:

"I am in receipt of another letter from the *Bulletin* people, and shall in the morning write them in such a way as to give them to understand that the *Bulletin* cannot have the advertisement this year, and ought not to expect it. *I cannot take it from the Press without placing myself in a position where I can never extricate myself.*"

We observe that the *Press*, which is obliged to condense the correspondence fully one-half, is unable to find room for any reference to this statement of its own relations to McCamant and the advertising. What was the so inextricable "position" in which McCamant would have placed himself by taking away that advertising? Was the *Press* threatening to "take the lid" off some of his transactions if he dared to cut off the paper's supply of "pap," or was it merely going to "stand dumb"?

Gov. Hill's speech to the Franklin County farmers on Thursday, in favor of reducing the rate of interest from 6 to 5 per cent., furnishes one more evidence that he did not have such perfect control of the recent Democratic State Convention as he would like people to believe he had. There were rumors before the Convention met that he intended to have a 5-per-cent.-interest plank put in the platform, and efforts were made in this city to have men on the Committee on Resolutions and in the Convention who would oppose its adoption. The Governor got wind of this opposition, and, when the platform was received from him, the interest plank was missing. Now he takes occasion, in one of his first campaign speeches, to show everybody that he was really in favor of such a plank, but was overruled on the point by his party. His speech puts him more completely out of the field as an "issue" than anything else that he has yet said or done.

The one issue in the New York campaign which is defined with perfect clearness is that of ballot reform. Both parties have stated their attitude towards that question with a plainness which is not to be mistaken. The Democrats, in their platform, commit themselves unequivocally to Gov. Hill's defective and most unjust law, and in turn protest against amending that law by the adoption of a blanket ballot in place of his separate ballots and iniquitous "paster." The Republican platform declares explicitly for the substitution of the "blanket official ballot upon which the names of candidates shall be compactly grouped, rendering the voter's duty easy, treating candidates with equal justice, lessening opportunities for fraud, bribery, and corruption, and largely reducing the expenses of elections." Mr. Fassett has pledged himself personally, in nearly every speech he has made since his nomination, to carry out the demands of this platform in case of his election. Mr. Flower has made no allusion to the subject.

The managers of the Republican campaign in Massachusetts have made a bad blunder at the very start. At the Convention which nominated Mr. Allen for Governor, the

chief argument for preferring him to Mr. Crapo, his older, abler, and better-known rival, was that he would make a stronger antagonist of Gov. Russell upon the stump, and there was much talk about the willingness, not to say anxiety, of the Republicans to meet the Democratic speakers anywhere, at any time, and on any platform. Nevertheless, the chairman and secretary of the Republican State Committee have absolutely declined the courteous invitation of the Democrats for a joint discussion between Mr. Allen and Gov. Russell. The speeches Mr. Allen is making show that the Republican managers were quite right in their belief that he could not stand the test of debate. He is actually asking people to vote for him as Governor of Massachusetts for the year 1892, on the ground that, a generation ago, Southern Democrats were engaged in a "dastardly and bloody conspiracy for the disruption of this Union, causing the blood and treasure of the land to flow in unlimited measure," etc., etc. !

The *Herald* has interviewed Mr. Thomas Bailey Potter, the President of the Cobden Club—and indeed, one may say, the Cobden Club—touching the story attributed to Mr. Dudley by the Pittsburgh *Times*, that he (Dudley) was present when the Club determined to spend $1,000,000 in trying to defeat Major McKinley in Ohio. Mr. Dudley denied that he ever said anything of the kind. What he says he said was, that when last in England he was at a dinner given to a certain successful manufacturer named "Lord Munsen," and that from what he saw and heard there he came to the conclusion that many of those present would not hesitate to subscribe money to defeat Major McKinley, if they thought it would do any good. We tried to catch him in this story by asking him where the Cobden Club was, and how he, a noted American protectionist, was allowed to be present when they were voting the anti-McKinley money; but he was too sharp for us. The Pittsburgh *Times*, however, in the true Republican fashion, has taken no more notice of his denial than if it were the sighing of the idle wind. The Cobden Club now declares on his honor that he has never spent a cent in America except in the distribution of documents; and has distributed no documents in America since 1879, because he found that it produced irritation. The Club also spoke contemptuously of the McKinley Bill as an injury to British trade; said that any loss of market it caused to British manufacturers would be easily made up for in other directions; called attention to the disappearance of American shipping from the high seas; praised Mr. Cleveland; accused the high-tariff men of "insanity," and generally conducted himself like a hardened old villain—he is seventy-four; but he evidently has no bribery money for Ohio or any other State.

Mr. F. C. Beach has an article in the *American Amateur Photographer* on the recent Treasury ruling forbidding the importation of photographs by mail. From the correspondence and Treasury circulars he reproduces, it appears that the primary aim was to prevent mail importations of lottery tickets. To effect this, resort was had to that section of the regulations of the Universal Postal Union which forbids the mailing of "any packets whatever containing articles liable to customs duties." As "printed matter," lottery tickets were so liable, but so were photographs, it was held. However, a letter from the Superintendent of Foreign Mails contains the gratifying intimation that, in respect to photographs, the "annoyance, it is hoped, will soon be prevented by a restoration of the understanding previously held by the Treasury and Post-office Departments in regard to the execution of the 'Regulation governing the treatment of dutiable articles received in the mail from foreign countries,' concerning which correspondence is now in progress between the Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General." But the *American Architect* prints a letter from the Acting Secretary of the Treasury of later date than any of the correspondence cited by Mr. Beach, which expresses with some asperity the purpose of the Department to continue in its present oppressive course.

Within a few days the scheme of acquiring possession of the island of St. Thomas has been, in nautical phrase, "flung to the breeze." Various reasons for acquiring that harbor are advanced in the Washington despatches. These reasons have a very wide range. Some people think that St. Thomas would serve us admirably as a coaling-station. Others think that it would enable us to "command the Caribbean Sea," and defend the Nicaragua Canal when we have such a thing to defend. Still others see in the acquisition of St. Thomas a new political issue, acquisition of *something* being more important than the acquisition of St. Thomas in particular. We incline to the latter opinion. Acquisition of almost anything would be better than that of St. Thomas. When we were negotiating for it twenty-four years ago, or very soon after the negotiation failed, through the refusal of the Senate to ratify it, the island was nearly ruined by an earthquake. So noted has it become for earthquakes and hurricanes that the shipping which crowded its harbor a quarter of a century ago has taken refuge at other ports, and chiefly at Barbados. There is probably no Power on the globe that would accept the island as a free gift if required to fortify it and convert it into a naval station.

There is renewed talk of an investigation of Egan, which we trust is true. It would be much better that the State Department should investigate him than that he should be investigated by Congress, as he certainly will be if he should be in office in December. Admiral McCann has admitted that Egan wrote at least one letter to him asserting that Balmaceda could not be overthrown, and he was probably writing similar letters to others, and was "stuffing" the State Department with the same view, and possibly, also, Mr. C. R. Flint and Mr. Ivins, Balmaceda's counsel here. One charge against him will certainly be made good, for the proof lies in a nut-shell, namely, his refusing to sign the indignant protest made by the French and Brazilian Ministers when Balmaceda refused a safe-conduct for the return of the Congressional envoys who had come to Santiago to confer for peace. The Brazilian, French, and American Ministers were called in as mediators, but Balmaceda broke the conference up before it had gone very far, for reasons of his own, and then, thinking he had caught some of the Congressional leaders in a trap, refused to permit their departure unless they signed a pledge to refrain from all further opposition to him. The French Minister was so angry that he wrote a vehement remonstrance, which his Brazilian colleague signed, but Mr. Egan would not and did not. He was probably too "solid" with Balmaceda to be willing to gainsay him in anything.

The new Constitution in Mississippi makes the right to vote depend upon the payment of a poll tax several months before election, and ability to read or to understand the Constitution itself. Although the negroes largely outnumber the whites, so few of them cared enough about the suffrage to pay the poll tax that the operation of this clause alone gives the whites a large majority of the names on the list. This is the first time since reconstruction days that the whites have been legally in the majority, and the effect of the change is already visible. The Vicksburg *Commercial-Herald* says that there has been during the past summer, for the first time in a quarter of a century, a thorough and able discussion of leading political questions. "The all-pervading fear that the white people could not differ on leading questions, lest the ignorant negroes should wield the balance of power, kept the whites from all healthy and progressive participation in the leading economic questions. This year marks a new era in this respect. The questions of finances, tariff, and pensions have been discussed in every county in the State, and even the war records were buried in the dead past. Public officials in Congress were held to a strict accountability, and their records discussed by one party in the State and defended by another." This is the first step to the formation of a strong party in opposition to the regular Democracy, and the Vicksburg paper thinks that there will be only a short delay until two parties are formed and make their nominations for all the State and county offices. This will not happen next year, for the continued Republican threat of a Force Bill will keep the whites solid in the Presidential campaign, but it will surely occur before the next State election. The *Commercial-Herald* naturally and properly rejoices over this prospect, which "will generate healthy political competition, hold officials

to a stricter accountability, secure greater freedom of thought and discussion, and greatly inure to the prosperity of the people."

The obscure knot of women who have been trying to make themselves notorious by erecting a statue to the late Mrs. G. L. Schuyler received a severe rebuff in the issue of a permanent injunction against them on Friday by Judge O'Brien. Whether such an injunction could issue has been a matter of doubt among lawyers, as there is no precedent in the books exactly applicable to the case. But no one who sees how rapidly respect for the privacy of individuals is diminishing under the attacks of the unclean horde who detest privacy for themselves, has denied that if a wrong of this sort were not preventable, there was a serious defect in the law. Judge O'Brien has solved this difficulty by doing what judges have every now and then to do, in dealing with new sets of facts. He says:

"It is true that there is no reported decision which goes to this extent in maintaining the right of privacy, and in that respect this is a novel case. But the gradual extension of the law in the direction of affording the most complete redress for injury to individual rights makes this, from reported decisions much similar in principle, an easy step."

He lays down, too, the very valuable rule that nobody can be made a public character against his or her will. To enable anybody to criticise publicly, or honor publicly, a man or woman as a "public character," he or she must have assumed the rôle voluntarily, by accepting public office or becoming an artist, literary man, or orator. But it is not permissible to dig a man out of private life because he was conspicuous for his charities, or his domestic virtues or graces, and make him ridiculous by drumming round the country for money to erect a statue to him. This might be done for mere purposes of annoyance to an enemy, and might be defended with the pleas set up by the "Woman's Memorial Fund Association."

We see no reason for the surprise expressed at Prof. Vincent's address at the opening of Union Seminary last Thursday, in which he substantially endorsed for himself and his colleagues the views of Prof. Briggs. That was but the logical following up of the action of the Seminary last spring, when it decided to stand by the Professor whom the General Assembly had practically declared to be unfit to teach in the Presbyterian Church. That action was based upon the technical denial of the right of the Assembly to proceed as it had, but it really amounted to a defiance of that body. It would have been very easy for the Trustees to say: "We think the Assembly was going beyond the strict letter of our agreement, but still, inasmuch as it has disapproved of Prof. Briggs, we will call for his resignation so as to remain in full harmony with the highest court of the Church." But they did not say that, and virtually crossed the Rubicon at the time; so that they are now but maintaining the position which they then determined upon.

The London *Daily News* has been making some sensation in England by a series of letters on English "Village Life" in various parts of the island, which go to show that the villages in all the agricultural districts are being rapidly deserted by the young men and women, to such a point that, in spite of the aid derived from machinery, the farmers find increasing difficulty in sowing and harvesting their crops, and the parsons are left with empty churches and Sunday-schools, and the squires with few to rule over but the aged and infirm. In fact, it looks as if the economic decay which for fifteen years has been slowly going on in rural England, was receiving its final impulse from the dislike of the younger generation to country life. But what is also threatened with ruin is a social system which has come down to our day almost untouched from the Middle Ages. In this system the laborer was born, and was expected to remain, in the village, as "Hodge," or "Chawbacon," and work on the adjacent farms in absolute content. The schooling he got consisted mainly of the Church catechism, and he was expected to attend church regularly, on pain of the severe displeasure of the parson and the squire. The latter owned most of the cottages, or the whole village, which was then called a "close village," and could drive anybody he pleased out of the parish, and, besides this, he was apt to be a justice of the peace with large summary powers, an office also often held by the parson. When Hodge got old or sick, the ladies of "the great house" or the parsonage gave him and his wife fuel and blankets in the winter, and preached resignation to him; and when he got too old for any work, they both took refuge in the workhouse in which, like the great bulk of their class, they died with the consolations of religion.

All this has of late years been greatly changed. The new schools, the railroads, the ocean steamers, the cheap newspapers, and the political agitators have opened up the world to Hodge's astonished gaze, and he refuses any longer to live under the parish triumvirate—the Squire, the Parson, and the Farmer. He goes off to the great towns or emigrates, and if he remains, is so saucy and independent and so ungrateful for the coal, the blankets, and the workhouse, that he is practically unmanageable. The vote has given the final touch to his impudence, and in many parts of rural England the end of the world seems to the little circle in the manor-house and the vicarage to be very near at hand. There is something pathetic in the swarm of letters which the *Daily News* is receiving, suggesting ways of making village life attractive and of keeping the young men and maids at home, but they have all a futile air. Some consolation, in the way of a saving of pride, is found in the fact that the same sort of phenomenon is visible in France and in the United States.

It seems hardly necessary to mention the fact that silver was demonetized in France in 1877. Nevertheless it looks as though the Richmond *Dispatch* had not learned that fact as late as September 22, for it quotes and endorses Sir Moreton Frewen to the following effect:

"Mr. Frewen says that as no Administration could stand in this country which should pass a law demonetizing silver, so no Administration could stand in France which should take executive action hostile to silver. In a word, as we have monometallism in this country, and yet the people are bimetallists, so it is in France; and there is no more danger of the demonetization of silver by law in France than in this country. Silver stands there as here upon its merits."

To say that in a country where monometallism prevails there is no danger of the demonetization of silver, is a truism, like saying that in a country where all the people are white there is no danger of enslavement of the blacks. Silver does *not* "stand upon its own merits," either in France or in the United States. In France it is not coined at all except for small change. In the United States it is coined only on Government account. It is really demonetized in both countries. "An act to melt silver coins and convert them into bullion," continues Sir Moreton, "could not possibly pass the French Chambers." That is because the resulting bullion could not be sold except at a heavy loss. If it could be sold for gold in the proportion of 1 to 15½, such a bill would pass the French Chambers in a twinkling, and also the American Congress.

It took fifty sittings of the Brazilian Congress to pass its first important bill, and that related to the salary of Congressmen. The precedents brought out in the debate on that measure of pressing public importance show that the stipend of the members of the first Constituent Assembly after the separation from Portugal was $1,200 a year. That amount continued to be paid to the representatives in Parliament down to 1873, when the change was made to the rate of $37.50 per legislative day for Senators and $25 a day for Deputies. A natural indifference to the length of sessions was observable under that arrangement, and was urged as an argument against continuing it in the Republic. But a proposition to make the salary $500 for each session was voted down, and the old plan of payment by the day adopted. There was some dispute between the two houses, however, over the distinction made in estimating the value of the services of each. It was finally agreed, though, that genuine republican principles required equality of payment, and, as the Senators would not come down, the Deputies consented to go up, and so the rate for either was made $37.50 per legislative day.

QUAYISM IN PENNSYLVANIA.

THE action of Gov. Pattison in calling a special session of the Pennsylvania Senate to inquire into the grave charges made against the State Treasurer and Auditor-General, with a view to their removal from office in case the charges are sustained, causes a great commotion throughout the State. Although the Senate has a strong Republican majority, there appears to be a general expectation that its inquiry will be more thorough and fearless, and consequently more damaging, than any similar examination yet made into Republican misdoings in the State. That the Quay Republicans are afraid that this will be the case is made plain by their comments and the protests of their newspapers, all of them taking the ground that the Governor's action is merely a campaign move.

As a matter of fact, the Governor's action was first suggested, in public at least, by the Philadelphia *Ledger* on Thursday last, the day after the McCamant-Bardsley-Livsey letters were published. It called the Governor's attention to the clause of the Constitution which he cites now as compelling him to this action, and said that the expense of an extra session would not be great. In taking this position the *Ledger* was simply following the manly, self-respecting course which, under Mr. Childs's personal direction, it has been pursuing towards the Bardsley and other rascalities during the past few weeks. It alone of the Republican newspapers of the city published the McCamant letters in full, and it alone had the courage to comment upon them in terms suitable to the occasion. The *Press* and *Inquirer* were neither able to publish the letters in full nor to make any editorial comment whatever upon them. On Monday both those Republican organs denounced the Governor's action. The *Inquirer*, Quay's personal organ, says the proclamation "has a lot of political fireworks in it," and will entail a great and useless expense upon the taxpayers. The *Press*, which usually "stands dumb" about Quay until he needs some defence for especially dirty work, comes to his rescue with even more zeal than the *Inquirer*, saying that the Governor's action "has the appearance of a costly campaign trick," and that if there have been any charges preferred against the officials in question, the "public has not heard of them, and so far nothing has been developed beyond the letters recently given the public by District-Attorney Graham." These letters this same *Press* did its utmost to keep the public from seeing by cutting out all the more damaging parts of them, including such as showed that the *Press* had been mixed up with McCamant and Bardsley in a distribution of the city advertising plunder.

The best and only answer necessary for the Governor to make to the criticism of these partisan editors appeared in the *Ledger's* editorial comments of Monday. Mr. Childs shows in these that he has "enlisted for the war," and that one editor at least in the city has begun to realize that the good name of Philadelphia and of Pennsylvania can no longer be preserved by covering up Republican official rottenness, but can be saved from entire destruction only by unsparing exposure and punishment. The *Ledger* says of the Governor's action that he "was required by his obligations to his great constituency to do what he has done"; that the insinuations of partisan journals that he is inspired by political considerations, "are more likely to hurt their authors and the Republican party than the Governor, whose entire official record as Chief Magistrate of this commonwealth is so clear as to be read aright by all men of fair minds"; and that "every circumstance revealed by the Bardsley-McCamant-Livsey correspondence was a separate force which urged, or compelled, the Governor in respect to his convictions of his simple, inevitable duty to ascertain the truth of the grave charges made against the administration of the offices of Auditor-General and State Treasurer." Continuing, the *Ledger* says, and its manly utterances ought to make the Quay apologists in the *Press* and *Inquirer* offices thoroughly ashamed of themselves:

> "The extraordinary session has been properly called, and the District Attorney of Philadelphia and the Governor of Pennsylvania having done their duty in the premises, the Senate, with like high sense of public duty, with like courage, and with like regard for the ascertainment of the truth, and the whole of it, without regard to what party or what persons may be hurt by it, must do its duty. The public wants to know the top and bottom, the length and breadth, of the official maladministration which has not only plundered State and city, but which has covered both with disgrace. . . . If the Senate would serve its party best, it will by an open, fearless and exhaustive investigation of the implicated officials' conduct, establish their innocence or prove their guilt. If they are innocent, the party will be relieved from all responsibility for wrong-doing which two of its official representatives have indirectly put upon it; if they are guilty, the Senate, as the representative of the party, should proclaim their guilt and so secure their removal from office. The Democrats are not half so much interested to discover the truth with regard to these 'grave charges' as are the Republicans; and the Republicans, having the power to do it, should be eager to discover and proclaim it. The people will tolerate no partisan jugglery in this business, and at least two-thirds of the Senate should know it."

That both officials are guilty, no one who has read the McCamant correspondence can for a moment doubt, for that correspondence is so damning that the defenders of the officials dare not publish it in full. It is to be said of the Treasurer, Mr. Boyer, that he is not directly implicated by it, but his Cashier, Mr. Livsey, is, and Mr. Boyer can escape conviction only by pleading that he had no knowledge of what his cashier was doing—an astonishing neglect of his sworn duty as the head of the Treasury Department. Livsey has resigned, having first fled the State as soon as the Legislative Investigating Committee began its inquiry into the Treasury's conduct. He was said at one time to have been in Milwaukee, but thorough search for him there shows that this was a false report, as he has never been in that city, but has been in Canada since his flight. When Mr. Boyer was sought on Saturday for his views on the Governor's action, it was discovered, according to the Philadelphia *Press*, that he was "in Atlantic City conferring with Senator Quay."

The simple fact is, that it is Quayism in office for the past twenty-five years or more which is under examination in Pennsylvania now, and it is to Quay that all the implicated persons flock for counsel when they hear the alarm. By a curious and dramatic coincidence, the death of one of the first treasurers of the Quay kind which the State had, Kemble of "addition, division, and silence" fame, was announced on the morning when his successors in office were being summoned to give an accounting of their work. Quay himself fled to Atlantic City when the legislative inquiry began, and has only twice put his foot in the State since. He knows well enough what would be the result of "removing the lid from the State Treasury" of Pennsylvania for the past quarter of a century, for during all that time Quay's views of what constitute the duty of public officials towards public money have been in active operation. The fatal break came when the voters of Pennsylvania refused to elect Quay's smirched candidate, Delamater, to the Governorship last fall. That precipitated the collapse of the Keystone Bank and the exposure of Bardsley, and began the series of revelations which the Governor is now seeking to make complete and final.

ELECTING PRESIDENT EVERY YEAR.

THE theory of our Government is, that a President of the United States is to be voted for only once in four years. The attempt of our politicians is, to make men vote every year with sole reference to the next Presidential election. This policy was never before advocated so strongly and so inexcusably as it is to-day by the managers of the Republican party in Massachusetts.

The Bay State still elects its Governor every year, and it has been the custom of the dominant party to give a second term to a man who had behaved well as Executive during his first year. Last year William E. Russell, a Democrat, was elected Governor, many Republicans being so much dissatisfied with the nominee of their own party that they either voted against him or refused to vote at all. Mr. Russell has made an excellent Governor, so much so that the Republican State Convention could not find any material for the usual plank "arraigning" the Executive of the other party. The election this fall is solely for State officers and members of the Legislature. Not a single Federal office is to be filled. The main question is, of course, as to the Governorship. It is simply the question whether Mr. Russell, just renominated by the Democrats, is likely to make a better Governor next year than Mr. Charles H. Allen, whom the Republicans made their candidate a fortnight ago. It is purely a State question, for the Governor of Massachusetts next year will have nothing to do with Federal issues.

The Republican managers, however, fear the result if they allow the election to turn, as it ought, on this State issue. They are afraid that many men who expect to vote the Republican ticket next year, will vote for Russell's reëlection this year, if the question

is whether they do not think that his good service this year merits the reward of another term. Consequently, they are preaching the doctrine that it is not really a State election which is to be held in Massachusetts this year, but a national one; that the voter is not to cast his ballot for Russell or Allen according as he thinks one or the other better qualified for the Governorship, but for the Republican or the Democratic ticket according as he desires to see a Republican or a Democrat elected President of the United States in November, 1892. The argument was put in the bluntest form by ex-Gov. Brackett, in his speech as presiding officer at the opening meeting of the campaign in Boston when he said:

"The Governorship of Massachusetts, and of every other State, is a political office. We are engaged in a prolonged political warfare in this country. Two great political armies are arrayed against each other. Once in four years a general engagement takes place between them. On other years battles are fought between the various divisions located in the different States. In these the numbers engaged upon each side are smaller, the results less decisive and important to the nation, but no one is thereby justified in deserting his colors and going over to the enemy in the lesser any more than in the larger combat. And the claim that the commander of the opposing force in one of these contests is an estimable gentleman, and that his actions have been creditable, is as immaterial in the battle of ballots as it would be in the battle of bullets; but each man's duty is to stand by the flag that symbolizes his political faith, and yield a loyal support to the man who has been selected to bear that standard."

This is nothing more nor less than the doctrine that we must elect a President every year; that the question in a State election is not which of two men will make the better Governor of the State, but which of two parties ought to rule the nation; that the question in a city election is not whether a certain man will make the best Mayor of all the candidates, but whether his election will help or hurt the chances throughout the country of the national party to which the voter belongs. It follows, of course, that neither Republican nor Democrat must consider the character, or want of character, of his party's candidate for Governor or Mayor; the matter of his comparative fitness for executive responsibility; the question whether the State or city, as the case may be, will gain or lose by his election. All such considerations are "immaterial"; his one duty, under all circumstances, is to "stand by the flag that symbolizes his political faith," and "yield a loyal support to the man who has been selected to bear that standard," whether that man be saint or sinner.

The traditional declaration of the Bourbon Democrat, that he "would vote for the Devil if he got the regular nomination," is thus accepted as the true gospel by a representative Massachusetts Republican. If ex-Gov. Brackett's position be sound, every man in New York who wants to see the Democrats carry the Presidential election next year ought to vote for Flower this year without any questioning. The voter may believe that Fassett would make a far better Governor of the State; he may consider the chances of getting a good ballot law far better under Fassett than under Flower; he may think that Flower's election would put Tammany Hall virtually in control of the State; he may feel sure that the varied interests of this great commonwealth would fare far better with Fassett as Governor than with Flower. But all such considerations are "immaterial." The only question is which army he is going to train with when national issues come up next year. He must vote for President this year, as well as next—every year, in fact.

We saw this doctrine put into practice by the Republicans of this city last fall. There were two candidates for Mayor—one a perfect representative of Tammany Hall, the other an honest Democrat who would give the city good government. The issue of the contest rested with the Republicans. Many of them supported the honest Democrat, but many others—more than enough to turn the scales—either refused to vote for him, or in some cases even voted for the Tammany candidate, because they wanted Tammany kept in power in New York city as a "horrible example" of Democratic government for Republican stump speakers to harp upon in a Presidential campaign. They considered such questions as clean streets, decent city officials, and honest municipal government "immaterial," compared with a supposed advantage for their "political army" in the "general engagement" throughout the country which was to take place two years later.

Against the corrupt and demoralizing doctrine which is preached by the Massachusetts Republicans is the clear and convincing statement of the truth which is made by Mr. Matthew Hale of Albany in an excellent letter published by the *Times* of Friday last. Mr. Hale is an independent voter who supported Cleveland against Blaine in 1884, and who stands with the Democrats on the tariff issue in national politics, but he purposes voting for Fassett for Governor this year because this year's election is for State officers, and he thinks Mr. Fassett's election will best subserve the interests of the State, and he is not to be deterred from doing so by any claim that he ought to cast his ballot with reference to the McKinley tariff, the Force Bill, or any other issue in Federal affairs. Mr. Hale's argument applies equally well to every other State, and we invite ex-Gov. Brackett, the editor of the Boston *Journal*, or any other representative of Massachusetts Republicanism, to see if he can pick any flaw in it.

Once in four years is certainly often enough to vote for President. Good citizens ought to make short work of those politicians, whatever their party, who would have us take to electing a President every year, and who advise us to sacrifice the highest interests of municipality or State for the sake of some problematical gain to the party we expect to support in a future national campaign.

ANOTHER DIPLOMATIC "TRIUMPH."

MR FREDERICK DOUGLASS, ex-Minister to Hayti, concludes his exposition of our recent diplomacy in that country in the *North American Review* for October. In his former paper he brought affairs down to the request presented by Admiral Gherardi as special commissioner of the United States, backed by seven ships of war, to Mr. Firmin, the Haytian Minister of Foreign Affairs, that the Government of Hayti should grant us a lease of the Môle St. Nicolas, and agree at the same time not to grant any other lease, concession, or sale of Haytian territory to any other Power. This request was based, Mr. Douglass told us in his first paper, upon an alleged understanding with President Hyppolite, being a sort of *quid pro quo* for assistance rendered to him secretly by our Government during the last civil war in Hayti. This request was, at Mr. Firmin's instance, reduced to writing by Admiral Gherardi and signed by him. Mr. Douglass, although he was then our accredited Minister to Hayti, was not asked to sign it and did not. Then the Haytian Minister asked to see Admiral Gherardi's credentials, and, when these were presented to him, pronounced them insufficient to bind the United States to any contract. Admiral Gherardi insisted that they were ample, and intimated that the Haytian Minister had raised this objection merely for purposes of delay. This did not tend to smooth matters. Mr. Firmin would not take another step without better credentials. So a telegram was sent to Washington, and an answer was received that the new credentials would be sent immediately by the Clyde Line steamer to Gonaives. But they did not come by that steamer, nor till two months later.

In the meantime, rumors had got abroad among the populace that the Government was selling a portion of the country to foreigners, that the lease of the Môle St. Nicolas would be only the first step towards the surrender of the whole island, etc., etc. The result was a very inflammatory state of the public mind, rendering any negotiation difficult. When the new letter of credentials arrrived, it was found to include Mr. Douglass as a joint envoy or commissioner with Admiral Gherardi to negotiate the treaty of cession, the former one mentioning the Admiral alone. It was signed by President Harrison and Secretary Blaine, and it was confined by its terms to the lease of the Môle St. Nicolas as a United States naval station, no mention being made of the limitations and conditions prescribed in the earlier letter. A disagreement immediately arose between the two Commissioners, Mr. Douglass contending that the new letter of instructions superseded the old one entirely, while the Admiral held that it was merely supplementary and additional to the old one. The point was of importance, since in the one case the exclusion of other Powers from Haytian territory was a condition, while in the other it was not. The exclusion clause was held by Mr. Douglass to be tantamount to a surrender by Hayti of her sovereignty, *i. e.*, of her right to dispose of her own territory, and therefore likely to prove an obstacle to the negotiation. Mr. Douglass yielded to the Ad-

miral's views on this point, and then he says: "The result is known. Hayti refused to grant the lease, and alleged that to do so was impossible under the hard terms imposed in the previous letter of instructions."

But the real reason for the failure of the negotiation, he thinks, was the popular opposition to any alienation of the national territory. The Government did not dare to face this opposition. "Nothing," says Mr. Douglass, "is more repugnant to the thoughts and feelings of the masses of that country than the alienation of a single rood of their territory to a foreign Power," and this may well be believed. Another contributing cause of the non-success of the negotiation, he tells us, was the presence of a squadron of war ships carrying a hundred cannon and 2,000 men. If this squadron was sent to Hayti as a threat, it had an effect contrary to the intention of the senders. "We should have known," says Mr. Douglass, "that, whatever else the Haytian people may be, they are not cowards." This is another true saying. Since the days of Toussaint, the Haytians have fought against foreigners and fought among themselves with real barbaric freedom.

But this negotiation and its failure are not the most singular part of Mr. Douglass's story. Simultaneously there was going on a negotiation between an agent of the Clyde Line of steamers and the Haytian Government for a subsidy of a half-million dollars from the Government of Hayti to enable this firm to run a line of steamers from New York to Hayti. "This agent," Mr. Douglass says, "assumed towards me a dictatorial attitude." Among other proposals, he wanted Mr. Douglass to go to Mr. Firmin and assure him that if he would grant the Clyde concession, he (Minister Douglass) would refrain from pressing the claims of other American citizens against Hayti. This Mr. Douglass refused to do, whereupon the agent reported him to the Government at Washington as inefficient and unfriendly to the subsidy. The Government of Hayti objected to the subsidy on the plea of poverty. When the agent found that he could not carry his point, he set up a claim to be paid by Hayti for his own costs in working for the subsidy. Mr. Douglass refused to present this claim, but the agent pushed it on his own account, and actually got $5,000 gold out of the Haytian Treasury. The money was paid to get rid of the man and of his importunities, but the payment was a woful mistake, for he used it to renew his demand for the subsidy. Mr. Douglass does not say that this subsidy claim was backed by the United States Government, but it is impossible to understand his paper in any other way, for he says that the subsidy negotiation made the other negotiation more difficult. Moreover, he gives us to understand that the subsidy to the Clyde Line had the preference over the coaling station. "To them" [the Haytians], he says, "the preference given to an individual firm over those of the United States seemed to wear a sinister aspect." We should think very likely it would, especially if they had any knowledge of our preference for nitrate beds in South America over the ordinary achievements of diplomacy.

Here, we submit, is one of Mr. Blaine's most notable diplomatic triumphs. It has all the characteristic features. Although representing the Republican party, which stands up for the colored man on every occasion, he puts a gross indignity on his own chosen Minister to Hayti because he is black. That must have been the reason, because Mr. Douglass is a man of ability. It is no disparagement to Admiral Gherardi to say that Mr. Douglass is intellectually his equal. This initial blunder was afterwards corrected by associating Mr. Douglass with the Admiral. It was characteristic, too, that the demand for the Môle St. Nicolas should have been based upon secret help given by us to one belligerent against another in a neighboring country with which we were at peace. To send seven war ships to the country with which we were negotiating—this being a republic and the only black republic on the American hemisphere—was distinctly a threat and calculated to defeat the object in view. To have or to allow a private job to be mixed up with important public business was the most characteristic feature of all. This alone would stamp it as a Blaine performance. Anybody familiar with Mr. Blaine's career would recognize it at once.

Altogether this Haytian business, as narrated by Mr. Douglass, is one of the most discreditable chapters in our diplomatic history. It is impossible that it should be passed over or ignored. If what Mr. Douglass says is not true, it must be answered and shown to be false. It cannot be answered as Collector Erhardt was answered by the chief organ of the party, by saying that he is "trying to pose as a martyr."

MR. DEPEW'S LONDON "VOLCANO."

It is the privilege of the American public to receive from Mr. Depew every fall, on his return from his annual European tour, much needed information on the economic and social condition of the Old World. We all recall his remarkable discovery, three years ago, that Holland had made a mistake in abandoning the protective system, although the fact that she had ever followed that system was a profound secret to everybody but Mr. Depew, and he himself has consistently refused to tell us how he found it out. This year he has chosen to enlighten us about London poverty, and we must say that we find some of his revelations as startling as he could have expected.

His qualifications for giving us the exact truth as to the "dark side" of London consist, he tells us, in his having gone "one Sunday morning, in a garb which was a cross between that of a costermonger and a pickpocket," to traverse the Whitechapel district. For a man of his lightning-like qualities of mind, this was, of course, enough. One like Mr. Arnold White, now Baron Hirsch's agent, could spend years in inquiry, could personally investigate the cases of 6,000 unemployed men, and then report his results "with a humble sense of their inherent deficiencies"; but it would be absurd to compare such a plodding order of talent with Mr. Depew's intuitive methods. However, it is with the conclusions he drew that we are mainly concerned, and he informs us: "I felt that this great city, with its magnificent palaces, with every evidence in part of it of the largest wealth, the greatest luxury, the most liberal expenditure, rested upon a volcano which only needed the force of civilization to bring upon it a catastrophe which would shock the world." This was the impression made upon him by the "misery, the wretchedness, the seething furnace of ignorance," which he saw in Whitechapel.

Now, there are other people who have taken walks in Whitechapel, and have been there oftener than Mr. Depew. By going very often and for several years, they have probably, taken together, seen fully as much as he did on that Sunday morning's stroll. At any rate, they took notes on what they saw, and made out a classification of the entire population of the district. It was published in the first volume of 'Labor and Life of the People,' and would have saved Mr. Depew a good deal of trouble if he had seen it. From that table it appears that the district contained 2,439 persons of the lowest class, criminals, loafers, etc. But they amounted to but 3.32 per cent. of the entire population. Next to them came 6,566, or 8.92 per cent., who were classed among the "very poor," having only irregular employment. But the class of "poor," with living wages, numbered upwards of 19,000, while the "comfortable" included 40,000 and more, among them being 8,277, or 11.27 of the entire population, who did "highly paid work"; and 4,589 belonged to the "well-to-do" or "lower-middle and upper-middle" classes. Thus Mr. Depew's "volcano" class numbers less than 4 per cent. of the total, is only about half as large as the "well-to-do," even in Whitechapel, one-third as great as the "highly paid," and about one-fifteenth as great as the "comfortable." So that, in point of numbers, it does not look like a slumbering Mt. Etna, even considering Whitechapel alone.

But it is when this class is itself analyzed, and its quality shown, that talk about its liability to rise any day and lay hold upon London becomes peculiarly ridiculous. Arnold White, as we have said, examined thousands of these homeless, unemployed people, of irregular or criminal habits—the men who roam the streets at night, and to whom is attributed "the bitter cry of outcast London"—the men whom "Gen." Booth proposes to reclaim by deporting them, and putting them to work on the land somewhere. He reports that 40 per cent. of them were "hopelessly submerged," "physically incapable of doing an honest day's work." Then came 40 per cent. more who, though not "fallen to so low a level," were able to do no more than "two or three hours' work of descriptions not demanding the exercise of skill." Of the remaining 20 per cent., a large proportion were broken-down soldiers, with

no trade or industrial aptitude, while others were artisans whose work had been supplanted by machinery, and agricultural laborers drawn in from a lot that was hard to one that was hopeless. "The whisper of a Mansion House fund blackens the North Road with swarms of these poor fellows, who, aimlessly and unprevented, swell the ranks of the competitive army of the soldiers of unskilled labor." Of the whole floating-population of London, says Mr. White, not more than 4½ per cent. would be able to support themselves in a colony, if given land, tools, and everything necessary to begin farming.

To say that this body of incapables is a menace to civilization, in Mr. Depew's sense, is to utter wild and whirling words. There is no more possibility of an explosion caused by them that will "shock the world" than there is of one taking place in a mass of decaying refuse. That they are a great social evil and danger cannot be doubted. Nor need it be denied that they are capable of isolated and underground crimes, like throwing dynamite bombs, directed against society at large. But to suppose them either mentally able to form a plan of concerted attack upon the social order, or physically able to carry it out if formed, is hopelessly to misconceive the whole matter. One hundred intelligent and vigorous men could handle the whole lot. The volcano is only a mud one.

But Mr. Depew also tells us how it has all come about. "Miserable as these people have been always, their misery is a thousand-fold intensified by pauper immigration. Great Britain has erected no barrier as we have. . . . It is the dumping-ground for all Europe for misery which must starve or go somewhere." Now, according to the census of 1881, the foreign-born population of London was 2¾ per cent. of the whole. That proportion must have been phenomenally active to have "a thousand-fold intensified" the misery of the rest of the people; and the way the "dumping" process goes on, that Mr. Depew alludes to, may be seen from the statistics of emigration and immigration for 1889. In that year 44 328 foreigners emigrated to England; but in the same year 83,466 foreigners emigrated from England, and we fear they found their "dumping-ground" in the land that has "erected a barrier." It is true, that in 1881 and 1882, when there was an outburst of persecution against the Jews in Russia, there was an influx of refugees in London, as there was also after Bismarck's edict of 1884, expelling the Poles from Prussia. But a report on the subject was printed in 1889, from the pen of H Llewellyn Smith, which concluded: "Whatever may have been the cause for alarm presented by the immigration of the Jew, it is all over now."

Mr. Depew concludes his observations by saying that they yield "a lesson for us to take to ourselves." So we think. The lesson would appear to be that we should never judge the phenomena of foreign countries hastily.

RAIN-MAKERS AND SCIENCE.

We doubt if there has appeared within the present century a more amusing discussion than that in the current number of the *North American Review* between Gen. Dyrenforth and Prof. Simon Newcomb about the possibility of producing rain by making a great noise. The humor of the controversy, too, is greatly increased by the fact that Gen. Dyrenforth professes to represent science just as much as Prof. Newcomb does.

Gen. Dyrenforth, who speaks for the rain-making interest, has been making experiments on the Staked Plains in Texas, with money voted by the last Congress, and maintains that he actually produced rain in an arid region and in a dry time by his noise. Prof. Newcomb, on the other hand, maintains that the production of rain by earthly noises is, not a scientific impossibility, but one of those scientific improbabilities which pass as impossibilities in the present state of human knowledge, among all sensible and instructed men, and he intimates, politely of course, that Gen. Dyrenforth is a simpleton.

The General's case, stated briefly, is as follows: Plutarch has observed (no reference) that "unusually heavy rains fall after great battles." This dictum of Plutarch suggests to the General the following observations, which it would be wicked not to reproduce *verbatim:*

> "It is not impossible, according to the theory of the commingling of air currents, that such rains might have been produced by the great battles of ancient times. Let ten thousand Greeks march into battle chanting their 'pæans' and shouting their 'allallas,' beating time meanwhile on their shields, while a hundred thousand Persians are advancing against them, continually shouting their terrible battle-cries; then let the great armies rush together with the tumult of clashing swords and shields, the fierce shouting of the multitudes, the hoarse death-cries and shouts of victory, and surely the sound waves rising from such a din will literally shake the heavens, and are capable of producing no insignificant effect among the volatile currents of the upper air. Moreover, the heat generated from the struggling masses, and the moisture evaporated from their perspiration, would exercise a decided influence in disturbing the equilibrium of the atmospheric conditions."

These eloquent remarks will suggest to most readers the inquiry why, if human perspiration can "exercise a decided influence in disturbing the equilibrium of atmospheric conditions," hot, dry weather lasts so long—why, for instance, it has not rained more in New York for the last fortnight. During the whole of this period not only 110,000, but over 1,000,000 persons have been perspiring profusely on an area proportionately no larger than that occupied by the Greeks and Persians at the battle of Marathon; and although they may not have emitted either "pæans" or "allallas," they have given utterance to curses and other exclamations calculated to exert an equally disturbing effect on "the volatile currents of the upper air."

But Gen. Dyrenforth does not rely on Plutarch alone. He produces "a well-known scientist" named Espy, who flourished about 1837 and "proposed a method of compelling Nature to loose the moisture which she holds aloft." This method was the kindling of a great fire, which would send a current of hot air "to a great height," where it would tackle Nature, and compel her to loose her moisture. The Australian Government was on the point of testing the theory in 1884, when it consulted the local astronomer, Mr. H. C. Russell, who was cruel enough to "demonstrate" that a fire capable of exerting compulsion on Nature in those regions, so as to increase the rainfall at Sydney, would need the consumption of 9,000,000 tons of coal per day. The experiment, therefore, was not tried, but the principle remained. Given a fire of 9,000,000 tons of coal a day, and Nature would in all probability loose her moisture.

Gen. Dyrenforth next turns to the noise of great modern battles, in which the sound of artillery is substituted for "pæans" and "allallas," the perspiration of the contending forces being probably about the same. He finds that the rain which fell after the battles of 1870 was "widely discussed by European scientists." He does not give the names of these scientists, but he does cite an anonymous letter in the *Evening Post* of September in that year which shows that the "German press" had commented on the rainy weather which had accompanied the battles, and in which the writer declared that "there appeared to be little doubt, judging from the data on hand, that many storms and rains which we have had in Germany for the past six weeks—a most unusual thing at this season here—have been brought on by the cannonading and firing of small arms in Alsace and Lorraine." It will be observed that the letter is dated at Frankfort-on-the-Main, and that the rainy weather the writer speaks of was weather "in that [this] part of Germany," and that the battles in Alsace and Lorraine occurred only once a fortnight or so. That the occasional cannonading in France should have given Germany a rainy summer must, therefore, be looked on as a scientific fact of the first order of importance, and yet Prof. Newcomb passes it over without notice. No wonder our plain people distrust the professors.

Gen. Dyrenforth next takes up the battles of our Mexican war and civil war. He shows that "heavy rain followed almost every engagement of importance during the civil, and, so far as can be ascertained, the same was common during the Mexican, war," which, he says, "constitutes almost unquestionable proof that rain can be and is produced by the concussion of cannonading." Fortified with these "proofs," he got an appropriation from the last Congress to enable him to make experiments on the Staked Plains, and started for the scene of action with the following outfit:

> "Sixty-eight explosive balloons 10 and 12 feet in diameter, having a capacity of 525 and 940 cubic feet each, respectively; three large balloons for making ascensions; 20,000 pounds of iron borings and 16,000 pounds of sulphuric acid, together with generators and fittings for manufacturing 50,000 cubic feet of hydrogen gas; 2,500 pounds of powdered chlorate of potash; 600 pounds of binoxide of manganese, with fifty retorts and suitable furnaces and fittings for generating 12,000 cubic feet of oxygen gas.
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> "Material for making 100 strong cloth-covered kites was also brought from the East, as well as the ingredients for manufacturing several thousand pounds of rackarock powder and other high explosives. The party was also well supplied with electrical and meteorological instruments and apparatus."

With this apparatus he made awful noises —or "terrific air-quakes," as he calls them—over a considerable area, spreading his explosives so as to make the uproar resemble, as far as possible, that of hostile batteries of artillery in action. He began August 9 at from 5 P. M. to 6 P. M., and opened again for "a shorter time" at 9 P. M. in clear weather. *At noon on the 10th* the clouds began to gather, and torrents of rain fell that afternoon. On the 17th he worked his batteries for twelve hours in clear weather. Late *on the following afternoon* the clouds gathered, and down came the rain in torrents. On the 25th of August he began again at eleven A. M., and exploded till eleven P. M. *At three* A. M. *on the 26th* there came a thunderstorm and floods of rain.

Now, how does Prof. Newcomb meet these "unquestionable proofs"? Alas, by what lawyers call "a general denial." He asserts positively that "sound cannot make rain"; the war of 1870, the Mexican war, and our civil war to the contrary notwithstanding. He lays down two or three propositions which are most disrespectful to Plutarch, the German press, Gen. McNulta, Gen. Garfield, and Gen. Dyrenforth, and, we believe, also to "Uncle Jerry" Rusk of the Agricultural Department. They are these:

(1.) Two steps are necessary to the formation of rain: the transparent aqueous vapor in the air must be condensed into clouds, and the material of the clouds must agglomerate into raindrops.

(2.) The aqueous vapor of the air cannot be condensed into clouds except by *cooling*.

(3.) The cooling may come in two ways —by the meeting of two currents of air of different temperatures, or the rising from the earth of a mass of air warmed by the sun and moistened by evaporation, to cool up above by expansion.

The Professor then goes on to point out that an explosion of a bomb or of dynamite simply pushes aside or compresses the air in all directions for a very short distance. The air, being elastic, when the explosion is over, resumes rapidly its original condition. "A thousand detonations," says the wretched man, "can produce no more effect upon air or upon the watery vapor in it than a thousand rebounds of a small boy's rubber ball would produce upon a stone wall." The stories of rain following battles he dismisses with a smile. Even if true, he declares they are of no consequence. Nature, he intimates, does not care a cent for artillery, and will not alter her processes for all the great guns on earth. Such is "so-called science," as taught in colleges by professors who owe their bread and butter to the Republican party!

Prof. Newcomb asks one cruel question, which Gen. Dyrenforth might well answer by saying it was "none of his business" —that is, what were the clouds doing during the many hours which elapsed between the General's explosions and the appearance of the rain? They were nowhere in sight when the explosions took place. Therefore they must either have been formed right over the General's head, in defiance of physical laws, or else have heard the noise some hundreds of miles away, and come hurrying to the scene.

The whole episode, to be serious, illustrates the way in which politicians among us have separated themselves from the world of science and literature, and of their cool indifference towards the great triumphs of the human mind. Men of Gen. Dyrenforth's standing in Germany or France would never survive the shame of these ridiculous experiments. On this subject Prof. Newcomb closes with the following weighty remarks:

"How much the indisposition of our Government to secure expert scientific evidence may cost it, is strikingly shown by a recent example. It expended several million dollars on a tunnel and water-works for the city of Washington, and then abandoned the whole work. Had the project been submitted to a commission of geologists, the fact that the rock-bed under the District of Columbia would not stand the continued action of water would have been immediately reported, and all the money expended would have been saved. The fact is, that there is very little to excite popular interest in the advance of exact science. Investigators are generally quiet, unimpressive men, rather diffident, and wholly wanting in the art of interesting the public in their work. It is safe to say that neither Lavoisier, Galvani, Ohm, Regnault, nor Maxwell could have gotten the smallest appropriation through Congress to help make discoveries which are now the pride of our century. They all dealt in facts and conclusions quite devoid of that grandeur which renders so captivating the project of attacking the rains in their aerial stronghold with dynamite bombs."

THE ENGLISH LIBERALS AND HOME RULE.

LONDON, September, 1891.

Now that the end of the present Parliament is coming into view, English politicians are beginning to take stock, if I may use the expression, of the contents of their respective party programmes, and in particular of the various branches of what we call the Irish Question and the influence it is likely to have on the general election. As regards that question the process of stock-taking is no easy one, for its position is peculiar and perplexing, and upon it experienced men may be heard to express very different opinions. Comparatively little has been said about Ireland lately in Parliament, for though the Irish Land Bill occupied a great part of last session, the discussions were extremely technical, were listened to by very few members, and excited scarcely any interest in the country. The debates on the Irish estimates were perfunctory, and the attendance of Irish members, through nearly the whole of the session, seldom exceeded one-third of their full strength. Nor have platform speakers on either side of politics made Ireland a prominent item in their harangues. Everybody seems tired of the subject. For two years or more there have been few collisions between the police and the people in Ireland, few evictions, comparatively few imprisonments of leading Nationalists. The Report of the Parnell Commission, unsatisfactory as it was, has been generally felt to have wound up and put into the background the old controversies about the stirring events of the years 1879–'85; and the visible change for the better in Mr. Balfour's attitude and methods, due to the knowledge he has at last begun to acquire of the country he undertook to govern, has relaxed the tension between the Irish and their English rulers. Even before the O'Shea divorce suit of last November, our politicians felt that all their arguments on both sides had been exhausted, and were beginning to turn to fresher topics.

The schism in the Nationalist party which followed Mr. Parnell's deposition threw a deep and ominous gloom over the cause of Home Rule. Even those Liberals who did not give up the cause as for the moment hopeless, thought that the less they said about it for some time to come, the better. The depression of that time has now passed away. Mr. Parnell is evidently beaten. The reappearance of Mr. Dillon and Mr. O'Brien and their declarations against him have given the *coup de grâce* to his pretensions to lead, though they have by no means destroyed the power he may exert to embarrass a Liberal Ministry. There is now no reason why the English advocates of Home Rule should not talk about it as freely as formerly on platforms and put it in the front of their programme. Formally they do recognize and adopt it, and all of the new members elected on the Liberal side are pledged to follow Mr. Gladstone on the question. Nevertheless, comparatively little is heard of it at bye-elections or on Liberal platforms anywhere—so little, indeed, that the friends of the present Government declare that it has been practically dropped. A few weeks ago Mr. Chamberlain pounced eagerly upon a leaflet issued by the Liberal central office, and wrote to the *Times* to insist that, since Home Rule was not mentioned in this leaflet, it must be considered to have been stricken out of the Gladstonian programme. It was at once answered that the omission was accidental, and, indeed, further answered that the leaflet did not profess to supply a complete programme for the Liberal party. However, the opponents of Home Rule, gladly believing that the Liberals have become cold towards it, are bestirring themselves both to insist that it has been dropped because it has been thought unattractive, and also to fasten it as a millstone round the neck of their adversaries.

What amount of truth is there in this contention of the Ministerialists? This much: most of the recent elections have been fought and won upon other issues than those relating to Ireland. Although the Liberal candidate has always declared himself a Home-Ruler, the interest of the voters has obviously lain in quite other matters, and Irish affairs have played a small part in determining their decision. The horizon of an English agricultural laborer is still a narrow one. He has never known much or cared much about Ireland, and he cares as little now as he did in 1886. In urban or semi-urban districts, such as Hartlepool and Eccles (to take two constituencies lately reconquered for Mr. Gladstone), the electors are much more intelligent, and capable of having opinions about the relative merits of Mr. Balfour and Home Rule. But it may be doubted whether, even among the city artisans or the miners, the question excites much feeling in the absence of those striking incidents which, like evictions or the imprisonment of popular men, appeal directly to the emotions. The fact is that the English masses have never been deeply stirred by the Irish question either way, though, in districts where cheap Irish labor came into the market, there used to be a certain amount of race feeling against the Irish workman. As this feeling gave such strength as it had to the Anti-Home-Rule party among workingmen, so the strength of the Home Rule cry lay in the belief that English reforms were being delayed by Irish discontent, and that it might be better to leave the Irish alone to settle their own affairs. Neither of these feelings is at present strong.

There is, as has been said, a lassitude among the leading politicians on the subject, and a corresponding absence of interest on the part of the followers. Ireland is not filling men's minds and mouths as it did in 1881–'82, and again in 1885–'86. Both sides have delivered all the artillery of their arguments; and the Liberals in particular, feeling that nothing they can say will make much difference till a general election arrives, have been glad to leave the subject alone.

But it would be a fatal error to suppose that this lassitude or indifference means the disappearance of the question, or even its relegation to a subordinate place. The next general election must, after all, be mainly fought upon the issue of Home Rule, and the decision of the country between Lord Salisbury and Mr. Gladstone will be a decision between the policies of repression and self-government. There is no other political issue which so sharply divides the two parties. The present Tory Government may justly claim that it has passed not a few measures hitherto associated with Liberalism, and that it is prepared to pass many others, since Home Rule is the only proposal (except, of course, proposals looking to Church Disestablishment) against which the Government is decisively pledged, and it is the only proposal which draws a dividing line that the electors can understand. The Liberal leaders are, moreover, far too deeply pledged to their programme of 1886 to recede from it now. No one suspects Mr. Gladstone of any wish to do so. He said in 1886 that he had given the rest of his life to the solution of this one problem, and he has consistently refrained from grappling with any other. He is sometimes blamed for caring too little about new questions. Every one knows that his whole enthusiasm is still given to this one enterprise, and that he would account it no less a defeat to drop it before the election than to be beaten upon it. Among the other men prominent in the Liberal party there are understood to be some less interested in the Home Rule schemes than he is, and less sanguine of successfully working them out. But the wish, should any such wish exist, to throw Ireland aside, would be at once checked by two considerations.

The first is that the Nationalist party will probably hold, in the next House of Commons, the balance of power. According to present calculations, Mr. Gladstone will have a majority over the Tories and Liberal-Unionists of from 40 to 80. As the Irish Nationalists (reckoning in both Mr. Parnell's little band and the larger section) will reach 80, and as they would of course oppose any English Ministry which did not offer Home Rule, a Liberal Ministry could not take or retain office except upon those terms. The other consideration is not less material. Although, as has been said, the rank and file of the English Liberal party are not deeply interested in Ireland, there are many among the local leaders as well as some active men in the House of Commons who care heartily for Mr. Gladstone's programme of 1886, and would refuse to follow any Liberal Minister who should recede from, or seem to be trifling with, the policy of self-government for Ireland. These are the men by whom the alliance between the Nationalists and English Liberalism will be maintained. Their energy and their conviction make them an important force. It is, therefore, safe to conclude that although there is an obvious contrast between the warmth and profusion of the speeches made about Home Rule in 1886–'87, and the references to the same subject now, the topic will spring into life when the dissolution of Parliament takes place, and will be the main issue which the voice of the electorate will decide.

Quite lately an announcement has been made by the present Government which may bring the subject into prominence even before the dissolution. Mr. Balfour is going to redeem a promise made five years ago, but latterly thought to have been dismissed as imprudent, by introducing next session a bill for creating in Ireland a system of representative local government similar to that given to England in 1888. Many of his followers, and of course among them most of his Irish followers, are displeased and alarmed at the prospect, foreseeing that whatever local bodies may be created will fall under the control of the Nationalist party. Mr. Balfour is endeavoring to explain how he proposes to avert, by various devices restricting the powers of the new bodies, the mischief to be feared from this cause; and he also consoles the "loyal minority" taxpayers by arguing that if Nationalist local councils misspend their local revenues, Nationalists will themselves suffer with the rest. This is cold comfort; and it is not surprising that some Ministerialist organs should blame the Government for preferring the appearance of logical consistency to the real interests of the Irish Protestant landlords and merchants. When this local-government scheme comes to be discussed next session, it will virtually raise the whole question of Irish self-government. The Home-Rulers will obtain an opportunity of reiterating their favorite argument that it is absurd to think people will be satisfied by the creation of local bodies whose first impulse will be to quarrel with the bureaucracy of Dublin Castle, and will insist that if local government is to work well, the edifice must be crowned by a central representative body in accord with the popular will. The Government, if they care to persevere with their measure, will be able to push it through, for they have a highly cohesive majority; but the scheme (so far as its outlines are now known) will rather whet than allay the appetite of the Nationalists, and may contribute to bring into further prominence the project of an Irish Legislature. O. D.

THE FINANCIAL CONDITION OF ITALY.

ITALY, September 9, 1891.

THE remote causes of Italy's financial difficulties must be traced to her political and social revolution: to the fact of the sudden violent fusion of seven distinct provinces into one State under a central government endowed with absolute authority, and corresponding responsibility for every department of the political and economical life of the entire new nation. Some of the provinces were fairly flourishing—they at least vegetated like Tuscany, making ends meet; others were deplorably behind the age for several centuries in all the ordinary conditions of modern life, as were Sicily and the Neapolitan Continent, portions of the Romagna, and the Island of Sardinia. Piedmont, the prime mover in the work of unification, was heavily burdened with debt, owing to the costly and unsuccessful wars of 1848, the war of the Crimea, the wars of 1859. The state of the entire country as compared with to-day was similar to the state of England a couple of centuries ago. Bad roads, few railroads or telegraphs or ports and harbors of safety; next to no schools, as the first educational census, giving 17,000,000 of illiterate inhabitants in a population of 22,000,000, proved; charnel pits instead of cemeteries; no fleet, next to no army, etc., etc. The post-offices of Italy were an abomination: Sir Anthony Panizzi several times wrote from Turin that even there life was a burden, owing to the disorderly condition of the post-office; and so on to the end of the chapter.

Well, all this has changed during the last twenty years. Life in Italy, as the veriest grumbler English born and bred must confess, is orderly, comfortable, and regulated on modern principles. Naturally all this has cost treasures of money which the nation did not possess, and which at various times it borrowed. The bill has come in; the present generation and several future ones have to pay it, capital and interest, in sound cash. This is the general history, and now to particulars.

It is asserted that Cavour was a master of finance. This may be. Events compelled him to spend and borrow; death passed on the legacy of debt to his successors, who, whatever other talents they may have possessed, can none of them be styled masters of finance. All "lived by the day," "from hand to mouth," by the emission of treasury bonds, by the sale or mortgage of State property; later, by the sale or mortgage of the confiscated ecclesiastical property; by loans at high interest. From 1861 to 1865 the budget, never presented in time, was always voted "provisionally"; a bill of indemnity was granted for the ever-succeeding deficits, which during these years amounted to $400,000,000, and to meet which the Governments had contracted loans to the amount of $500,000,000, besides selling the State railways, mortgaging vast lands belonging to the nation, and greatly increasing general taxation. Public expenditure had increased from $162,000,000 to $214,000,000 per annum (public works figuring for a large amount in the sum total), and the announcement of the transfer of the capital from Turin to Florence enormously increased that expenditure. At the commencement of 1866, the consolidated 5 per cents had fallen from 65 to 43; hence no new loan was possible and the coffers were empty. The interest on the foreign debt stood at $18,000,000 in 1866. In that year the state of credit throughout Europe was bad, and especially so for the poorest country. Her public securities, largely held in France, returned to her already overburdened market. The banks were heavily drawn upon, and, in spite of great precaution, they saw their gold and silver drained away. The Sardinian and Tuscan banks imported specie and were assisted by the Rothschilds, while the smaller banks quaked for their very existence. In this state of things the Prussian alliance had been concluded and war against Austria was declared. In the enthusiasm of the moment the entire nation forgot every other consideration save that of freeing Venice and uniting her to Italy. The Chamber of Deputies gave the Government plenipotentiary powers, and the Minister of Finance, the Neapolitan Scialoja, presented to the King for signature a decree for the suspension of specie payment.

The measure has been severely criticised as precipitate and unnecessary. We have only to deal with the consequences shown at once by the rate of foreign exchange, the price of consols, the premium on gold in Italy. The variation in all these items was singularly large. The paper circulation, beginning with $50,000,000, increased to $310,000,000 between 1866 and 1876. When it was shown how vastly the paper currency exceeded the metallic circulation in 1872, when it stood as three to two, a hue and cry was raised for the immediate passage of a law prohibiting its increase,

and for the study of the best method for the return to specie payment. The law limiting the increase of paper was passed in 1874, and the public, from that time until the return to specie payment became an accomplished fact, clamored for the abolition of the forced paper currency.

The business relations between the State and the banks of issue complicated the question. Before the Union, each province had its own bank, whose circulation was almost exclusively local. An attempt was made to form a National Bank of the Sardinian and Tuscan, but the others, declining to be suppressed, lived on, overpowered by the Italian National Bank, as the Sardinian was now named. Up to 1866 no bank could issue notes save in the proportion of two to three uncovered by a coin reserve. When the specie payment was suspended, the Government borrowed from the Italian National $100,000,000, authorizing this bank to issue notes at will. The shares went up enormously; shareholders became millionaires. The circulation of the bank's own legal-tender notes reached, at the end of 1868, $99,000,000. Between 1866 and 1873 the State had borrowed $176,000,000, and the bank's legal tender and the State inconvertible notes passed as current coin throughout the land. Hence the hue and cry against the banking monopoly. In the Chambers the list of the shareholders was demanded but refused by the Government. The inquiry proving that the system ruined the other banks, it was decided that the National Italian, the National Tuscan, the Neapolitan, the Sicilian, and the Tuscan Bank of Credit should form a Confederation (*Consorzio*). The old notes issued by the National Bank were cancelled, and new ones to the amount of $450,000,000 issued, bearing the inscription "Biglietto Consorziale a corso forzoso ed incontrovertibile, Aprile 30, 1874," signed by a delegate of the Government and by the delegate of the Confederation. Each of the six banks was authorized to issue legal-tender notes on its own account to the amount of two-thirds of its paid-up capital or funds proper, with the obligation, of course, to exchange them at sight for the inconvertible notes of the Confederation. To provide for the extraordinary demands of commerce which occur at certain seasons of the year, and for cases of exceptional stringency, the Government was empowered to authorize one or all the banks to enlarge their circulation for a period of three months—or longer for good reasons—to an amount equal to four times their capital, on condition of using the increase in the discount of bills.

Great was the public joy when in 1883 the final return to specie payment was proclaimed. So high was the credit of the country that there was no pressing demand for gold. For a time it seemed that a golden age had opened for Italy, but the country and even the Minister of Finance seemed to forget that the loans contracted abroad in gold, in gold must be repaid. The building mania set in, and the banks exceeded their limits and lent on mortgage *ad libitum*, but the crisis soon arrived, and the banks found that, even if they foreclosed, the unfinished houses would not cover the loans. On examination it was discovered that all the banks of issue had largely exceeded their legal allowance, which is a little over a billion, secured by one-third of the amount in specie. The half-billion to which the excess amounts is not so secured. The late Ministry prohibited all increase, but did not summarily order the poorer banks to provide specie or to liquidate. The present Ministry has suggested a trial of an association between the six banks. The *riscontrato*, as it is called, binds each bank to exchange the notes of the others according to the amount which each holds, answering for the excess. The attempt so far succeeds perfectly for all home transactions. The Government offices, the post-office, the tax-gatherers receive with equal indifference the notes of the National Italian, the Tuscan, Roman, Sicilian, Neapolitan; nor in paying out do we perceive any difference. As to the blame cast on the present Government for the trial of the *riscontrato*, seeing that the prosperous banks were willing to give a helping hand to their weaker brethren, I cannot see the justice of the criticisms. It is all very well to say, Let the weaker banks go to the wall, but no responsible Government will do this until every effort to save them has been exhausted. The conduct of the Bank of England in saving the Baring Brothers was everywhere applauded, not because the Government or the country had any special tenderness for the Barings, but because the step saved numbers of commercial houses and innocent investors, whose calamities would have brought about a general catastrophe.

The steps taken towards decentralization, very gradual and cautious ones, are in the right direction. It is a mistake to believe that local government and administrative freedom will lead to reckless outlay on the part of the emancipated provinces. Hitherto, either from sheer necessity or from a desire to keep pace with their neighbors, they have spent their all and run deeply into debt. The spendthrift son who in his minority borrows, saying, "Babbo paga" (The Governor will pay), alters his course when cut adrift, or when the "Governor's" death makes him alone responsible. So the several parts of Italy, hitherto authorized by the central Government to run into debt, have seen, when worst comes to worst, that the Parliament votes a sum to clear them off. But once the provincial and communal debts consolidated, and each province and commune made aware that henceforward they alone are responsible for their respective liabilities, now that the municipal and provincial councils are elected by all male citizens of twenty-one years of age, there will be a reaction against spendthrift administrators such as Italy has not yet seen. Of course no specific can be found for restoring Italian finance to an immediately prosperous state, but several hopeful items are overlooked by outsiders. Signor Bodio has shown that the income tax is unequally distributed, that 25 per cent. of the wealth of the country escapes taxation. This is being carefully verified. Again, heavily taxed as are the landed proprietors, the taxation is unequal, and, equalized, the tax on land would produce more than it does at present. In short, there is nothing desperate in the situation, though evil prophesies may bring themselves to fulfilment. Italian rentes to-day stand at 92.80; hence we say, remembering how they fell after the suspension of specie payments, if things are bad, they have been much worse, and the present generation *must* bear the pecuniary burdens which the possession of a free country entails.

The millions spent by Italy during the last twenty years have not been wasted on luxury, or on embellishments unproductive and useless. Naples may be to a certain extent reproached in this sense, but even there the largest outlays have been made in substituting the pure, abundant waters of the Serino for the insufficient supply of fetid, filthy, fever and cholera-breeding waters. The communes have spent largely on schools; cemeteries are all obliged by law to be built a certain distance from the city; other sanitary arrangements have made great and steady progress. High roads and railroads, in which Italy thirty years ago was strikingly deficient, have multiplied beyond all credence. Since 1881, the country has spent $300,000,000 which, as they are covered by the issue of railway obligations, form a constant accession of debt. At first the post-offices cost the country enormously. From 2,666 they have risen to 4,358, to say nothing of the collecting boxes, and last year the excess of receipts over expenditure amounted to $973,268. The post-office service is, in my opinion, far more perfect than the English; the postage on newspapers is less than a farthing, and so on all circulars sent open; the parcel post is delightful. Money post cards are equally convenient; you buy a post card for 1 penny, and pay the sum you wish to send up to six francs. Post-office orders for any amount are paid on the instant. The postal savings banks are far better managed than in England, as even in small towns you rarely wait more than a day for the money you require to be paid down. City traffic, as far as omnibuses and trains are concerned, is easy, cheap, and comfortable. In short, Italy in thirty years has done as much for the order, comfort, and decorum of her citizens, and for visitors, as other European nations have done in a hundred. Her poorer classes are miserable enough, but they are better paid, better clothed, and better fed than they were thirty years ago; and if they emigrate in ever-increasing numbers, it is because, in the good old days, they were resigned to their misery, and now they are determined to better their own condition if they can, and at any rate to put their children in a condition to do so.

The present Minister of the Treasury, when he had no hope of taking office, stated that the debts of Italy stood thus:

Public debt	$2,600,000,000
Provincial debt	34,400,000
Communal debt	176,600,000
On mortgage private debt	1,551,800,000

Calculating at 5 per cent., and deducting the 18 per cent. levied upon income, the above total seems to involve a yearly payment of some $200,000,000. Another statement: Out of every hundred dollars spent by Italy, thirty-three go to pay the interest on her several debts, thirty-three for the maintenance of her army and navy; the remaining thirty-four are divided among her other needs. Clearly she must pay her interest and cannot get further into debt. And note that this was what Magliani, her Financial Minister for ten "halcyon" years, told the Chambers in his last financial speech. Showing the deficit in 1887 to stand at $15,000,000, he proposed various methods of covering it; declining to meet the demands for special credits for army, navy, and railways, unless allowed to impose fresh taxes. The proposal was rejected, and Magliani resigned. His duties were then divided between a Minister of Finance and a Minister of the Treasury. The ministers who entered on these duties also proposed taxes, which being refused, they also resigned. The Crispi Ministry came nominally to an end on the proposal to increase the tax on alcohol. The Rudini-Nicotera-Luzzatti Ministry still cling to their programme of economy to the bone and no extra taxation. Let us suppose that they resign in despair; what then? General elections, and a Cabinet which will assuredly *not* bind itself to make bricks without straw and mortar into the bargain—to secure equilibrium in expenditure and income without increasing the latter. One thing is certain: if fresh taxes are laid on, they will be paid up, as all taxes are paid.

J. W. M.

THE FAMILY OF CHALLANT.

ITALY, September 10, 1891.

AGAIN that play of Giacosa, "La Dame de Challant," is mentioned in the Italian newspapers. This time it is definitely announced that the first representation will be given in New York early in November, with Madame Sara Bernhardt in the title rôle. A previous representation at Cincinnati is to count only as a general rehearsal. For a year now the public in Italy has been from time to time reminded of this coming play. We first heard that such a work had been written, but that Italy was to know nothing of it until it had first been produced in America; then that scenes, or the whole play, had been read by the author before select audiences in Turin and elsewhere, crowned, of course, with the enthusiasm which an unpaying public never refuses in return for its invitation. It looked as if a reputation were being carefully "manipulated"; but if the play is really to be brought out so soon in New York, we can wait to know its value.

Up to the present I have been unable to learn anything of the subject, but the Lady of Challant is a title that piques curiosity. No doubt that many a traveller who has stopped at Châtillon before making the ascent of Mont Cervin—or of the Matterhorn, if he prefers to call it by that name—has, in gazing eastward across the extremely lovely landscape commanded by that village, noticed twin peaks rising above St. Vincent. These are called on the maps, one, Bec Torché, and the other variously, if I mistake not, Bec de Frudière, Mont Neri, and Marienhorn; but among the country people thereabout they are known as *les Dames de Challant*. They look down upon a high mountain valley, stretching along behind the range of which they form a part, where may be seen the ruins of a castle, the cradle (or the *Stammschloss*, as the better German expression has it) of the Counts of Challant, the great family that for hundreds of years overshadowed every other in the Valley of Aosta, from the old Roman city itself down to the imposing fortress of Bard. In another part of the valley there is a second château of this family, that of Graines, to which is attached the tradition that a Count of Challant in those early days laid upon his vassals as a *corvée* to cover with earth the snowy slopes of the Bec Torché, lest the glare therefrom should injure the complexion of the ladies of the castle.

Both ruins show that the buildings were never anything more than the fastnesses of a rude age. As the Counts of Challant increased in wealth and power, they found these habitations too bleak for any but a brief summer residence, as well as too far removed from the centre of their interests. They built one castle after another in the main valley of Aosta, until the chain of them became so complete that signals could be exchanged between them all the way down from the slopes of Mont Blanc to Pont St. Martin. Among these there are some noble examples of mediæval architecture. Verrès is a model of beauty as a fortress castle, while, in the valley beneath it, is that gem of fifteenth-century domestic architecture, half château, half manoir, Issogne, still habitable, refurnished from the spoils of other castles and the shops of dealers in antiquities, and where Giacosa is said to have written his really charming volume, 'Paesi e Novelle Valdostani.'

Here, too, he might have found, whether he did or not, a motive for his "Dame de Challant." In 1520, Count René of that family went on an embassy for the Duke Charles III. of Savoy to the Marquis of Monferrato, and at Casale married the widow of Messer Ermes Visconti of Milan. The lady soon found the solitude of Issogne intolerable, especially as cares of state frequently called her husband away from her. She took advantage of his absences to escape to Pavia, where she had a palace, and where she led a life that was, to say the least, dissolute. She had two lovers to whom she gave herself alternately; only when she went from one to the other she was always taken with so vehement a hatred of his predecessor that she was ever urging his assassination upon the favorite of the moment. Both, turn and turn about, were deaf to her entreaties, but at last she found a third lover who murdered for her one of the former two. The lady was, however, arrested, proved guilty of having instigated the deed, and was beheaded in the demi-lune of the castle of Milan. These events form the subject of one of the *novelle* of Bandello.

René afterwards married a lady of the house of Braganza, by whom he had two daughters. The elder, Filiberta, was betrothed to a nephew of Cardinal Madruzzo, Prince of Trent and Governor of Milan. On the eve of the wedding, however, the young lady eloped with a groom. Her mother is said to have died of grief, but the young Madruzzo was finally married to the second sister, Isabella, and inherited the name and titles as well as the goods of Count René de Challant.

It was with René as with the heroine of the fairy tale: at his christening he received every gift of fortune, but the spiteful unbidden fairy came and willed that a strong dose of sorrow should be mingled with every cup of joy. The curse worked after his death as powerfully as before. He died in 1565. His magnificent fortress-castle of Verrès then lapsed to the house of Savoy, while the fiefs bequeathed by him to his son-in-law, Gianfederico Madruzzo, were disputed by other members of the family during more than a century and a quarter. In 1696 they all—including even the castle and barony of Aymavilles, given to Gianfederico during the lifetime of René—returned to the real family of Challant, in the person of Antoine Gaspard, baron of Fénis. The expenses of litigation had, however, so impoverished Antoine Gaspard that his son was obliged in 1716 to sell the castle of Fénis, a richer and more beautiful example of mediæval architecture than even Issogne. It was still of great beauty when I saw it, though fast going to utter ruin under the hands of the peasant inhabiting it. It has since been bought by a member of the Milanese family of Visconti. Aymavilles, a little way off from the road between Aosta and Courmayeur, remained in the family until its final extinction in 1804, but was meanwhile the occasion of a miserable quarrel between brothers, as a result of which it changed ownership after having been despoiled of its treasures of art and antique furniture.

In 1802 another branch of the family came to an end in the castle of Châtillon. Thus at an interval of two years disappeared the last representatives of a race that for 800 years had been foremost in the valley, and that, next to the house of Savoy, had contributed most to its glory. In the eleventh and twelfth centuries they ruled here as viscounts for the Counts of Savoy, who had enough to do in looking after their possessions on the other side of the Alps. They received the title of Counts of Challant in 1416, at the same time that the title of Duke was bestowed upon their suzerain. During their long eminence, or, let us say, until the death of René in 1565, the family furnished a goodly number of men distinguished in the history of their country as generals, as statesmen, and prelates. They had the gift not only of gaining but of extending and strengthening their position. They understood the advantage to this end of alliances by marriage. We have seen that those of René, in spite of their lustre, could not have added to his consideration any more than to his happiness. Other and earlier alliances were more fortunate. In the thirteenth century, one Godefroy de Challant married a Fieschi, by whom he became nephew both to the Doge of Genoa and to Pope Innocent IV., and was "gratified" by the one with the governorship of Genoa, by the other with the title of Roman Senator. (His arms may be seen in the château of Issogne, accompanied by the initials S. P. Q. R.) By another alliance, fortunately not concluded, Châtillon was near becoming a province of England. Humbert III. of Savoy, seeking to increase his strength against Barbarossa, thought to marry his daughter Agnes to the son of Henry II., John Lackland, and to give her in dowry certain lands in Savoy and Piedmont, and with them Châtillon, with the rights inherent in the viscounty of the valley. The negotiations did not succeed, and Agnes was married to a Count of the Genevaise, a district of Savoy, but the attempt was to the advantage of the family of Challant, which was soon after invested with the fief of Châtillon.

I dare not vouch for this story, for I have it from the same authority who assures me that Ébal, surnamed the Great, of Challant, was the mainstay of Amédée V. of Savoy in a successful defence of Rhodes for the Knights of St. John, from which expedition, it is said, date the present arms of Savoy, the silver cross upon a red shield. Other authorities pronounce the story a fable, which is of less consequence to the story of Amédée, which is well enough known, than to that of Ébal, who was one of the greatest figures in the line of Challant, but of whose greatness the records are of the scantiest.

The most authentic, the most obvious testimony to the grandeur of this family is the series of at least a dozen châteaux scattered along the valley of Aosta, so that the traveller is scarcely ever out of sight of one or two of them. (From a point near Châtillon, indeed, three can be seen at once.) They range from the savage fastness of Villa Challant to the palatial splendor of Issogne, giving an admirable picture of the progress of civilization in the Middle Ages, from its beginnings to its culmination. As to what it was at the latter point, two frescoes at Issogne give piquant evidence. One represents sixteen coats of arms of the family of Challant, with the titles, dignities, etc., of the persons to whom they belonged. Underneath is the proud and noble inscription: "Miroir pour les Enfants de Challant." The other is over the throne in the great hall of justice, and depicts—the Judgment of Paris!

The inscriptions here are all in French. In fact, the valley of Aosta—the first acquisition south of the Alps of the house of Savoy, when that house was still French and ruler of Burgundy—is now the sole parcel remaining to them of their possessions of that time, but it did not become Italian with its masters. The names of places, the language of the people, and, in spite of the energetic work of Italianization carried on in these last years, that of the pulpit and of public documents, are all French. Mr. Freeman finds that the mediæval architecture of Aosta is Burgundian and not at all Italian; so it is, though the general

architecture of the valley is of that frontier kind that seems French if you approach it from Italy, and Italian if you come from France. A few years later, and these records in stone will be the only visible testimony of a time when this was as a corner of France that had somehow found its way over the Alps.

"Chercher midi à quatorze heures" is not ordinarily thought a mark of intelligence, and yet it should be no reproach in the Valley of Aosta, where the church bells ring for noon at eleven o'clock. You are told in explanation that, in the beginning of February, 1536, Calvin came to spread his reform in the valley, and that he did not scruple to incite the people to revolution in order to ally themselves with the Protestant cantons of Switzerland. Thereupon the Bishop of Aosta and Count René de Challant, Marshal of Savoy, Governor and Grand Bailli of the Duchy, convened the States-General to take means to ward off the peril. The measures taken were so menacing to Calvin, kept informed of what went on in the council chamber, that the preacher of predestination showed a clean pair of heels to the enemy—*i. e.*, fled precipitately on the morning of the 8th of March; and when the bells rang at eleven for the assembly, and it was found that there was no longer a schismatic to combat, it was decreed that henceforth they should ever ring at that hour instead of at noon. I do not know whether this counsel should or should not be counted among the fortunate doings of René de Challant. S. K.

Correspondence.

ETIQUETTE AT THE WHITE HOUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Republican simplicity" is doubtless a good thing in its way; but are there not limits beyond which even so unobjectionable a thing may not be carried without a breach of good taste? In view of my experience at a reception given by the President of the United States at the White House, on Thursday afternoon last, to the members of the Medical Congress lately in session in Washington, I am disposed to give a decidedly affirmative answer to this question.

Entering the north door of the White House in company with a well-known New York physician, I was somewhat surprised to find that the official who opened the door for us was dressed not in livery, but in ordinary every-day costume. He admitted us, however, with some show of ceremony, and we entered the historic White House—only to observe standing in the hallway, and evidently on duty, two of as slouchily dressed policemen as one could meet in a day's walk through any of the worst-governed of our large cities.

Recovering presently from the slight shock which these first experiences of White House ways had caused us, we were duly presented to the President, and, after a short time spent in inspecting the portraits and other objects of interest in the several reception rooms and parlors, we turned our steps to the door through which we had entered. This time there were several ununiformed officials about it, and, as we approached, one of them deliberately (or perhaps without deliberation) raised his foot and *kicked the door open* so that we might pass out. Comment seems unnecessary. I regret to say that there were in attendance upon the Medical Congress and at the President's reception a number of distinguished physicians from Europe. Let us hope that they are too charitable to remark our shortcomings. Probably they have been educated to expect nothing better of us. S. T.

Baltimore, September 27, 1891.

GOOD ROADS, NOT HARD ROADS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have given us the benefit of some valuable suggestions on the subject of good roads. Permit a suggestion on the other side, assuming that you mean a hard road like the Telford pavement to be a standard. Riding is simply impossible even on a macadamized road—that is, the horse is ruined and the rider tortured. As to Belgian blocks, one might as well attempt riding on newly frozen ice. Driving is little better if for pleasure. The perfection of a pleasure road is a dirt road, without a stone, and this reasonably dry; turf for riding, of course, but with us this is unknown, saving in the few places where hunting is practised and farmers do not object to strangers galloping over their fields.

One word may be deemed of value. An omnibus driver in London told me that the only pavement on which a horse could stand up was the macadam. On all the others the horses were down every few minutes in rainy weather. The strapping of the driver to the coach bore witness to this peril. R. C. M.

Philadelphia.

ESPRIT D'ESCALIER ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If your discussion of *l'esprit d'escalier* be not wholly at an end, here is something that bears upon it, and indeed I should think might settle it. I have just been reading Emmanuel Arène's account of President Carnot's late visit to Corsica. When the President arrived at Bocognano, two of the daughters of Bellacoscia, one of the famous bandit brothers who have been in revolt against the authorities for forty years, sought an interview with him to ask their father's pardon. Emmanuel Arène was the intermediary. Julie, the younger, who, it seems, is young and good-looking and not unconscious of her attractions, was to do the talking. But at the critical moment she became confused, had hardly anything to say, and was led away. "On the staircase only," the writer continues—"for even in the *maquis* is found *l'esprit d'escalier*—she said to me in a tone of reproach: 'You took me away just at the instant when I was going to speak up'" (*Dans l'escalier seulement—même au maquis on trouve l'esprit de l'escalier—elle me dit d'un ton de reproche: Vous m'avez fait partir au moment où j'allais parler*).

Emmanuel Arène is deputy from Corsica, one of the best known of French literary men and journalists; and this account appeared originally in the *Figaro*. I don't see how anything could well be more French.

Very truly yours,
William Henry Bishop.

Nice, September 14, 1891.

ESCAPE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As to *escape* in the sense of escaped person or thing, it may be added that Stedman ('Poets of America,' p. 316) attributes to Lowell the following:

> "All of thee but thyself I grasp;
> I seem to fold thy luring shape,
> And vague air to my bosom clasp,
> Thou lithe, perpetual *Escape!*"

My edition of Lowell does not seem to contain this. Where is it?—Yours,

H. M. Whitney.

Beloit College, September 19, 1891.

Notes.

Estes & Lauriat's fall list includes three works elaborately illustrated with photogravures, namely, Bulwer Lytton's 'Last Days of Pompeii' and 'Rienzi,' and 'The Lily of the Arno,' a book about Florence, by Virginia W. Johnson.

Ginn & Co. begin directly the publication of an International Modern Language Series, edited by Profs. F. Bôcher of Harvard and Alphonse N. Van Dell of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. It will be in three divisions—university, intermediate, and elementary; the first, in charge of Prof. Bôcher, embracing Montaigne's 'De l'Institution des Enfans,' from the text of 1580; Molière's 'Le Misanthrope'; and Racine's 'Andromaque,' text of 1697. As yet there is but a single announcement in German.

Mr. Edward Eggleston's story 'The Faith Doctor,' which has been running in the *Century*, is now ready to appear in book form with the imprint of the Messrs. Appleton.

Rufus C. Hartranft has in press 'Was Abraham Lincoln a Spiritualist?' by Mrs. Nettie Colburn Maynard.

Longmans, Green & Co. will issue a volume of poems by the historian Lecky.

A 'History of Printing,' left unfinished by the late William Blades, and intended for the "Book Lovers' Library," has been edited by Talbot B. Reed and will be published by Elliot Stock with illustrations.

The third and concluding part of the 'American Catalogue, 1884-1890,' which consists of the subject-alphabet, has made its appearance from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*, No. 330 Pearl Street. Like its two predecessors, this periodic record has been achieved by much disinterested and ill-requited labor. It is an inestimable boon to the sellers and buyers of books.

The sixth annual issue of 'Poor's Directory of Railway Officials, etc.' (H. V. & H. W. Poor), is a fresh surprise in respect to the amount of information compactly conveyed. For the personnel of our railway system it is simply invaluable, and it comprehends street railways as well as steam, has a chapter on the roads of Mexico, Central and South America, an index to all the officials named in the steam division of the United States, and more than thirty pages of news concerning lines projected and under construction—a novel feature of no little importance.

It is some thirteen years since we reviewed the first volume, in English, of Prof. Pasquale Villari's 'Life and Times of Machiavelli.' In the meantime, as we have duly noticed, the great work has been completed and become classic. The English translation, by the author's wife, was, however, imperfect for the latter half of the Italian publication, omitting two chapters and all the justificatory documents. One of these chapters, bearing on the times rather than on the life of a statesman apparently insensible to æsthetic considerations, dealt with the state of the fine arts; another, and the more important, exhibited the critics of Machiavelli, both contemporary and posthumous, both monarchs and historians. These chapters are numbered ix. of Book I., and v. of Book II., in the two handsome volumes just issued by Charles Scribner's Sons. The hitherto omitted documents are found

here, and all the illustrations, and the text has been revised by the author and translator. The new edition is, therefore, emphatically the one to procure, especially for public libraries.

The third edition of Prof. Mahaffy's 'History of Classical Greek Literature,' revised and enlarged (Macmillan & Co.), follows the first by an interval of eleven years. The work has lost nothing of its readableness and interest, and, as may be inferred, has been superseded by no rival. The two volumes are handy and very comely.

The second volume of the new six-volume edition of Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan) concludes the Classical Dialogues, and adds the Dialogues of Sovereigns and Statesmen, the last of which is between Bishop Shipley and Benjamin Franklin over the American war. The editor, Mr. C. G. Crump, makes a slight error in assigning the probable date of this conversation to "the year 1775, *soon after the Declaration of Independence.*" The year cited is the only possible one, since it was that of Franklin's return to this country, and the dialogue implies a leave-taking at the ship's side; but the Declaration was yet afar off. This edition is as beautiful as it is inexpensive.

The recent revival of interest in South America may be partly responsible for the reprint of Charles Waterton's classical 'Wanderings in South America' (T. Nelson & Sons). The author's three journeys, in 1812 and later, to the Guianas and Brazil, and his travels to Buffalo, in 1824, in the hope of hunting the bison which he expected to find disporting on the shores of Lake Erie, certainly have an interest of their own, even when this is almost purely antiquarian.

'I Migliori Libri Italiani' is the title of a catalogue of the best Italian books, which has just been issued by Hoepli in Milan. As the choice is based upon the opinions of a hundred of the most eminent Italian scholars, the list may doubtless be accepted as a good guide to Italian literature.

'Joseph Mazzini und die Italienische Einheit,' by Adolf Friedrich Graf von Schack (Stuttgart: Cotta), is a volume consisting chiefly of personal reminiscences and impressions, and forms an interesting supplement to the author's recently published 'Memoirs.' The work shows what an immense power Mazzini possessed of exciting enthusiasm in all persons with whom he came in contact, even when they had no part or lot in his political aspirations and achievements. It is an eloquent and just vindication of the character and career of the great organizer of revolutions, and of the means employed for the accomplishment of his patriotic purposes. The work is also of additional interest as a proof of the enduring intellectual vigor and unconquerable energy of Count von Schack, who, in the seventy-seventh year of his age and totally blind, exhibits a freshness and versatility of literary activity worthy of his manhood's prime.

When Michael Servetus was burned at the stake in Geneva, on October 22, 1553, his principal theological work, and the immediate cause of his martyrdom, 'Christianismi Restitutio,' suffered the same fate; and with such fiery zeal did the hangman perform his office that the book became so exceedingly rare as to acquire great value in the eyes of bibliophiles. This treatise, which, like Calvin's 'Institutio Christianæ Religionis,' was published anonymously, and doubtless intended as a refutation of the stern Genevan's system of divinity, has now been translated for the first time into German by Dr. Bernhard Spiers, under the title 'Michael Servet's Wiederherstellung des Christenthums.' The first volume is already in press (Wiesbaden: Limbarth), and will contain Servetus's views of the doctrine of the Trinity, which were those of a rather conservative Unitarian of the present day, and would now be regarded as sufficiently orthodox. We may add that 'Christianismi Restitutio' contains a remarkable passage referring to the movement of the blood through the arteries and veins, showing that this learned and keenly observant physician knew something of the circulation of the blood nearly a century before William Harvey's 'De Motu Cordis et Sanguinis' was printed.

The historic "Hasty Pudding Club" of Harvard College, which will complete its centennial in 1895, has just issued its Eleventh Catalogue of Officers and Members (Cambridge, Mass.: Charles H. Thurston), the first one having appeared in 1829. This catalogue also contains a slight historical sketch of the Club, and much interesting information about it. Nearly 3,700 names, of whom some 2,400 survive, are on the membership rolls; and it speaks well for their quality that four presidents of the University, ten of other colleges, eighty overseers, fifteen fellows, eleven deans, two treasurers, seven librarians, and eighty-two professors of the University, seven United States Cabinet officers, eight Senators, eighteen foreign ministers, five governors of States, ten Federal and twenty-five State judges, and forty-one members of Congress were undergraduate participants in the "Pudding's" forensic or histrionic gatherings. This list of notables is increased by a distinguished body of honorary members, many of whom had attained dignity before election. George Bancroft, Edward Everett, John G. Palfrey, Oliver Wendell Holmes, James Freeman Clarke, Benjamin R. Curtis, William H. Furness, and James Russell Lowell were among the Club's secretaries whose recorded writings remain in its archives. The Club's histrionic renascence dates from the year 1845.

Advocates of the higher education of women who have doubted the friendliness of the Johns Hopkins University towards female candidates for its post-graduate privileges, should take heart of grace from the fact that Miss Florence Bascom (a daughter of the ex President of Wisconsin University) will enter the University at the beginning of the current year as a student in the department of geology, giving special attention to petrography. While enjoying "all the privileges of the University," she will "not be a candidate for a degree." In this respect the attitude of the great institution which thus graciously opens its side-door to a woman is reassuring to the noble army of the cautious.

In the *Revue Bleue* for September 12, M. Michel Bréal has a brief note recording the excellent effect of a recent reform in the Paris "collèges de jeunes filles," by which single forenoon sessions are substituted for morning and afternoon, with a Thursday holiday. Teachers and pupils have alike been stimulated, and parents are pleased to have more of their daughters' society, while more leisure is obtained for household duties, for drawing and music. The Collège Sévigné has set the example, which the Government is likely to imitate in the case of the Lycée Racine. We may add that at one of our women's colleges at least (Smith) there are no afternoon recitations.

In *Das Magazin für Litteratur* of September 5, an account is given by Karl Theodor Gaedertz of what he calls "Ein kleiner Goethefund." He was the discoverer, some years ago, of Goethe's unpublished verses to Rosine Städel, and that successful result of rummaging among the manuscripts in the Royal Library at Berlin led him to further researches in the same archives. Among the literary remains of the collector, Von Meusebach, he found eight letters and notes by Goethe. Two of these—to Von Kleist and Schopenhauer—were known and printed by Hoffmann thirty years since, though the former does not figure in the catalogue of the Goethe-Ausstellung of 1861. Six are entirely new, though they have but slight interest beyond that which attaches to anything connected with the poet's personality. The first, dated November 26, 1801, and also the second, undated, are friendly notes to Von Voigt, Minister of State, referring to various educational and literary projects the two were working together to further. The third is to the Orientalist and bibliophile Friedrich von Diez, questioning about authors and persons who could be of use to Goethe in writing the poems afterwards collected in the 'Westöstlicher Divan'; it bears date, February 22, 1815. The next letter is a mere note to go with a presentation copy of the second volume of his 'Italienische Reise,' and is addressed, October 22, 1816, to a certain Herr von Witzleben. The fifth is to an unknown correspondent, and relates to Goethe's interest in meteorology, and the last is similarly connected with his scientific enthusiasms, being a note to the mineralogist Eichhorn, under date January 19, 1818.

The executive council of the Burns Federation will publish a yearly chronicle, of which the first number is promised for the beginning of next year. It is to contain an account of the measures taken after the poet's death to make provision for his family, a description and list of the monuments erected to his memory, and other matter; so that, altogether, it will be a valuable addition to Burns literature.

The author of 'Forty Years in a Moorland Parish,' Dr. Atkinson, owes to that delightful work perhaps more than to others of permanent historical and linguistic value the conference on him of a York canonry by the Archbishop of York, which is now made public.

The Philadelphia *American Notes and Queries* has just been taking the suffrages of the press of this country as to the prevailing pronunciation of "advertisement." The result is given in detail in its issues of September 12 and 19. It is a very mixed vote, geographically, and the editors abandoned the attempt to indicate sectional usage, nor did they (what was easier) try to check the numerical majority by weight of authority. The usage is almost evenly divided between accenting the antepenult and the penult—230 for the former, 250 for the latter.

The ninth edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' is concluded with Parts 31, 32 (Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann). As usual, have been kept to the last those portions of the earth's surface still under exploration or liable to political changes, as Africa, Asia Minor, the Balkan Peninsula. There is yet a small chance for European "influence" to be established in Africa, but only in an enclave, for the coast has been occupied without a break. The new German and the adjoining British East Africa is depicted in a side-map on an enlarged scale. Mt. Kilimandjaro is on the line, but is wholly given up to Germany. For the first time this standard work, whose authority and beauty of execution need not be insisted on, is provided with an alphabetic index of names, certainly the most extensive ever made for a work of this kind. It fills all but 200 pages of fine print in seven columns. This

enormous addition to the usefulness of the Atlas will, of course, never hereafter be abandoned. The English explanations at the head of the "Namensverzeichnis" leave something to be desired in point of idiom.

The "hereafter" of atlases and encyclopædias in Germany begins directly upon the close of an edition. Hence we receive from Westermann & Co. a sample of the forthcoming fourteenth issue of 'Brockhaus's Konversations-Lexikon,' in sixteen volumes. The importance of this announcement lies in the fact that, by the time of completion, this famous work, begun in 1796, will have attained its hundredth year, and celebrated a jubilee hitherto vouchsafed only to the 'Britannica' among voluminous cyclopædias. Its features are too well known to need recapitulation.

The September Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is wholly devoted to a paper upon "Ptolemy's Topography of Eastern Equatorial Africa," by Henry Schlichter, and the discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Society. The chief point of general interest made was that Ruwenzori, the snow-covered range discovered by Stanley in his last expedition, is the Mountains of the Moon. The discussion was participated in by Lieut. Stairs, one of Stanley's officers, Mr. Clements Markham, and the well-known cartographer, Mr. Ravenstein. The last strongly opposed the methods by which the author reached some of his conclusions.

"F." writes to us from Amherst: "Your correspondent 'X.' says: 'The American use of gotten . . . is harder to explain.' But he goes far to explain it when he says 'it is heard among persons who are careful in their language.' These 'careful' people are unwilling to use the shorter form, because as usually spoken it has a vulgar sound from associations suggested by the famous etymology of the family name Guthrie. I think that is all there is to it."

—The five serials of one sort and another now running in *Harper's* demand the greater part of the magazine's space, and there is little in the October number, outside of them, to call for comment. Miss Woolson's paper on "Cairo in 1890" dwells upon the changes wrought of late in the city, and is pleasantly discursive about many things Egyptian. The rise of interest in art studies in this city is clearly shown in the account of "The Art Students' League." Mr. Davis's short story has a good deal of melodrama about it, but is original and vigorous. The instalment of letters from Dickens to Collins goes far towards bearing out the assertion of the London *Truth*, that Collins, in his life-time, turned over to Forster all that he had of Dickens's worth printing.

—Mr. Kennan makes a good point, in his Russian paper in the October *Century*, by showing that the cataloguing and description of the archæological treasures of the museum at Minusinsk came from the hands of political exiles, thus refuting the assertion of the Government that it banished only "half-educated schoolboys," etc. Mr. H. S. Maxim writes of aerial navigation (or "aviation"), and his solution of the problem coincides with Prof. Langley's. The machine on which this eminent inventor is at work will ere long put his views to the test. The title of Lieut. H. R. Lemly's article, "Who Was El Dorado?" will itself be a revelation to many who have always associated the name with a region, not a man. The origin of the myth is discussed in an interesting way, with many curious illustrations taken from the archæological collections of a Colombian, Señor Ruiz. The article comes in very well with the general attention now given to American origins. In the Italian Old Masters series, Mr. Cole gives us a wonderfully good reproduction of a portrait by Lorenzo di Credi. The story of the Ute massacre of 1879 is told by Lieut.-Col. Sumner, and characteristically illustrated by Frederic Remington. Mr. Gosse writes of Rudyard Kipling, and Mrs. Pennell of a curious form of jousting in Provence, the "Water Tournament."

—The right of the Corso in Rome to be numbered among the "Great Streets of the World" is admitted by Mr. W. W. Story, who writes of it in the October *Scribner*, to rest almost entirely upon associations with the past. Impressive neither in its proportions nor in its architectural features, possessing but few of the treasure-houses of art which constitute so large a part of the city's modern distinction, it still remains the most famous street of Rome, on account of its pedigree, dating back, as it does, to the Flaminian Way of which it once formed a part, and of the countless spectacles of historic significance which it has seen, from the Roman triumphs to the modern processions of Popes and sovereigns. The article on "Hunting American Big Game" reminds us how the possibility of such writing is rapidly disappearing, as the account dates itself ten years ago. Major Powell gives the geological explanation of the "New Lake in the Desert," and natural science is further exemplified in "The Biography of the Oyster." Edwin C. Martin writes of "Carlyle's Politics" in the larger sense of that word, and maintains the thesis that "Carlyle had no hope of getting trade and industry conducted on other general rules than those of supply and demand, and purchase in the cheapest and sale in the dearest market; and he had no desire to employ the hand of Government in all the small affairs of individual life." Confessing that "this, indeed, he nowhere gave himself the pains of explicitly saying," Mr. Martin goes on to "gather it, as one runs, by implication," though he does not meet with much success in subduing the refractory material to the desired interpretation.

—The literary problem which Emily Dickinson presents is partly solved and partly made more complex by the letters of hers printed by Mr. T. W. Higginson in the October *Atlantic*, and by the slight information about her which he gives along with them. They show that her prose expression was of a piece with her poetical, and so that her literary personality was single and sincere, but they leave us almost as much in the dark as ever in regard to the sources of her strange endowment. But they are of remarkable interest in any case, and reveal her as an Emersonian several shades more concise and oracular than Emerson. The note they give to the number is sustained by "The Ascetic Ideal," another of those papers, by Harriet W. Preston and Louise Dodge, in which ancient times are made to live again—the personalities and the age chosen this time being Jerome and some of the elect Roman ladies with whom he was intimate, in the days of oncoming celibate and cenobitic life—and by Henry F. Randolph's "In London with Doctor Swift," an article which dwells on the softer side of the cynic's nature. The writer on Gen. Thomas thinks that soldier did not have the recognition he deserved, either during the war or after it, and rather fancifully appeals to Virginia to rank him with her other sons, Lee and Jackson. Biography is further represented by articles on Sir John Macdonald and Ignatius von Döllinger. Other papers which we must leave unmentioned help to make a number that, more than ever this month, by force of contrast, shows how faithful the magazine is to its old and worthy traditions.

—In the *Nation* of November 13, 1890, we reviewed with the highest praise Miss Garnett's 'The Women of Turkey and their Folk-Lore: The Christian Women,' and have now to mention briefly with equal approval the concluding volume on the 'Jewish and Moslem Women' (London: David Nutt). In the former notice we said that Miss Garnett gave a very encouraging account of the Christian women of Turkey and the advance they had recently made in education, and added, "If the next volume shows any similar advance on the part of the Semitic and Moslem women, we need not despair of the future of the country." Such a corresponding advance does not seem to have been made, nor does it appear so necessary if what Miss Garnett tells us of the Osmanli women is true. The traditional notion of the Turk in his family relations receives a severe blow in the present work, and a multitude of gross errors constantly cropping out in the books of superficial travellers are here corrected. The work inspires a hopeful view of the various races of the empire, and shows that the Turk himself possesses many qualities which should entitle him to the respect and sympathy of his Christian neighbor. The present volume does not contain quite so much folk-lore as the previous one, but otherwise it is more important and interesting. Mr. Stuart-Glennie contributes a note on "Moslem and Christian Marriage Laws," and three concluding chapters on the "Origins of Matriarchy," in which he makes use of the marriage folk-lore of the two volumes to support his view that human sexual intercourse was not originally promiscuous—a theory usually deduced from the prevalence of Maternal Filiation. This is not the place to discuss Mr. Stuart-Glennie's views on this topic or on the origin of folk-lore in general; they do not add much to the value of Miss Garnett's work, which, we repeat, is worthy of the highest praise.

—The bronze lion of the Piazzetta of Venice was the subject of an interesting communication made by M. Casati to the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres at its session of July 24. The lion has been recently taken down in order to make some indispensable repairs, and the antiquaries and the photographers have had a fair chance at it. No one knows with absolute certainty either its age or its origin. Some have thought it Assyrian, some Etruscan, some mediæval, but there is a complete lack of documentary evidence, printed or in manuscript, to throw any sure light upon its history. M. Casati believes it to be Etruscan, and he laid before the Academy its photograph, together with those of two well-known Etruscan monuments—the chimæra which is in the Florence Museum, and the winged griffin which is now at Leyden. These last statues bear, one on its flank and the other on its paw, the difficult and doubtful word *Tins-cvil*, which has been interpreted by Hebraists as *draco*, *capra*, *leo*. Gori, the Italian scholar, renders it by *pronus ad vindictam;* while M. Casati thinks that it means "*ex voto* to Jupiter." Whatever its meaning, the two statues on which it is found are beyond any doubt Etruscan, and they have the same artistic character as the lion of Venice. M. Casati has before this

pointed out that it is the Etruscans who have left us the finest early works in bronze, and notably statues of animals of colossal size.

—In a recent number of the *Revue Bleue*, M. Raoul Rosières asks and answers the question, "Why is Lamartine no longer read?" with something almost like ferocity. To begin with, he says, Lamartine's early (and only) success was an accident: his poems, appearing just at the beginning of the Romantic revolt, not only kept to the classic model and even improved upon it, but breathed forth such decorous conservatism and devoutness that the clerical party and Louis XVIII., "who yearned for a Racine to adorn his reign," welcomed his advent with enthusiasm. But his patrons were soon swept away, and with them a market for his wares, and the rest of his life became a desperate struggle for popular approval, which he for ever posed as disdaining. Till his death "un homme d'avant 1820," he was not only a man of superficial education, but of such perverted literary taste as to prefer Ossian to Dante, and a stanza of Byron to the whole of Molière, La Fontaine, and Béranger. Devoid of originality, he borrowed prodigally —from Chateaubriand, from J. J. Rousseau, from Pope, from Bernardin de St. Pierre, and from a half-dozen others, from each of whom he would snap up a maxim or an epigram

"and make it his own
By repeating it o'er in a Sibylline tone."

His life was unreal in its fantastic austerity and self-delusion, and hence his depiction of life was unsubstantial. His future power to please rests alone in his smooth and sonorous verse, which, always over-written, is at times even faulty in rhyme and grammar; for, left behind by accident in "the century of ideas," as he seemed to be, he was able to do nothing better there than "change into gold pieces the sum that his predecessors had scattered about in big coppers, without adding a centime to its total." But was this alchemy despicable?

—The many friends and former pupils of Dr. Franz Friedrich Ernst Brünnow will learn with regret of this distinguished astronomer's death, which occurred at Heidelberg, Germany, on August 20. Dr. Brünnow was born at Berlin on November 18, 1821, and entered the University of that city in 1839, devoting himself to mathematics, physics, astronomy, and kindred branches of study, and taking the degree of doctor of philosophy in 1843. In the spring of 1847 he was appointed director of the observatory at Bilk, near Düsseldorf, where his observations won for him in the following year the gold medal of the Royal Academy of Brussels. In 1851 he was made first assistant at the Berlin Observatory under Encke, where he remained till 1854, when he was called to Ann Arbor as director of the newly established observatory and as Professor of Astronomy in the University of Michigan. In 1866 he removed to Dublin as Professor of Astronomy in Trinity College, director of the observatory at Dunsink, and Astronomer Royal of Ireland. Ill-health, resulting in weakened eyesight, compelled him to resign these positions in 1873; since then he has resided in Basle (1874–'80), Vevey (1880–'88), Oxford (1888–'89), and lastly in Heidelberg until the time of his decease. Besides his doctoral dissertation, 'De Attractione Moleculari' (1843), and the treatise on Vico's comet, for which the gold medal of the Belgian Academy was awarded him in 1848, Dr. Brünnow has published an elaborate work on 'Spherical Astronomy,' 'Tables of Victoria' (1859), 'Tables of Iris' (1869), and 'Dunsink Observations' (1870 and 1873). His 'Spherical Astronomy' appeared originally in German, while he was professor at Ann Arbor, but he himself immediately prepared an English edition of it, and Russian, French, Italian, and two Spanish translations were also published. Dr. Brünnow was a quiet, modest scholar and a charmingly sincere and simple-hearted man. He married Rebecca Lloyd Tappan, only daughter of the well-known Chancellor of the University of Michigan. Their only son, Dr. Rudolph Brünnow, is now Professor Ordinarius of Oriental Languages at the University of Heidelberg. He has edited several Arabic and Assyrian texts, and is the author of an excellent classified list of all simple and compound cuneiform ideographs occurring in the texts hitherto published, with their Assyro-Babylonian equivalents and phonetic values (Leyden: Brill, 1888–'89).

SLANG DICTIONARIES.

Slang and Its Analogues Past and Present. Compiled and edited by John S. Farmer. Vol. II. C–Fizzle. London. Printed for subscribers only. 1891.

A Dictionary of Slang, Jargon, and Cant. Compiled and edited by Albert Barrère and Charles G. Leland. Two volumes. Printed for subscribers only at the Ballantyne Press.

THE increasing interest that continues to be paid to language, not for what it conveys but for what it is in itself, finds no more marked manifestation than in the rapid multiplication of special dictionaries. There is scarcely any art, any science, any department of human endeavor that does not have its lexicon, in which is carefully explained everything that is distinctive in its own terminology or peculiar in the significations of the common words it employs. The speech that is not known at all to literature, and lives only in the mouths of uneducated men, is coming more and more to be carefully and fully recorded. But dictionaries of the various kinds just indicated are after all of limited interest. They appeal at best to a class comparatively small. A subject of much more general concern is denoted by the title at the head of this article.

In a previous number of this journal we have spoken at some length of the first volume of a projected work, the second volume of which is now before us. It includes the letters of the alphabet from C to nearly the middle of F. This second volume can be fairly said to be superior to its predecessor. It labors, it is true, under many of the defects that characterized the plan of that attempt as well as the method of carrying it out. Still, labor and earnestness and zeal will always produce results of value, even if other and more important qualities are lacking; and the compiler can feel confident that his work will always need to be consulted by the student of the subject, even if it cannot be deemed in any sense a final authority.

The other work before us, entitled 'A Dictionary of Slang, Jargon, and Cant,' is already completed. Everything has been done to make its two volumes attractive to the eye. The paper is beautiful, the print is beautiful, the binding is beautiful. If the external appearance of a book could only be regarded as sufficient evidence of the goodness of its contents, or as a satisfactory substitute for their unsatisfactoriness, the present work would leave little to be desired. Unfortunately for it, a prejudice exists in favor of completeness and accuracy of information in any production that assumes the title of a dictionary. Otherwise, indeed, there is no sufficient reason for its having been brought into existence at all. With every disposition to judge the present work with the fullest charity, it must be said that it is very poorly done. It is not so much a dictionary as a heterogeneous collection of notes on words and phrases. These have been thrown together without order and examination, and in many cases evidently with no attempt whatever at a verification of the statements that are made.

A dictionary of French 'Argot and Slang,' compiled some time ago by Barrère, who is really responsible for the present work, did not arouse any glowing anticipations as to what would be accomplished in any production of the sort in which he was the one principally concerned. But the results of his labors as here exemplified are far worse than any previous efforts could have led the least sanguine to expect. Not that it is necessary to deny that there is much that is interesting in these two volumes, much that is valuable. But they are marked throughout by defects of the gravest character. These exist in the statement of the matter contained in them as well as in the matter itself. The work comprises a great deal of which our own ignorance does not permit us to express either a favorable or unfavorable opinion. But it also contains a great deal upon which a very definite opinion can easily be pronounced; nor does it require an excessive amount of knowledge on the part of any one to discover the ignorance displayed in its compilation.

This may seem harsh criticism, but the evidence to be presented will show that it partakes rather of the nature of understatement than of overstatement. Even when the compiler apparently comprehends the subject upon which he sets out to enlighten us, he manages to convey his information in a way to mislead the reader. This is done partly by the failure to make the slightest use of typographical aids. Different meanings of the same word are often joined together in the same sentence as if they expressed the same sense. Sometimes they are separated from each other only by a comma. Not unfrequently, again, there is no distinction made between two words which happen to have precisely the same form though they may be absolutely distinct in signification and origin. For illustration, *gad* appears first as a gypsy word with the meaning of "shirt." Without the slightest break there follows at once in the same paragraph "upon the gad," with the definition of "upon the sudden," and marked as "popular." There is everything in the way these meanings appear, to give the reader the impression that they are in some way connected, and that *gad* is the same term in both. He who should accept this natural view would find, however, the transition of meaning a peculiarly difficult problem to solve.

Even a more significant illustration of the reckless way in which the information contained in the work has been pitchforked together is afforded by the treatment given to the word *mess*. Most dictionaries of any size contain an expression in which a peculiar usage of that term appears. "To lose the number of one's mess" is defined in them as a nautical phrase meaning "to die." It is in the following way that this dictionary records the usage: "*Mess* (army and navy), to lose the number of one's mess, to die." It seems clear enough that the compiler knew after a fashion what he wanted to say. It is absolutely certain that he did not know how

to say it. Dictionaries, it is not to be forgotten, are not made for the people who are already informed, but for those who are seeking information. The only reasonable interpretation that could possibly suggest itself to one who was entirely ignorant of this particular phrase is, that *mess* is a verb which in the army and navy bears the meanings here ascribed to it, and that in consequence it means "to die."

As if this were not enough, the dictionary sometimes enters one word and proceeds to give a definition of its various meanings, but in the process of doing this another word, related to it, is defined instead. Thus *white-boy* is put down as a term of endearment, in use in the seventeenth century, for a favorite child. Then, without any notification of a difference of meaning, it is declared to have been assumed by Irishmen during the agrarian outburst early in the present century. A mistake of about fifty years in the statement of this fact is not perhaps a matter of much consequence. But the next sentence of the paragraph passes at once to the further definition of the term as an Americanism with the sense of "disinterested," "white-souled." An illustrative quotation follows, taken from one of Besant's novels, though without mentioning the name of that author. From it we discover that the last signification belongs not to the noun *white boy*, but to the adjective *white*, which has received no mention at all.

This confused jumble is in no way peculiar to the information contained in the examples just cited. Column after column could be filled with similar illustrations, in which there seems no reason to doubt that the compiler knows himself the facts which he finds it impossible to communicate to others in an intelligent manner. These are things, however, that concern only the way in which the matter has been worked up. Far greater fault can be found with the matter itself. Errors both of omission and of commission exist. Of the former of these, the lack of illustrative quotations is one of the most signal. They are often badly needed in this work, where the explanations given are often of the kind that do not explain. Their comparative infrequency might under ordinary circumstances be defended on the ground of want of room. The manifestation, however, of an insatiable desire to occupy a great amount of space with discussing everything else than the real subject has forestalled any apology of that sort. Entries connected with the stage are the ones in which this disposition manifests itself most conspicuously. Under *super* there are two columns given up to a glowing panegyric upon the merits of "these humble but valuable auxiliaries of the theatre," as they are styled. Under *pross*, "to sponge," there is a good deal of miscellaneous information imparted as to the extent to which the practice is carried on. Under *gag* there are more than two columns of anecdotes in which happy instances of the successful way in which gagging has been done are held up to admiration. Under *orders* two columns also are taken up with a denunciation of the system of seeking and obtaining free admission to places of entertainment. But while this method of filling the pages of this dictionary is most protracted in the case of theatrical terms, it is by no means confined to them. We learn from the present work that *clod-crushers* is an epithet used by Americans "to describe the large feet which they believe to be the characteristic of English women as compared with those of their own country." The term is new to us, but M. Barrère cruelly adds of his own accord that it is "an opinion shared by other foreign critics as well." It is clear that observations of the same general character must also have been made in France, but the compiler comes gallantly to the defence of the women of his adopted country. He gives up, indeed, the feet of those of the poorer classes: the enormity of their size seems to be something which he feels it is hopeless to defend. But English ladies of fashion, he tells us, can compare favorably in this respect "with any of the dainty, neat-ankled, light-tripping ones of New York or Paris." At any rate, he assures us, they can walk greater distances. Who, after this, will say that a dictionary is not entertaining?

It is the Americanisms, real or imputed, that will furnish to Americans the most convincing as well as the most amusing tests of the accuracy displayed in this compilation. We are all more or less familiar with the extraordinary words and phrases going under that name which are to be found in English books and periodicals. But in this dictionary there are many peculiar pieces of information, some of which deserve a far wider circulation than can be given by a work which has been printed for subscribers only. We find under *hogs* that it is "a term sometimes applied in jest to the inhabitants of Chicago." There is a possibility that something may have been met with somewhere to suggest such a limitation of this general term of abuse; but in the instance now to be given nothing but an innate capacity for misunderstanding and misapplying the sense of what has been read can be held responsible for the meaning that is put down. The slang theatrical word *hamfatter* is fairly familiar to the readers of the New York journals. It is a contemptuous designation for actors of the grade of negro minstrels. The simple word itself does not appear in this dictionary; but the phrase *dude hamfatters* is given. To make a special entry of such a combination is of course ridiculous, but it deserves full pardon for the sake of the explanation furnished of its use and origin. It is defined as "a sarcastic allusion to the swell and masher pork-raisers." To make the reference still more precise and pointed, it is significantly added that "a large number are located not a hundred miles from Chicago." The authority for all this is a newspaper paragraph containing the two words. It is probably the only instance where they ever appeared together in print. There needs but a single glance at the sentence in which they occur, to see that there is in it the plainest sort of a reference not to Western pork-raisers, but to New York actors.

Chicago is not alone, however, in the distinction of furnishing striking illustrations of Americanisms of this sort. Boston comes in for her share. No one who was familiar with an event comparatively so recent as the Beecher trial is likely to forget the circulation given by it to the phrase "to step down and out," or to be unaware of the origin of "true inwardness." The former appears in this work somewhat enlarged as "step down and step out," and with the curiously inadequate meaning of "an intimation to cease, or a hint that a man has the worst of it." On the other hand, the phrase "true inwardness" is not defined at all—a not unfrequent occurrence in this collection—but instead a philosophical explanation is given of its origin. "It has always been the fashion in Boston," so runs the statement, "to affect a kind of transcendental metaphysical language, and 'the *true inwardness*' of anything is a term probably derived by some Carlyleist from the German *innerlichkeit*."

These things will hurt only local pride; but patriotism generally will suffer a shock at the statement made under *two-eighteener*. It is irritating in the home of the trotting-horse, in the land where it has received its development and attained its glory, to find this term appearing as the designation of "a man or woman of the fastest kind, the allusion being to the highest record in trotting matches, about two minutes eighteen seconds being the fastest time for a mile." *Two-forty* could have been endured, for that actually did long remain as the limit of highest achievement on the part of the trotter. But at two-eighteen it never stayed long enough to make the expression popular. Now that hundreds of trotters have gone over the mile in less than that time, now that for four or five years the record has been under two-nine, such a definition as has just been quoted rises almost to the dignity of an international insult. It may not be sufficiently aggravated to make the eagle scream defiance, but it is at least enough to justify the horse in snorting it.

It is, however, in the political terms that the most misleading explanations occur. In these terms America has been fertile. Many of them are exceedingly expressive, and some of them are in addition highly picturesque and likely never to die out. The inadequacy of most of the definitions found here is more marked than their occasional incorrectness. Take, for instance, the term *slate-smasher*. Every American knows that the slate is an expression that belongs strictly to the proceedings of the nominating conventions of a party, though its usage has now been widely extended. "To smash the slate" is primarily to nominate some other persons than those fixed upon by the party-managers, or by those who have supposed themselves in control. But, in this dictionary, *slate-smasher* is defined as "a President or leading statesman who will not attend to the nominations or recommendations of a party." There is the same sort of misleading explanation of several other words, as, for instance, *ward-heelers*. In other instances, the statements are so extraordinary that it is almost impossible not to believe that there must be some evidence upon which they are founded. Accordingly there are times when we are uncertain whether it is our own ignorance or that of the compiler which is at fault. We find here, for illustration, an expression entirely new to us. "Playing the sovereign" is put down as an Americanism, with this commentary: "Office-seekers," it is asserted, "who, shortly before an election, put on shabby clothes, drink whiskey, and shake hands with everybody and make themselves generally agreeable to all of inferior social position, whom it is to their interest to conciliate, are said to be *playing the sovereign*, the object being to secure their good graces and obtain their votes." There may be places in the United States where this phrase is used. There may be places where the practice here described prevails. But certainly no surer method could ordinarily be taken by any man in any American community to deprive himself of the chance of being elected to any office he was seeking.

With one illustration of the carelessness displayed in dealing with the facts contained in the work, we leave the far from exhausted field of errors in Americanisms. *Short-hairs* and *silk stockings* are said to be "the names of two branches of the Democratic party in the Western States." We need not discuss the limitation of the terms to one party or to one region of the country, or bother ourselves with the asserted date of its origin. It is sufficient to observe that the expressions are

declared here to characterize the members of two Democratic factions, and that the work in which these statements occur was published in the second year of the term of office of a Republican President. We are then in a position to appreciate the value of the further information vouchsafed that "the *short-hairs* appear to be discontented with the Administration, while the *silk stockings* approve of it."

Let it not be supposed that there is anything peculiar in the way Americanisms are treated. Other subjects fare full as badly. We are told, for instance, that "Shakspere uses *lush* with the meaning of 'luxury.'" This signification has hitherto failed to be recorded in any dictionary whatever. There is justification for the statement to the extent of the fact that the word does occur once in the poet's works. On that occasion it is an epithet applied to grass, and there is so much of the sense of luxury in its signification that it can properly be rendered "luxuriant." Still, one would hardly expect a lexicographer capable of making the assertion quoted to devote himself with success to Shaksperian exegesis. The experiment, however, has been tried, and can be found fully displayed under the noun *marrow* in the sense of "mate," "fellow-workman." "The word," we are told, "is used by Shakspere in a phrase hitherto unexplained by his numerous critics and commentators. Mark Antony, speaking of the assassination of Cæsar, says that he was 'marr'd' with traitors—*i. e.*, likened with traitors—as if he himself had been a traitor." This choice specimen of interpretation apparently owes its existence to the lack of any acquaintance with the use of *with* in the sense of "by." It need not, however, occasion surprise to find ignorance exhibited of common literary usage when so much ignorance is displayed of cant phrases which the work sets out specifically to explain. No reader of the lighter literature of the reign of Queen Anne can have failed to notice the frequent mention of "laced coffee"—that is, coffee to which spirits have been added. Here it is defined as "sugared."

It is useless in our limited space to attempt to furnish more examples of errors of definition. Yet mistaken as they often, and ridiculous as they sometimes are, they are entitled to high praise in comparison with the etymologies. In the latter, conjecture fairly runs rampant, and, so far from paying heed to truth, usually pays none to probability, and we are almost inclined to add possibility. The difficulties in the way need not be denied. To ascertain the etymology of slang words and phrases is undoubtedly much the hardest feat of the kind that can be attempted in linguistic investigation. The expressions seem frequently to spring out of the earth, and in such a way as to give no hint from what portion of it they proceed. In the case of those which come down from the past it is very rare that the historic conditions are known under which any particular word or phrase first came into being. Without such knowledge, guesses as to origin partake of even much more than the usual untrustworthiness that belongs to most linguistic guesses. As an illustration of the difficulties attending the derivation of words of this class, let us take the case of *mob*. In this instance, both the time and place when the term came into existence are familiar to all students of language. It is strictly a specimen of pedantic slang. We can trace it in its original full form of *mobile vulgus*, "the fickle common people," through *mobile*, showing the noun dropped, to *mob* with the final syllables of the first word discarded. We can discover the disgust inspired by this abbreviation in the comments of Addison and Swift, who take care to let us know that it is the introduction of such terms as these that corrupts and ruins a language. But suppose we had not this knowledge of the history of the word, how vainly would human ingenuity be tasked to find an explanation of its origin that would have the least semblance of probability. Yet such a state of ignorance is the position we occupy towards the vast majority of slang words and phrases.

Lack of knowledge has not, however, acted here as a restraint upon conjecture, but rather as a spur to it. The etymologies in this work are in truth the most pretentious part of it as well as the most absurd. Crude methods long ago discarded by any one who had the slightest acquaintance with linguistic science are the only ones here followed. Stories are recounted to explain the origin of popular phrases, and, as in some instances of this ancient mythical device, such as *sir-ree*, they actually mean nothing and could never have originated anything, it seems hard to find any other reason for their introduction than the desire to fill up space. Indeed, it is not easy to speak with proper moderation of the manner in which paragraph after paragraph of this dictionary is taken up with matter which it would be flattery to call twaddle. Of course Celtomania is prevalent. It is not, therefore, surprising to find quoted as an authority the one etymologist of our times who in his beliefs and methods belongs to the ninth century, but somehow got landed in the nineteenth. Under the phrase "hell and tommy," Dr. Mackay is cited as an authority for the origin of this grotesque expression. It probably means, he tells us, "to reduce a man to extreme destitution, or to bread and water, and, if so, an etymon may be found in the Keltic *ol*, drink, and *tomadh* (*toma*), a lump of bread." For the benefit of those, apparently, who may not take kindly to this view, the same phrase is entered under another letter of the alphabet, and a still different derivation suggested.

We are, however, under no necessity of going to any outside sources for similar illustrations. A new gift of tongues seems to have fallen upon the compilers of this work, and while reading it we are constantly reminded of the text which tells us of the Parthians and Medes and Elamites and the dwellers in Mesopotamia and in Judæa and Cappadocia and Pontus and Asia. All languages are laid under contribution from furthest regions in space to furthest ages in time. *Hant* or *haunt*, with the sense of "ghost," in American local usage, "is possibly the Malay word *hant*, an evil spirit." In *mill*, "to fight," we are sent to the Aryan root *mar*. Dutch plays a far from ignoble part in these linguistic excursions into the unknowable. Still it is to the speech of the gypsies and to the Yiddish—which seems to be German-Hebrew—that a very large proportion of these words and phrases have their origin attributed. *Mash* must have been derived from the Gypsy *mash* (*masher-ava*), "to allure, to entice." This is confirmed by Mr. Palmer, who knows the very family of actors and actresses of Romany stock with whom the term originated. But while the speech of the gypsies has its etymological charms, it is on the whole the fascinations of the Yiddish that are the most enduring and potent. That dialect is always peeping in, even where it does not venture to enter. Under *high faluting* we are informed that "it is very remarkable that there exists in Yiddish the word *hifelufelem*, meaning extravagant language or nonsense." *Callithumpian* "is possibly from the Yiddish *calle*, a bride." It consequently "means bride-thumping, or making a noise at a bridal." In the discussion of *make* in the phrase "on the make," it is found necessary to point out "its resemblance to the Yiddish *makir*, one who knows, who is intelligent in anything." There is nothing, indeed, that this dictionary shrinks from in the way of suggestion or supposition. It is so hopeless to give an adequate conception of the scale upon which these appear that we shall make no further attempt to illustrate its general characteristics than is involved in citing its remarks on the derivation of *shebang*, "a shanty." "No one," it is said, "has ever explained the origin of this term, but it may be noted that there are exactly seven board surfaces in a shanty, the four upright sides, the two sides of the roof, and the floor, and that the word *shebang*, in Hebrew, means seven."

It has been a matter of necessity to take up most of our space in speaking of the defects of this work. They are so obtrusive that they constantly force themselves upon the attention. They are so pervasive that they extend to the minutest details of definition or of derivation. Furthermore, much contained in it has no right to be included even under the wide-embracing title which it has received. There are, for instance, a large number of gypsy terms entered, it is hard to see for what reason. There would have been just as much propriety in introducing whatever is peculiar in the speech of the French of Lower Canada, or even words from the Hindustani itself. The work, indeed, can never be safely resorted to by him who is unacquainted with the matter with which it deals. He can never have the assurance that the information he derives from it is to be trusted. For all that, this dictionary will have its uses. While it is often inaccurate or misleading, it contains much that will be of service to him who knows how to distinguish the true from the false, the adequate from the inadequate.

RECENT FICTION.

In the Heart of the Storm. By Maxwell Grey. D. Appleton & Co.

At Fault. By Kate Chopin. St. Louis: Nixon-Jones Printing Co.

At an Old Château. By Katharine S. Macquoid. Harper & Brothers.

The Robber Count.—Fifty Years, Three Months, Two Days. By Julius Wolff. Translated by W. Henry and Elizabeth R. Winslow. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Which Wins? By Mary H. Ford. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

Khaled. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

In Low Relief. By Morley Roberts. D. Appleton & Co.

There Is No Devil. By Maurus Jokai. Translated from the Hungarian by F. Steinitz. Cassell Publishing Co.

Otto the Knight, and Other Trans-Mississippi Stories. By Octave Thanet. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Uncle of an Angel, and Other Stories. By Thomas A. Janvier. Harper & Brothers.

The Philadelphian. By Louis John Jennings, M.P. Harper & Brothers. 1891.

A Question of Love: A story of Switzerland. Translated by Annie R. Ramsey from the French of T. Combe. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1891.

Amaryllis. By Georgios Drosines. [The Unknown Library.] Cassell Publishing Co.

MAXWELL GREY'S third novel is in some respects the best of them all. The story has no less hold than the others upon the interest, and the thrilling pictures of India during the siege of Lucknow and the horrors of the mutiny are better than anything we have had before as background. The country folk, as of yore, are entirely delightful, and it has seemed to us that there is a slight abridgment in landscape—say, a mile omitted from every previous thousand. But on this point it may be that custom has dulled perception, and we speak under correction for exaggeration. What the author has had it at heart to show is the harm that a man can do a woman without drawing her into positive guilt. This has been done with no shrinking hand and in no hackneyed strain. On the contrary, the shrinking and hackneyed views of the world on this subject are held up for scorn in language which would be more powerful if less profuse, and in situations which are often despoiled of their strength by this writer's fatal fondness for fine writing. The final removal of the compromised but innocent Jessie is too like the fifth act of the French drama for a book aiming, as this one does, at renovation of social standards. However, her restoration to her love must be taken as a courageous innovation, and her rehabilitation in society may follow when the English-writing public shall have ceased to tremble before titled society.

It is not quite clear who is cast for the title-rôle in 'At Fault,' since all the characters have valid pretensions to the part. There is the lady who drinks and the gentleman who gets a divorce from her, the widow who loves and is beloved by him, but who persuades him to remarry his divorced partner and bring her to the Louisiana plantation, where she (the widow) may have a fostering care of the two and help them do their duty to each other. There is also the young lady of many engagements, the negro who commits arson, the young gentleman who shoots him, the Colonel who shoots the young gentleman, the St. Louis lady who goes to matinées and runs off with the matinée-going gentleman. It may not be amiss, in deciding who is "At Fault," to consider as well the claims of the author, the publisher, and the reader. The reverse side to all this is a graphic description of life on a cotton plantation, an aptitude for seizing dialects of whites and blacks alike, no little skill in perceiving and defining character, and a touch which shows that the array of disagreeables was born rather of literary crudity than of want of refinement.

'At an Old Château' is a mild and gentle little novel which reads singularly like a translation. The course of true love plays at not running smooth, chaperons and guardians scowl, faithful servitors save, noble rivals renounce, the written consent of the dead is brought to light, chaperons and guardians sing, dance, and show their delight, sugar-plums are served, and upon the scene descends the more than usual calm of Marjorie Fleming.

'The Robber Count' is a story of the Hartz country in the time of Pope John XXII., and is a really delightful account of the squabbles of a Bishop, a beautiful Abbess, and the Robber Count. From their neighboring strongholds they all cast their eyes on whatsoever booty pleaseth them, whether a castle, a town, or it may be a fair maid, and straightway behave like Louis Napoleon when he

> "Looked into some lexicons
> And found the word Mexicans;
> Here's at 'em, says Louis Napoleon."

The stories of the onslaughts are all most entertainingly set forth, as are the characters of the wily Bishop, the passionate Abbess, the bold, loving Count. The captive princess and the doughty knights who fight for her are no conventional lay figures, but full of life and charm, and it is hard to say whether the god of war or the god of love be the most adorable divinity in this refreshing story. The translation is excellent, with the exception of an occasional tendency to such grammatical malformation as "thou defendeth" and "thou indulgeth." Indeed, the patient wayfarer through German novel-land half suspects the present translators of contributing to the attractiveness of this work by abridgment, and is grateful.

'Fifty Years, Three Months, Two Days,' by the same author and translators, is also a sprightly story, and deals with the dwellers in castles in the Neckar Valley during the year 1397. The plot hinges upon an old law which declared that if any one having attained the age set forth in the title should die a bachelor, his property must be surrendered to the State. To save the noble Hans von Steinach's property from such absorption, his relatives and neighbors brew many a pretty plot, and weave so many tangles as nearly to encompass their own undoing. The romantic atmosphere of the 'Robber Count' is here replaced by one more farcical and less unique in tone. Yet it is a readable tale.

'Which Wins?' is an indifferent story, but that matters the less in that it is in reality a pamphlet upon Socialism. It is a book for the moralist and economist to consider, rather than the reviewer of fiction. There is much that is stirring in the setting forth of the miseries of "the other half," and of aspirations towards making this a better world. If brokers' offices in the West are the sinks of iniquity they are here represented to be, and if all mortgages on Western farms are simply organized plunder, it should certainly be published abroad. In the author's opinion, the establishment of a people's party is the only chance of redress for these evils, and the only hope of giving wives a partnership in their husbands' property, or control over their own, of raising the laboring classes to the refinements of table-cloth and napkins, of abolishing syndicates and monopolies, and promoting the brotherhood of man. The Associated Charities of New York come in for a thrust, and of course all capitalists. Whatever may be thought of the cure, what is not exaggerated in this book, and can never be old, is the relation of the sufferings of the poor, the echo of the world's eternal "Ach! wir Armen!"

Mr. Crawford's Arabian tale 'Khaled' is fantastic, romantic, and interesting. The art of telling is his in a high degree. The Oriental atmosphere is well maintained, yet shot through with modern tinges of thought, bringing the story close to modern sympathy. The central motive, of the incarnate genius whose soul is to be given to him only when he shall have won a woman's love, is as old as romance, but wears an individual aspect here from the individual setting. Mr. Crawford is the Cook's tourist of novelists, and we confidently look now for a love story whose scene shall be laid among the lake-dwellers. Provided it be as readable as 'Khaled,' it shall have a welcome.

Whosoever is unfortunate enough to read the so-called Bohemian transcript 'In Low Relief,' will perceive that the adjective belongs to the book, but that the noun is his own when the book is closed. It bears the same relation to a work of art that "Oats, peas, beans" does to poetry, and there is a straining after badness which chafes gratingly upon the nerves.

The badness of 'There Is No Devil,' on the other hand, is of the frankest kind, but, being removed to Hungary, wears an air of aloofness which makes it more tolerable; and since the Anglo-Saxon reader, reversing *Hamlet*, is apt to think they are all mad out of England (or America), a little more or less of insanity on Continental soil is only what is to be looked for. Jokai is a clever and vivacious writer, and in general skilful at construction, although we cannot wholly admire the contrivance by which the story gets itself told. Two gentlemen make a night of it, while one relates to the other the story of his life. That this vigil may not cause his guest to wish that he had slept at home, the host at the outset rings the bell and gives his orders for the night. "Tea with mandarin liqueur at once, at twelve o'clock punch and fruits, at two in the morning coffee à la Turque, and at five o'clock a cold woodcock and champagne." The publishers' prefatory note states a belief that the present volume is better suited to the taste of American readers than any previous stories by Jokai. If this be so, it was a commendable act to withhold the others.

There is but one Arkansas, and Octave Thanet is its Prophet. For those who are not sated with the "local literature" of the States, 'Otto the Knight' and the accompanying stories will be found very pleasant reading, and will take a high rank among the color sketches of our country. The writer succeeds in giving an especial note to this especial region, and has, besides, a literary gift which is shown to advantage in the invention and form as well as in the phrasing of the tales.

Mr. Janvier's new stories are of very unequal merit. The one which gives the book its title is cheap to a degree. "Our Pirate Hoard" is proof that if one must imitate Stockton, one had better not take him in one of his boneless moments. "A Temporary Deadlock," on the other hand, is bright and ingenious, and the Crimean sketch, "For the House of France," is both naïve and spirited. Of the two romances of Avenue B, the former is fairly amusing, while the latter reminds one of the fact that the saccharine matter discovered in petroleum is useless, being too sweet for granulation.

Novels, like children, are often christened without rhyme or reason, but when a name is given apparently intended to indicate the characteristics belonging to a particular locality, it is rather disappointing to find them lacking. There is nothing to distinguish 'The Philadelphian' from the shrewd but kindly business man of any American city, and the virtues attributed to the Virginia gentleman represented in the person of the ex-Confederate Colonel are by no means peculiar to that section of the country. Both characters and scene are quickly transferred to England and Wales, where the author is on more familiar ground, and the action proceeds in a lively manner. Many characters are introduced, most of them of a more or less villanous type, and the interest of the story hinges upon the skill with which the villains are run to ground by the Philadelphian and the ex-Confederate. This is worked up with considerable power, although there are occasional lapses. The story is too long for an ordinary railway journey and does not commend itself for home reading.

'A Question of Love' is settled in practical French fashion after some timid wandering in the fields of romance. The tyranny of foreign social custom makes itself felt when we see a

writer of such delicate discernment and subtle sympathies as the author of this little volume, compelled to bring about so thoroughly commonplace a conclusion of a promising idyl. To satisfy his sense of artistic fitness, he tries, towards the close of the story, to rehabilitate the successful lover; but here his art revenges itself upon him, for he only succeeds in making a little less uninteresting the character whose limitations he had previously made so clear. No other solution, however, would have been possible without doing violence to traditions which are a part of the very fabric of old-world social life. The whole atmosphere of the story is suffused with the tender light which the French know so well how to produce with brush or pen, and in the translation nothing is lost of the author's charm of style.

The scene of 'Amaryllis' is laid in Greece, but the occasional attempts at local color are about as fanciful as the assumed Greek name of the author. It is a graceful little tale, for the rest, and dwells throughout in a realm of sentiment which narrowly escapes silliness, once or twice, but which, on the whole, is genuine and pleasing. So comely a volume should have been spared the occasional blot of careless proof-reading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Conference on Manual Training. Boston: New England Conference of Educational Workers. 50 cents.
Adams, Henry. Historical Essays. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Allen, Grant. Recalled to Life. Henry Holt & Co. $1.40.
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Cook, Prof. A. S. Newman's Essay on Aristotle's Poetics. 35 cents.
Crump, C. G. Landor's Imaginary Conversations. Vol. II. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Dale, Alan. Miss Innocence. New York: Edward Brandus & Co. 50 cents.
Deighton, K. As You Like It. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
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Ellicott, J. M. Justified. New York: The Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
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Flügel, Felix. English German and German-English Dictionary. Parts 9 and 10. B. Westermann & Co.
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Hannay, David. Rodney. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Hardy, A. S. Life and Letters of Joseph Hardy Neesima. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
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OCTOBER
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 8, 1891.

The Week.

THE official announcement of Mr. Blaine's continued invalidism, which is made by President Harrison in his message to the Dominion authorities, postponing for that reason the reciprocity conference which had been arranged for October 12, calls attention to the remarkable conduct of the Secretary of State in holding on to an office the duties of which he is unable to discharge. It was on the 4th of May last that Mr. Blaine left the Department, and the fifth month since that day is now completed. Mr. Blaine still lingers in Maine, and there is so little prospect of an early resumption of work on his part that the President is forced to ask an indefinite postponement of an important conference with representatives of another country which had been arranged to take place on the 12th of October. The spectacle of a man retaining the name of a member of the Cabinet, while allowing half a year to pass without discharging its duties, is without a precedent in our history.

One thing may be considered as settled by the President's announcement, and that is that Mr. Blaine's nomination as the Republican candidate next year is entirely out of the question. The first requisite in a candidate for the Presidency is that he shall be well. No party would ever dare to offer the people as its nominee for that office a man who the year before had broken down in attempting to discharge the far less wearing duties of Secretary of State, and had been forced to abandon the national capital for a period of more than five months. Republican politicians who, for one reason or another, are disgusted with Harrison, may continue to free their minds by loud cheers for Blaine whenever they assemble, but nobody can longer suppose that there is anything serious in their talk about the party's nominating this confirmed invalid for the Presidency.

We print in another column a very serious charge against Admiral Brown, which we trust, for the honor of the American Navy, is capable of some explanation. It comes from an American resident in Santiago, and he fortifies it by sending us the Chilian newspaper to which he refers. If true, it adds another very unpleasant chapter to the history of our connection with this Chilian trouble, and makes it appear that every American official in Chili went headlong, under Egan's lead, into Balmaceda's conspiracy against the Chilian republic—the only "sister republic" in this hemisphere which has done any credit to popular government. It was, of course, of the utmost importance to the Congressionalists that the place and time of the landing of their troops should be concealed as long as possible from Balmaceda, and of the utmost importance to Balmaceda to get as early information about both as he could. The duty of a neutral under such circumstances was to refrain absolutely, no matter what he saw or heard, from giving any information to either side that could affect the operations. If Admiral Brown used the *San Francisco* to scout for Balmaceda, he ought to be inquired into. But one of the unfortunate results of the reckless, furibundal foreign policy of this Administration is, that, after it recovers from its fits of Jingoism and gets its head clear, it finds itself committed so completely to some piece of folly that it cannot for very shame back out or acknowledge its error. So we are afraid that even a complaint against the Admiral by Chili now would be met by horn-tooting, tom-tom beating, and other signs that "we are awake" and feeling very "American."

It must be borne in mind that Egan's giving shelter to political refugees in the American Legation at Santiago cannot of itself get him into trouble. This right of asylum for offenders against the State in the house of foreign ministers, though long abolished in other countries, has been maintained in Spain and in the Spanish-American republics, probably as a means of mitigating the horrors of their numerous revolutions. Members of all parties have occasion, in their turn, to be grateful for it. It gave Balmaceda his refuge in the Argentine Legation. Mr Fish tried to get the Powers to agree to abolish it in Central and South America in 1870, but did not succeed. It has undoubtedly rendered some service to humanity in Chili during the present crisis, as it did in Spain during the Carlist and Christinist war, and even later. But the more powers of this kind—necessarily delicate in their nature—are conferred on ministers in foreign parts, the more necessary it is that the ministers should be men of high character and absolute trustworthiness. To intrust great discretion or responsibility of this kind to wandering adventurers of shady antecedents is something which no Christian Power but the United States of America would now venture to do. So that the charge against Egan is not that he has improperly sheltered political refugees, but that he is Egan. When he admits that he is Egan, he virtually pleads guilty to all sorts of diplomatic offences, and asks by implication for his own recall.

The action of the Legislative Investigating Committee in Pennsylvania in so restricting their inquiry into the conduct of the State Treasury as to make it impossible to put Senator Quay on the witness-stand, calls forth a stern rebuke from Mr. Childs's paper, the *Public Ledger*, which thus gives further evidence of its determination to have the whole truth brought to light. The *Ledger* says that if anything further were needed to justify Gov. Pattison's course in calling an extra session of the Senate, this proceeding of the Committee would supply it; that the Committee "was bound by every consideration of good public policy, by the solemn official obligations of every one of its members, to exhaustively investigate" the charges of fraud, and to give the examination "whatever scope was necessary to the discovery of the whole truth, no matter what political organization or what person was helped or hurt by it"; and that, taking into consideration the remarkable conduct of the Committee and the adverse criticisms of partisan journals on the Governor's proclamation, "it may well be questioned if organs or leaders could be guilty of greater or more disastrous folly than they have been in connection with the official fraud and maladministration which have inflicted such enormous losses upon the State and city, and which have so greatly dishonored both."

Gov. Pattison's determination to demand from Canada the extradition of Livsey, the fugitive cashier of the Pennsylvania Treasury, is a wise one. He is one of the witnesses whom the Senate will most need if it is going to get at the truth about the connection between Bardsley and the State Treasury. It is also said to be the Governor's intention to have H. H. Yard, who is under indictment for complicity with Bardsley, brought forward and made to testify. Yard was brought before the Philadelphia Investigating Committee, but was not compelled to testify. He is the man who was concerned in real-estate speculations with Lucas, the dead President of the Keystone Bank, who robbed it of $997,000; and it has also been shown that John Wanamaker once lent him one of the bogus certificates of Keystone stock which he (Wanamaker) held as security for the money he had advanced to Lucas in their celebrated Reading "deal." Yard is, therefore, a connecting link between Wanamaker, and Lucas, and Bardsley, and the Keystone Bank, and, if he can be forced to tell all he knows, there will be some interesting developments.

The funeral of William H. Kemble, of "addition, division, and silence" fame, took place near Philadelphia on Sept. 30. The attendance was very large, and the exercises were conducted by three clergymen, two of whom delivered eulogistic addresses. The first speaker, the Rev. Dr. Charles Wadsworth, said:

"William H. Kemble was a large man and he filled a large place. Now that he is dead a large vacancy has been created. He will be greatly missed in the business community.

Our friend had a large heart, but he didn't carry it upon his sleeve. It was often felt by those who knew him. He will be missed especially by the poor. His left hand never knew what his right did. There will be many poor who will go hungry this winter who would not had he lived. Our friend did not give his name to the church, but he manifested his love for the religion of God by his many gifts to charities and the cause of religion."

The second speaker, the Rev. Dr. S. A. Mutchmore, said:

"One of the sublime elements of our character is that we do not know what we are fitted for. If, at twenty-two years of age, William H. Kemble had been told what places he would fill in life, he would have said, No, I am not fitted for them. A large tree in a forest when it falls causes a great commotion and makes the smaller trees feel it. Mr. Kemble was like the big tree. He had filled out the circle of his life, and had done his work."

Both of these reverend gentlemen knew when they were saying these things that the man of whom they were saying them had confessed, only a few years ago, that he was guilty of a crime which ought to have confined him to a cell in the penitentiary for several years, instead of allowing him to "fill a large place in life." They knew that he was charged with having bribed members of the Legislature to vote in favor of a bill taking $4,000,000 from the State Treasury, with the understanding that half the amount should go to Quay and Kemble and the other men who sought to bribe the bill through. They knew that he had in court pleaded guilty to the charge, but fled before sentence could be pronounced, and had been pardoned by a Board of Pardons of which Quay was a member, before entering upon his term of imprisonment. What wonder that the influence of the clergy is declining when two of its most prominent representatives in one of the foremost cities in the land stand up and say of such a man that he had "manifested his love for the religion of God" by his acts, if not by his profession, and that he was like a big tree among small trees? One of these reverend eulogizers, the Rev. Dr. Mutchmore, as editor of the *Presbyterian*, has been a severe critic of the Rev. Dr. Briggs, and has been profoundly concerned lest that clergyman's unorthodox views should do harm to the cause of religion.

The fall meeting of the Presbytery of New York may easily prove to be the most momentous in its history, and the peculiar composition of the ecclesiastical court before which Prof. Briggs is now being tried for heresy deserves a word of comment. Comprising but 55 churches, the Presbytery numbers 160 ministers. More than half of the latter, accordingly, have no pastoral charge, and are either superannuated or serving as secretaries, editors, professors, librarians, or in other capacities. Of them all, thirty-three are non-resident, though eligible to vote if their attendance can be secured. Such a state of things does not appear to have been contemplated in the original theory of Presbyterianism, which provides for the constitution of Presbyteries out of the churches of a given locality and their pastors and elders. Indeed, there are still some strict constructionists who maintain that only ministers actually in charge of a church have a right to vote in Presbytery; but they are in a hopeless minority, and the right of the secretaries and editors to an equal voice with pastors is conceded. The important thing to note, however, is that, while the make-up of the New York Presbytery leaves it a doubtful exponent of the real views of the churches, it also invites to extraordinary methods of electioneering in important cases. The side that can drum up the greatest number of absentees and rout out the most valetudinarians, and can "hold its men in line" through a protracted trial, is the side that wins the fight. The significance of the vote—64 to 62—by which it was decided to go on with the trial, which is now set for November 4, lay in the fact that the laymen outvoted the ministers, thus preventing the attempt to cover up a fire which cannot be smothered.

The "holy boycott" of Union Theological Seminary is evidently to be enforced in the most thorough manner. The Presbyteries are beginning to put the strongest kind of pressure upon students to induce or compel them to keep away from the instructions of Prof. Briggs, and are voting, one after another, that no pecuniary aid shall be given by the church to any one studying at Union Seminary. This issue was sure to come, and the benevolent boards of the church that have been standing aloof from the controversy cannot escape being drawn into it. It will not be long before the Board of Home Missions will be warned not to give employment to any Union student, and the Board of Foreign Missions not to send abroad any young minister with the dangerous Briggs infection. Thus the main features of the Andover dispute will be revived, and the argument of pike and gun—in the form of its modern equivalent, the argument of salary and position—will be resorted to. It might seem that there could be no surer way of driving theological students to Union Seminary in crowds than to threaten them in such an ignoble way. One would think that every fibre in a student of really open mind would resent the unblushing appeal to unworthy motives. But we fear that the Presbyteries know their men. Theological students as a class are financially dependent. They often enter the seminary compromised by assistance already accepted, and have the fear of the ecclesiastical authorities constantly before their eyes. It must have been one of this class who is reported to have said the other day, with that perfect unconsciousness of trying to serve both God and Mammon which marks so many utterances on the subject: "The students in Union Seminary greatly respect Prof. Briggs and sympathize with his views to a certain extent, but not to the extent of siding with him if by so doing they would lose their chance of getting good places in the church."

Bishop Potter, in a notable diocesan charge, dwells at some length upon the question of a minister's duty when he finds himself out of harmony with the creed of his church. As was to be expected, the Bishop shows little patience with the view that one can play fast and loose with the most solemn obligations, but he suggests a possible third course, between withdrawal and remaining, which seems to us highly impracticable. Let the troubled clergyman, says Bishop Potter, temporarily retire from active service in his church, until he has come to positive convictions on the questions in dispute. This is a perfectly proper and theoretically excellent piece of advice, but it is so out of keeping with the actual conception of the ministerial character that it must be regarded as barren. The minister is not considered as a learner; his views are fixed. In both the popular estimation and ecclesiastical usage, a clergyman who should express his doubt about certain doctrines or the creed in general, and request time for further study, would be taken to have practically admitted his heresy and to have mistaken his calling. The theory of the world is the same as that of the Church in this matter, viz., that all these things are to be settled before ordination. It is a teacher, not a student, who is wanted in the pulpit. It may be perfectly true, as ex-President Porter has remarked, that it is quite impossible for a theological student to arrive at satisfactory views on all the great questions pressing upon him for solution, and that he must "lay many of them upon the shelf" for future consideration. Still, in practice that is not accepted, and for that reason we cannot think Bishop Potter's suggestion practical.

Secretary Foster, in an interview sent out by the Associated Press on September 16, took a rosy view of the condition of the Treasury, which, he said, was one of "perfect ease," although he admitted that there was "less money in the Treasury now than there has been for many years." He also took occasion to deny the report that he was "delaying the payment of appropriations for any purpose," though again he made the dangerous admission that "he had felt it would be good policy to restrict disbursing officers to their actual needs." The truth of both these assertions can be tested by the Treasury statements of receipts and expenditures for the twelve months during which the McKinley tariff has been in force, and for the first quarter of the current fiscal year. For the year preceding the taking effect of the McKinley Bill, the Government's receipts from all sources were $418,259,585, and its expenditures were $330,839,533. During the year ending October 1, 1891, the figures were, respectively, $378,305,909, and $365,015,955. In the last sum no reckoning is made of the $18,225,550 paid out in redemption of the 4½ per cents, nor of the $7,279,150 still due on that account. With those items counted in, as they should be, a deficit of more than $12,000,000 would appear as the net result on the Treasury books

of one year's operation of the McKinley law. But, in fact, that does not begin to express the gloom of the outlook since the revenue from sugar has ceased. Take the first quarter of the fiscal year 1891–92, and we find that Secretary Foster has paid out $84,471,733. During the corresponding period a year ago $108,596,465 were paid out, which makes it look very much as if there had been "delaying payments" this year. There is another way of getting at it. The appropriations for the current fiscal year, even accepting the optimistic figures of Messrs. Allison and Cannon, are hard on to $500,000,000, or $125,000,000 a quarter. It is clear, then, that Secretary Foster has "held up" no less than $40,000,000 of the payments fairly chargeable to this quarter, and that he has restricted disbursing officers not only to, but considerably below, "their actual needs." In other words, the Treasury is going on at the rate of an annual deficit of $130,000,000, and yet its official head calls that a condition of "perfect ease."

With all the bickering, recrimination, and hard feeling over the passing of Missouri Pacific's quarterly dividend, one phase of the question seems scarcely to have received proper attention. Few of the angry critics have asked whether the directors of the company had any right to pay any dividend, either in this quarter, when they passed it, or in the two preceding quarters, when they paid it. The official statement published last week merely confirmed the belief of well-informed Wall Street men that the Company has not earned its full dividend in a single quarter thus far in the fiscal year. It has simply borrowed money on the Company's notes to pay "profits" to the Company's shareholders. No clearer illustration could be had of the distortion so often consequent upon looking at everything from a "Wall Street standpoint," than the protest of speculators, not against the manner of passing the dividend, nor against the deception of paying previous unearned dividends, but merely against passing the dividend at all. If this outcry is to be trusted, the unearned dividend ought to have been paid, and all would have been well. As a matter of fact, it is the demoralizing notion that railroad dividends must be paid in full, up to the moment of actual financial exhaustion, that is responsible for this perversity of view; and this notion in turn is due to the strong and baleful influence of the stock market over much of current railway financiering. To this influence, in fact, are due a large share of the financial collapses in our railway history, and a still larger share of the frauds perpetrated on a simple "outside public" in the stock market itself. For it is the payment of unearned dividends until the very last gasp of a staggering corporation which enables sharp "insiders" to unload upon a deluded public, at high prices, all their own holdings of stock, just before the discovery of the truth makes the stock almost valueless. The practice has been a curse to American railroad financiering. One of the very best signs of recent times has been the courage with which such corporations as the Rock Island Road and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy have met a quarter of decreased earnings with a corresponding reduction in dividends.

Four pages of the report of Mr. W. Dudley Foulke and his associates to the Civil-Service Reform League on the Federal census relate to the census of New York city, and they present facts which call for something more than a passing notice. The high character of the Committee making the report will satisfy impartial persons that the Federal census as taken in this city was an exceedingly clumsy and inaccurate job, and that it came far short of the true population of the city. The Chairman of the Committee ascertained that in the two blocks bounded by Broadway and Nassau and by John and Liberty Streets the Federal census wholly omitted twelve houses, in which thirty-eight persons resided. The Chairman called upon the enumerator, John Kiernan, and put some questions to him. Mr. Kiernan informed him that one Reed had been appointed in the first instance as enumerator of the district, but that he gave up the job after he had taken a few names. His commission was then transferred to Kiernan by the simple process of erasing the name of Reed and inserting that of Kiernan. Reed never made any report to anybody. Kiernan took Reed's schedules and proceeded to verify them, but some of the persons called upon refused to give their names a second time. So Kiernan threw down these lists, and they were lost somewhere in his house, for when he tried to find them afterwards, he could not. Still more strange was a discrepancy that was found to exist between Kiernan's returns and the lists at Washington. "In a number of cases," says the report, "the names reported by Mr. Kiernan did not appear in the Federal lists. Whether the schedules containing these names were lost or destroyed, or in what manner the discrepancy occurred, is not known." From this disclosure the inference might be drawn that the census of New York was tampered with in order to lessen her representation in Congress. The Committee express no opinion on that point, but say that such inferences will be natural and inevitable whenever political considerations invade the Census Bureau.

French wines appear to be hit the hardest by the retaliatory legislation provoked by the new French protectionism, and the grape-growers are in a state of mind about it. Russia follows up her effusive demonstrations at Cronstadt by promulgating her new tariff with doubled duties on wines, and the vineyard-owners are asking if that is the way the Czar swears eternal friendship. Belgian exports to France were savagely struck at by M. Méline's bill, and Belgium retaliates by raising the customs rates on wines to about twice their former amount. Even Sweden and Norway follow suit, in revenge for the new French duties on building material, formerly imported free from the Scandinavian peninsula. On the other hand, the Bordeaux exporters of wine are at their wits' end to know what to do in face of the practically prohibitory duties on Spanish wines. They have long used these in vast quantities to mix with their own, and say they cannot get along without them. In these circumstances the Spaniards are meditating a shrewd stroke. A proposal has been agreed to by leading men of all political parties, and will undoubtedly pass in the coming session of the Cortes, for absolutely removing all Spanish duties on wines, and at the same time granting excessively low rates on the railways to importations of French wines. Their scheme is to have the great industry of wine-mixing and wine-exporting transferred to their own country, and it looks very much as if the blind policy of France, combined with their own astuteness, might bring that about in some measure. In that case, as a witty French writer says, the famous Château-Lafitte and Château-Margaux would become veritable "Châteaux en Espagne."

The war scare in Europe seems to have again subsided, but will probably be revived at short intervals. People have found out that there is very little in the Dardanelles trouble, that Turkey has accorded nothing to Russia which she denies to any other Power, and that England sees nothing in it to be worried about. The source of probable disturbance has now been transferred to Afghanistan, but the story of late Russian aggression in that quarter is too slight to last very long. Then there is no doubt of the renewal of the Triple Alliance, and of the great internal difficulties with which Russia is contending, and the Emperor of Germany has appeased France somewhat by relaxing the passport regulations in Alsace-Lorraine. In truth, there are numerous signs that the effect of the enormous armaments of the Continental States in fostering a bellicose disposition among the people and their rulers is not what has been commonly supposed. It does not appear to produce readiness for war. The machinery of war has become so tremendous in size and power that everybody is a little afraid of setting it to work. War now produces such industrial disturbance as was never seen, and the masses of troops to be moved are so great that all the generals have a secret shrinking from the task. As regards recent wars, for instance, there is hardly a doubt that if Alexander II. could have foreseen Plevna and the Shipka Pass, he would have been very slow in helping Servia, and we may be sure the German staff does not look to a conflict with France with nearly as much light-heartedness as it would have done ten years ago. The size of the armies and the improvement of the weapons and the great cost are in fact sobering all the warriors. The vaporing is mostly done in the newspapers.

THE FIELD FOR INVESTIGATION.

A VERY large amount of imperative investigation work will fall upon the new Congress when it assembles in December. It is of the highest public interest that several branches of the Federal service be subjected to a thorough inquiry in order that the exact truth about the scandals connected with them may be made known. Without professing to cover the entire field, we will suggest four branches of the domestic service, and three of the foreign or diplomatic service, which ought to command early and searching attention. We give in each instance the office, together with the name of the officials and others to be examined, and the chief subjects for inquiry.

(1.) *Pension Bureau: Green B. Raum.* The charges against Gen. Raum may be concisely summed up in a general charge of dishonest and corrupt management. He is believed to be in league with the pension agents, in fact, the partner of the most unscrupulous of them, and to be managing the Pension Bureau in their interest. He is known to have been interested financially in a doubtful refrigerator enterprise, and to have practically forced employees in the Bureau to take stock in it by giving them to understand that they would thereby improve their chances of promotion. He has violated the civil service rules repeatedly in regard to changes among his employees. His own son was detected in taking money of the Bureau intrusted to his care, and in selling appointments which were obtained by bogus or surreptitious examinations, and was allowed to resign by the President. Raum's most recent offence is in seeking to have discharged from the Bureau three employees who exposed his son's rascalities. The most serious of the charges against him have been made and sustained in the Washington correspondence of the *Tribune*, the leading organ of the Harrison Administration.

(2.) *Census Bureau: Robert P. Porter.* The general charge against him is, that, by employing incompetent enumerators, in many instances in open violation of law, he has compiled a new census which is so partisan and inaccurate in many proved instances as to be practically worthless, making it the most costly as well as the poorest ever compiled in this country. His conduct in regard to the selection of enumerators, the quality and thoroughness of their work, the use which he has made of it, and his general administration of the Census Bureau, are all subjects which should be most carefully examined.

(3.) *Sub-Treasury at New York: Ellis H. Roberts.* Inquiry should be made in this case whether Mr. Roberts has been using the power of his position over the banks of the city to induce them to grant him such discount and other personal favors as he desires to receive. This, we have reason to believe, will be a most fruitful field for investigation.

(4.) *Comptrollership of the Currency: Edward S. Lacey, William P. Drew, John Wanamaker.* The Keystone National Bank of Philadelphia should be the objective point of this inquiry. Investigation by Congress is made necessary by the course of the Harrison Administration in refusing to allow Mr. Lacey, the Comptroller, to take the witness-stand in the investigation which the City Councils of Philadelphia were conducting into the affairs of the bank. Mr. Drew, the National Bank Examiner, appeared before that Committee and gave evidence which reflected upon the course of the Comptroller in failing to close the bank at an earlier date than that chosen by him for the purpose. Mr. Lacey wished to take the stand in answer, but the Harrison Administration refused him permission, and would not allow his written statement in answer to Drew to be published till it had been passed upon at a Cabinet meeting. Subsequently Drew was removed by Lacey on a charge of having made a blunder in one of his reports on the bank's condition. Drew showed that this blunder had been corrected immediately, and showed also that Lacey, by his own admissions, knew the bank to be rotten two months before he ordered it to be closed. When it was closed, there was a delay of two months more in the appointment of a receiver, and two telegrams from John Wanamaker to Lacey have been disclosed, in which the former advised delay. John Wanamaker was also a heavy depositor in the bank for several years, as well as the personal friend of its two rascally presidents, and enjoyed great favors at their hands. John Wanamaker also succeeded in getting all his money out of the bank before it collapsed. This is a very inviting field for inquiry.

(5.) *Hayti: James G. Blaine, Benjamin F. Tracy, Frederick Douglass, Admiral Gherardi, William P. Clyde & Co.* The charge in this case is, that, for and in consideration of aid secretly furnished to Hyppolite, now President of Hayti, during the late civil war in that country, we demanded, first, a subsidy of $500,000 to the Clyde Line of steamers for making regular trips between Hayti and New York for a period of ten years; and, second, a lease of the Môle St.-Nicolas in perpetuity, together with an exclusion of all other foreign governments from Haytian territory.

(6.) *Chili: Secretary Blaine, Patrick Egan, Admiral Brown.* The subject of inquiry here is the relations sustained by Egan, as United States Minister, and by Brown, as Admiral of a United States ship of war, with Balmaceda, the late President of Chili. Were these relations such as would do credit to us as a nation? Were they in accordance with approved diplomatic and naval usage? Inquiry might also be made into the relations between Balmaceda and Patrick Egan's son in the matter of Government contracts.

(7.) *Brazil: James G. Blaine.* Was the new reciprocity treaty with Brazil secured by a trick? It is charged in Brazil that Mr. Blaine privately assured the Brazilian Minister to this country, Mr. Mendonça, that if such a treaty were agreed to by Brazil, the United States would not make one like it with Spain in relation to Cuba, thus opening a vast market for Brazilian sugar in the United States; that in view of this promise Brazil consented to the treaty, and that the subsequent negotiation by Mr. Blaine of a similar treaty with Spain was a direct breach of faith. Our Government ought not to rest quietly under an unanswered charge of this kind.

MR. LODGE AND HIS DODGE.

FOR the first time in the annals of political debate in this country, so far as we recall, has a debater declined to discuss "the issues of the campaign," and then accused the opposite party, who wanted to discuss those issues, of dodging and refusing to meet him. This phenomenon was presented at Boston, when Mr. Cabot Lodge replied to the letter of the Democratic State Committee. In previous correspondence the Committee had invited Mr. Lodge to meet Mr. John E. Russell in joint debate during the present campaign. Mr. Lodge had replied that he would meet Mr. Russell in joint debate on three occasions, and he claimed the right, as the challenged party, to name the subjects of each debate. He accordingly named as the subject of the first debate "The Administration of Gov. Russell"; of the second, "The Attitude of the National Democratic Party on the Silver Question"; and of the third, "The Prices of the Necessaries of Life as affected by the McKinley Tariff Act."

The conception of a political joint debate as something analogous to a duel, in which the challenged party has the right to choose the weapons, would never have occurred to a Massachusetts statesman unless he were trying to dodge. The weapons of debate are the tongues of the debaters. If Mr. Lodge had followed his analogy strictly, he might have said: "As the challenged party I claim the right to choose the weapons. I insist that neither one shall use his hands or arms in any way, or speak in an unusually loud tone of voice." Requirements of that kind would pass muster among professors of the code—even *Sir Lucius O'Trigger* would be forced to give his assent to them; but Mr. Lodge went much beyond the choice of weapons. He stipulated that no subjects should be discussed except the three named by him. This was like stipulating that the opposing party in a duel should not raise his arm higher than his knee, or should stand with the dust blowing in his face.

Let us glance for a moment at Mr. Lodge's subjects. The first one, the administration of Gov. Russell, is unobjectionable, for that is assuredly one of the issues of the campaign. It was promptly accepted by the Democratic Committee. The next one, viz., "The Attitude of the National Democratic Party on the Silver Question," excludes the discussion of the attitude of the Republican party on the same question. This is not a conjecture at all, for the Democratic Committee proposed to modify it so as to include the attitude of *both* parties. To this gentle proposal Mr. Lodge returned the following answer:

"In my last letter I said that I would not modify my terms in any particular. You now insist on a modification, which is equivalent to a refusal. You challenged me; I accepted the

challenge at once, naming the subjects, as I had a right to do. Instead of closing with my acceptance, you enter upon an argument upon technicalities, and dispute as to the terms of the debate. This seems to me entirely useless."

It is not necessary to point out to honest men that a debate on the attitude of one party only, on a political issue, would be not merely unfair to one of the debaters, but misleading to the audience. The Republican party has taken its stand on a bill which provides for the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion per month and the issue of legal-tender notes thereon. This is two and a half times as much as the Government ever purchased before, and it adds the new feature of legal tender to the paper issued upon it. The Democratic party in Massachusetts has condemned this measure and *all other* silver bills which provide for the coining of dollars not equal in *intrinsic* value to the best dollars in existence. But Mr. Lodge is not willing to have the present law debated at all. In fact, the terms of his proposal would exclude the platform of the Democrats of Massachusetts also, for he stipulates that the debate shall be on the attitude of the *national* Democratic party. How is anybody to learn what that is in advance of the National Democratic Convention?

Mr. Lodge's anxiety to restrict the debate on the McKinley tariff to its effect upon the necessaries of life is probably as keen as his desire to avoid the debate altogether. It is easy to see that the whole debate would turn on the definition of necessaries. That was undoubtedly what Mr. Lodge had in his mind. Of course nothing is necessary which a man can do without. There are a thousand things in the McKinley tariff that poor people use which have been enhanced in price, but which are not strictly necessary. They represent the first upward steps towards a decenter life, such as gloves and ribbons for women, cotton velvet for households, worsted suitings for men, etc. None of these things can be considered absolutely necessary. Consequently it would be easy for Mr. Lodge to rule out every article that tells against his own position and his own party.

Finally, the Democratic Committee proposed to Mr. Lodge that he should discuss with Mr. Russell broadly "the issues of the campaign." From this suggestion he fled as hastily as from the others, and in his humorous way put upon the other side the blame of dodging the debate. Fancy Lincoln, or Douglas, or any of the debaters who have left a mark on our political life, refusing to debate "the issues of the campaign" when challenged thereto by his opponents. Then imagine him, if possible, accusing his challenger of running away.

HOURS OF LABOR IN ENGLAND.

In February last the House of Commons appointed a committee "to inquire whether, and if so in what way, the hours worked by railway servants should be restricted by legislation." On July 16 this committee reported the evidence already taken, and recommended that a committee be appointed on the same subject in the next session of Parliament. The evidence given before the committee has just been printed in a large volume, and forms an important contribution to the subject of the hours of labor and the advisability of legislation thereupon. The general question of a shorter day was discussed by the railway employees, and also by managers who have to do with large interests.

The testimony was clear upon the point that there was upon English railways a large number of instances of long hours of labor, although there had been of late a gradual improvement. Thus, in a return prepared by the Board of Trade (a semi-official body), it was shown that the percentage of day's work exceeding twelve hours among the engine-drivers on the London and Northwestern was in March, 1888, 27 per cent., and in March, 1890, 20 per cent., though other roads showed no improvement. Upon this point Mr. Findlay, the General Manager of that company, said that his directors and officers had had tables of all excessive working-hours submitted to them, and had, by changes and by the employment of extra men, done everything possible to reduce all work to within ten or twelve hours per day. The exigencies of railway working must always make a hard-and-fast rule impossible, but Mr. Findlay was emphatic in saying that the habitual employment of men for an hour beyond their best strength was an expensive policy for the company. Overtime was a thing to be avoided whenever possible, as no employee was worth to the railway as much when working extra hours as when on his regular duty.

As to the question of danger to public safety, which was the ground of the inquiry on the part of Parliament, the testimony was not conclusive. The Government Inspector of Railways, Maj.-Gen. Hutchinson (of the Royal Engineers), could name but one accident directly attributable to overwork; yet he was convinced that long hours for engine-drivers, signalmen, or train conductors had indirectly helped to the fatal result in a number of cases. In one accident he reported: "It is not difficult to account for the conduct of these men, who, I am convinced, must have been asleep or nearly so upon the engine, for they had at that time been on duty for nearly sixteen and a half hours. It hardly needed this accident to show the enormous risk which attaches to the employment of drivers for these inordinately long hours." The railway managers did not deny the risk, but claimed the instances to have been exceptional. Still, the Board of Trade return, showing on a considerable number of roads that one-third of the engine-drivers were on duty more than twelve hours a day (though not necessarily upon the engine-plate the whole time), seems to leave a large field for reform.

In the United States we have no statistics upon this question of unusually long hours for engine-runners and signalmen; it may be presumed that our roads are mindful of the danger arising from overfatigue and drowsiness on the part of those upon whom rests the safety of trains. Yet, in view of the accidents now daily occurring, it would be well for our railway managers to examine anew into the actual (as distinct from the scheduled) number of hours worked by trainmen on duty, to see whether overwork is not one of the minor causes of our too frequent railway collisions.

The question of a possible remedy through legislation brought on a long and interesting discussion. The leaders of the railway trade-unions (with whom the English managers would not treat as representing the employees unless actually themselves employed on the road) asked for a law limiting the daily work to ten hours. The men were not agreed upon this. Some block-signal men on crowded lines, in view of their responsible position, thought for their work that the strain of eight hours was long enough. Other engine-drivers would rather work fifteen hours and get home to their families than stop at twelve hours though the company furnished lodging. A few were willing to work any number of hours provided they could get pay for the overtime. The sentiment of many seemed to be in favor of legislation which should fix a maximum day's work of less hours than at present, though at the same pay per day. A prominent manager thought the whole agitation was a trick of the unions to get increased wages; but his fellow-managers did not take that view of it, Mr. Findlay denying it emphatically, and seeming to think that the claim for a fair number of hours per day for responsible train work was founded in reason.

When it came to the question how such a reform was to be brought about, Mr. Findlay, perhaps the foremost railway manager in Great Britain, had very decided views. "I know of no class of service in the kingdom, or practically in the world," he asserted, "where the terms of the contract, the hours of labor, and the payment for that labor, are to be" (*i. e.*, can be) "settled between masters and men according to arbitration. It must be that the hours of labor must be regulated according to supply and demand, and if a man does not like the service, surely he is at liberty to leave it." In partial explanation of Mr. Findlay's position, it should be remembered that in England railway service is very popular, so that there are two or three applicants for every vacancy. "Demand and supply" on the English roads means, therefore, an easier victory of the corporations over the employees than is the case in the United States or in Australia. No arguments of the House of Commons committee could make this witness modify his view. He maintained that discipline on a railway was absolutely essential not only to profit, but to safety. If the servants got the idea that there was a higher authority than the railway officers, there was an end of discipline; this discipline on the railways, he asserted, was now more perfect than that of the English Army—an assertion which ought to provoke comment. Then Mr. Findlay frankly spoke of the good done by the Parliamentary agi-

tation. "I have not the slightest hesitation in admitting that the investigation this committee are now pursuing will result in a considerable improvement in the arrangement and organization for the working of traffic upon railways."

When asked why the railways had not taken up the subject on receipt of servants' complaints in previous years and before the action of Parliament, and why other companies had not introduced reforms like the London and Northwestern, and finally what was to be done if these companies refused to follow up the reform at all, Mr. Findlay did not give satisfactory answers. He admitted the jurisdiction of Parliament over mechanical apparatus like block-signalling, and over public safety such as was involved in legislation about hours of labor, but he thought that the published opinion of the Board of Trade censuring a particular company for its negligence in any one of those matters would arouse enough public sentiment on the subject to accomplish the reform, leaving the details, as now, to the officers of the company, who are responsible to the shareholders and to the Government. The whole subject was then left to the succeeding Parliament, without expression of opinion on the part of the Committee.

THE SUCCESS OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

THE suicide of Boulanger is a very characteristic close to a singular career. The fittest way for a French charlatan to quit the scene of his labors is undoubtedly to kill himself on his mistress's grave. But it is not unreasonable to suppose that his suicide was hastened in some degree by the recent extraordinary success of the Republic. It is not simply that it has passed this summer the fateful term of twenty-one years, which no Government in France has reached since the overthrow of the old monarchy. The First Empire, the Restoration, the Monarchy of July, and Second Empire all tried for it, but every one of them perished within twenty years; so that it had become one of the superstitions of French politics that no government could be considered permanently established under which young men of twenty-one could not say they had been born. The present Republic has, however, broken the spell. It has lived long enough for a new generation to grow up under it. The youths who are now entering on the work of life, and above all filling the ranks of the army, have never known any other form of government. They have never seen a revolution, and their fathers, who remember the days of the one-man power, have grown old and conservative and hostile to any change whatever. So that it seems as if, after one hundred years of wandering in the wilderness, and that purgation by "blood and fire" which Burke predicted for her, France had at last entered on a new era of prosperity and comfort if not of glory. Bonapartism seems dead; Cæsarism has reached a ridiculous and ignoble end on Madame de Bonnemain's tomb; and the Legitimist cause would be fatally discredited by the complicity of the Comte de Paris in the Boulangist conspiracy, even if any tradition or memory of the old monarchy still survived among the mass of the people.

These things, however, may be all put down as pieces of good luck for which the Republicans are not entitled to any special credit. But there is one success they have achieved this summer, before which all Europe takes off its hat, which there is no gainsaying or depreciating, which no Government could achieve without possessing the highest order of administrative capacity, which has, one might almost say, suddenly changed the place of France among the great Powers, and which has closed the mouths of the largest and most influential portion of the remaining Royalists, and very likely gave Boulanger his death blow—we mean the production of an army of the first order. This fact has been revealed by the field manœuvres which have just come to an end, and it is no exaggeration to say that it has produced a profound sensation.

The French have been laboring at their army now for twenty years, and trying every sort of experiment on it, the fall of the Empire having left it in a condition of complete disorganization. Everything had to be changed or renewed. Its numbers had to be increased; its discipline restored; its self-confidence revived; its armament changed; its cavalry and artillery, commissariat and transportation, reorganized and enormously increased. There have been field manœuvres on a considerable scale every year for a good while, but they all revealed the fact that the force was far from ready to meet the exigencies of a campaign against that great thunderbolt of modern warfare, the German Army. Things which seemed very perfect in the garrisons and in the Champ de Mars in Paris, broke down completely when an attempt was made to engage in great strategic movements in the open country.

The manœuvres this year have shown that unwearied diligence and lavish expenditure have at last had their reward. Two hundred thousand men have been engaged for some weeks in mimic warfare in the Southeast, which tested, as far as is possible without actual bloodshed, the three things of greatest importance in military organization—the capacity of the generals to move great masses of men in the field, the capacity of the men to be moved rapidly and punctually, and the capacity of the commissariat and transportation to keep them supplied. The result has been a great success. The swarm of foreign officers who witnessed the manœuvres were all profoundly impressed, and acknowledge that France is once more a great military Power, worthy of her ancient fame. The Royalists, too, acknowledge with a sigh that the one thing which they predicted the Republic could never do—restore France to her old place among the nations of the earth — has been done. The effect of this on the army itself, and on the country through the army, may be readily imagined. No domestic disturbance or failure has, during the last twenty years, weighed so heavily on the French soul as the feeling that foreigners had ceased to think much of the French Army. It was the fear that the Republic could never seal this fountain of bitterness which made its future seem uncertain. It was this which gave a charlatan like Boulanger the few gleams of hope which brightened the earlier part of his political career and ruined him as a soldier. The new knowledge that "la gloire" is still possible for armed France has spread sunshine over the land; but the news that in this great rehabilitation of his old profession he could have no share, and that he must for ever be an outcast wherever the French flag waved and French guns were heard, probably filled the poor adventurer's cup of bitterness to overflowing.

A PRIME MINISTER OF THE FUTURE.

LONDON, September, 1891.

No one has of late years advanced himself so rapidly to a leading place in English politics as Mr. Arthur Balfour, the present Chief Secretary for Ireland. Seven years ago he was not known outside the House of Commons, and known there only as Lord Salisbury's clever, but, to all appearance, languid and unpractical nephew. Now he is recognized as the successor (and that probably at no very distant date) to Lord Salisbury in the leadership of the Tory party, and therefore in the Premiership when that party has a majority. The Tory party has not of late been fertile, any more than the Liberal party, in promising men. It has no one in the House of Lords of the least importance, except, of course, Lord Salisbury himself, while as regards the House of Commons Lord Randolph Churchill's blunders have thrown him out in the race; and Mr. Goschen, although at present he takes precedence of Mr. Balfour, is not popular with the Tories, and would not be accepted (having been lately a Liberal) as their leader. It is long also since any politician on the Tory side has been so much to the taste of the party and regarded with so much admiration as Mr. Balfour now is. For a parallel to the language one hears the Conservatives apply to him one must almost go back to the days of the younger Pitt. They never felt at home with Canning, whose brilliance frightened them; they were never enthusiastic for the Duke of Wellington, as a statesman. Even Sir Robert Peel, who led them for a long time with so much skill, was debarred by his cold manners from personal popularity, and lay under the reproach, serious in those days, of having sprung from the middle classes. Their admiration for Disraeli was somewhat factitious, and did not come till near the end of his career. They suffered Sir Stafford Northcote to be thrust aside by Lord Randolph Churchill, and, although the last-named politician won a considerable success for a short time, it was the rowdy and vulgar element in the party—now, no doubt, a strong element—that applauded him, while the better sort viewed him with well-merited distrust.

Mr. Balfour unites qualifications not combined before. He is the nephew of a great noble, now the head of the party, a familiar and favorite figure in society. He is a man of

undoubted talent, conspicuous courage, great facility of speech. His Irish policy, however unwise some may think it, was the policy which the English upper class desired and have enjoyed; and as Ireland was for several years the chief theme of political debate in and out of Parliament, Mr. Balfour was always in the front of the battle. It is not easy to convey an impression of the admiration—one might perhaps say adulation—with which "Society" now follows him. How far is this admiration deserved? Does he possess the gifts that make a great statesman who leaves his mark on his time, as Pitt and Peel did? Let us try to answer this question, so far as the limits of a letter permit. To begin with, Mr. Balfour has a mind. Of course, no man becomes prominent in English politics without showing considerable talent, but the talent is usually of a commonplace kind, which offers little to interest the observer. But Mr. Balfour's intellect has a character of its own, an individuality which makes its play worth studying. He always thinks, and he always thinks for himself. If he repeats vulgar catchwords or resorts to current fallacies, one can perceive that he sees through them. When he was hardly known in the House of Commons, there were some of his opponents who habitually listened to him because they knew that he had an active and penetrating intelligence. His intellect, however, is analytic rather than synthetic. It is a keen, critical, sceptical, destructive intellect. It produces few positive ideas, few constructive views. It ought not, perhaps, to be called an original intellect, because one gathers little that is new and profitable from it, but it is a formidable engine for sifting, scrutinizing, and detecting the weaknesses of an opponent's position. Nearly all his speeches consist in dissections and refutations of his adversaries, and the dialectic skill he displays has in it a scholastic ingenuity and fineness which gives it a thoroughly individual character. When he has to expound a complicated measure or to set forth and advocate a large scheme of policy, he is comparatively lifeless, sometimes confused, seldom telling or persuasive. The range of his interests and knowledge does not seem to be wide; his speeches, at any rate, do not convey the impression of a richly stored mind or of one which is fertile in suggestion. Its bent is to metaphysical dialectics, a field in which he has produced a clever book entitled 'Defense of Philosophic Doubt,' which was commonly taken to be an argument in favor of theological scepticism, but which he has himself declared to be the very opposite, and to be designed to strengthen revealed religion. Some may consider that the want of constructive gifts is not a serious drawback to his success as a statesman. A drawback it certainly is, but not so serious as might be thought, for, though the Tory party have lately been producing some constructive measures, their main function has been and is likely to be to criticise and resist proposals of change proceeding from the Liberal side. A great deal of our political discussion is mere dialectic attacks on the conduct and measures of opponents, and refutation of their attacks. In all this he shines.

As Mr. Balfour's quickness of perception and reasoning is mated to a great readiness and command of language, he has become an excellent Parliamentary debater and an effective, if not brilliant, platform speaker. He is not an orator—that is to say, he has no natural flow of eloquence, and has not so far shown any power of touching the imagination or of rousing the emotions. Yet his speeches are generally interesting, because he argues ingeniously and has a notable gift of sarcasm. This sarcasm is rarely or never humorous, but it is often genuinely witty. Lord Salisbury possesses the same gift in a high degree, but uses it more crudely and sometimes in gross breach of good taste. The cynical flavor is less marked in the nephew than in the uncle; and there is more in Mr. Balfour of an air of culture and of refinement, a quality conspicuously wanting in Lord Salisbury. Until he took office, the weak point of Mr. Balfour's speaking was a certain scholasticism, a want of touch with the facts of the case, a tendency to treat arguments formally sound as materially conclusive—a tendency, in short, to play the abstract dialectician in politics. But since he took office and found himself obliged day by day to grapple with his active and able Irish opponents, knowing far more of Ireland than he did, this defect has almost disappeared. He now takes hold of the substance of a case in a practical and vigorous way; and if he often fails to be convincing, this may be because he often gives the impression that he does not himself believe in his own case, but merely deems it a case good enough for the audience he has to deal with. This touch of cynicism, or of what may be called intellectual superciliousness, is seldom absent from his speeches. His supporters, however, like the peculiar flavor, and it is, after all, more important for a man to please his supporters than to evade the criticism of opponents.

His administrative ability is very differently judged by those who approve or blame the policy of repression he has followed in Ireland, the only field where he has been tested. This, however, may be said with confidence, that he has learned by experience, and has made far fewer blunders lately since he has taken the trouble to travel through Ireland and study her condition. His treatment of the political prisoners will probably come to be regarded as a gross and wanton error, which he would not now repeat, just as he has now abandoned the insolent tone and contemptuous manner which he used to display towards the Irish members. It is fair to say that the hostility to him of the Nationalists seems to have been rather official than personal; they have seldom or never shown the same kind of hatred to him, in spite of his severities, which they undoubtedly felt for Mr. W. E. Forster. It was probably by the excess of one of his best qualities that Mr. Balfour was led into the mistakes of his first two years of Irish office. He thought that a policy of repression ought to be above all things courageous, and therefore unsparing and unshrinking. He has now learned, having sufficiently proved his firmness, that softer methods may be more efficacious, and that courage and severity are not necessarily conjoined. It is largely to his courage that he owes his prominence, for no quality is so essential to a public man. He shows it not only in his willingness to take administrative responsibility, but in the boldness with which he meets all his antagonists in Parliament, from Mr. Gladstone downwards, and in the air of cool unconcern with which he receives damaging criticisms. He gives the impression of having, under a somewhat languid exterior, a fund of self-reliance and composure equal to any emergency. Courage in debate soon commands the respect of opponents; in Mr. Balfour's case it has largely contributed to the respect felt for him.

It may be asked whether with these gifts Mr. Balfour gives what may be called the general but indefinable impression of greatness, whether in fact he seems to belong to a different category from that of ordinary statesmen. People understand the term greatness so differently, sometimes including in it the element of moral elevation and sometimes restricting it to the possession of exceptional force of intellect and will, that it is not easy to answer such a question. There are those who would not call Bismarck great, because of his meannesses, nor Kossuth, because he was unsuccessful. Still, in whichever sense the term be taken, Mr. Balfour has not as yet shown himself to belong to the class. Good observers who have come into close contact with him describe him as very acute, very agreeable, very bright and ready, and, in a word, very able. More than this they do not seem to say. There was much that was theatrical and even vulgar about Disraeli's greatness, as there is much that is shabby and brutal about Bismarck's. Both, however, made a personal impression of brilliance and force and fertility which no one could escape. There is only one man living in England now who makes that sort of impression, and he belongs to a generation which has almost wholly passed away. None of our younger statesmen seems at present likely so to grow and develop as to rise to the like height. But of those who are now conspicuous in public life, there is probably no one before whom there opens the prospect of a future so distinguished as may be predicted for Mr. Arthur Balfour.

O. D.

MEMOIRS OF MME. DE GONTAUT.

PARIS, September 16, 1891.

I CONFESS being somewhat tired of the memoirs which describe the first Revolution, the horrors of 1793, the adventures of the Empire. There is a certain sameness in the sentiments of the authors of these memoirs and a certain narrowness; much as we may sympathize with their sufferings, we cannot help feeling that they hardly understood the events in which they were unconscious actors. I felt some hesitation before reading the 'Memoirs' of the Duchess of Gontaut, governess of the "enfants de France" during the Restoration.

The Gontaut family began to be illustrious with the famous Biron, who conspired against Henri IV. and was beheaded for his treachery. If I had the animus of Paul Louis Courier, I would say that a great crime does as much for a family as great services rendered to the state. Two or three centuries spread an extraordinary halo over criminals of state, and the reason of it is obvious: what we really regard and respect is the work of time, and a real descendant of Cain would be as much thought of as a real descendant of Abel. Madame de Gontaut was born in Paris in 1773. She was married to M. de Saint-Blaucard, who took, from the day of his marriage, the name of Vicomte de Gontaut-Biron, leaving the name of Saint-Blaucard to the elder son of the younger branch. The marriage took place in England, at Epsom. The young bride had been educated in France; she had lived, as a girl, in the intimacy of the Orleans family; a nephew of her father, M. de Valence, was married to the daughter of Mme. de Genlis; she was an inmate of the Palais Royal. She felt the same enthusiasm for Mme. de Genlis as did the children of the Duc d'Orléans. "I should have been ashamed," says she, "of being behind them in this romantic passion which everybody tried to manifest towards her. I have seen the Princes (the Duc de Chartres, who became Louis Philippe, the Dukes of Montpensir and Beaujolais), and Mademoiselle (who was named afterwards

Mme. Adelaide), kiss her footprints, and I must confess to my great shame that, wishing to distinguish myself, I threw myself on a chair which she had just left, and kissed it with warmth. I filled my mouth with dust, which calmed my ardor." Mme. de Genlis was at the time writing the 'Veillées du Château,' and she read it to those children. She certainly must have had a great charm. Louis Philippe on his throne continued to pay visits to her till the time of her death.

Mme. de Gontaut has not much to say on the first events of the Revolution. She was a mere child, and took refuge at first at the Château de Lys, near Nérac, which belonged to her father, Comte de Montaut-Navailles. The Revolution was already in full force, but see the influence of old tradition: "Our arrival at the Lys was a scene of the middle ages. We found peasants formed in line, the eight sons of the lord, my cousin, hat in hand, and eight soldiers who had followed my father in the Seven Years' War." Mme. de Gontaut, after her marriage in England, spent her time in the best English society, but there is not much to pick up in her Memoirs about the people she mixed with. The Duc de Biron was guillotined on December 31, 1793, and Mme. de Gontaut writes about him: "We had to deplore the services which he thought it his duty to render to his country." The Duc de Biron owed a large sum of money to the Marquis de Gontaut. As the Viscount could not go to France, since he was on the list of the *émigrés*, Mme. de Gontaut made the journey. She obtained a passport under the name of a Mme. François, who was in business. She was arrested at Calais, and kept in prison for three weeks. Fulton, the inventor of the steamboat, happened to be there. He came to see her, and, through the *judas* of her prison, said to her:

"'Mme. François, hear me.' 'I hear you.' 'You are in a bad way, and I come to save you.' 'Thank you, but explain yourself.' 'You are going to be sent to Paris. You will be shut up there, and, once there, you are lost. Hear me! there is nothing easier than to save you from this danger; nothing more simple. Marry me!' 'I thank you, I am married.' 'What a pity! I would make you rich; I have invented steam; I can also blow up fleets with submarine boats—nothing easier; it is just as easy to deliver you. Say but a word, say yes, and I claim you and marry you, and that is all.'"

Mme. de Gontaut thanked him for his kind intentions and Fulton left her with a sigh.

The arrival of some English delegates whom she knew, gave her an opportunity of escaping from prison. She succeeded in going to Paris and seeing her relations there. She learned from them many details about her friends, the royal family, the death of the King, the Queen, and Mme. Elisabeth. Her grandmother told her of the barbarous acts of the Terrorists, the courage of the young girls, of the women; how all France had become a prison; the shutting up of all the churches. A new era, however, had begun since the death of Robespierre, and the name of young Bonaparte was already pronounced as that of a saviour. One day, in one of her walks with her brother-in-law, she met Fulton on the boulevards. He rushed to her: "Dear me, dear me, Mme. François! How glad I am to see you." Her brother-in-law found him a little familiar, and said to him: "The person you are talking to is Mlle. de Montaut [she had in Paris assumed her maiden name]" "No, no," said Fulton, "she is Mme. François; she is married; she told me so in Calais." He immediately added: "Sir, I have come to Paris for a sublime thing. I want to blow up ships, I want to make boats go by steam." Her brother-in-law took Fulton for a madman.

She returned to London and found her mother and husband; she announced to them that they were ruined, but the times were such that ruin seemed a trifling misfortune. They occupied a residence at Dover, near Deal, which Pitt had lent to the Villiers.

"At first, the scrutinizing eyes of Mr. Pitt frightened me, but I became accustomed to them. He often asked me in the evening to read to him some pages of 'Télémaque'; the Conversation of Mentor provoked his enthusiasm. I had never heard him speak a word of French, and, to my great surprise, one day when he took me home in his phaeton, he repeated to me whole speeches of his dear Mentor in French."

It is difficult for us to imagine anybody, especially an English statesman, warmed by extracts from 'Télémaque'; we look upon it as a very dull *pastiche* of antiquity. Mme. de Gontaut may have given a peculiar charm to the long speeches of "dear Mentor."

M. de Gontaut was called to attend on Monsieur, to whom the Prince Regent had granted Holyrood; he made the journey with his wife in a small phaeton, which he drove himself. There was a small French colony at Holyrood. Monsieur had but one carriage, which he lent to everybody in succession; he reserved it for himself only on Sundays.

The Memoirs of Madame de Gontaut are entirely devoid of literary merit; she jots down notes indiscriminately, and all one can do is to pick up here and there some anecdote. At Cheltenham she made the acquaintance of Arthur Wellesley, just arriving from India, and patronized the future Duke of Wellington in her small set. She was made only for a small coterie, and could find it wherever she went. She was thoroughly imbued with that narrow spirit which was one of the curses of the little world of *émigrés*. Her account of Madame de Polastron, the friend of the Comte d'Artois, is very characteristic in this respect. Madame de Polastron was married very young to a young colonel, whom she had seen only once; her marriage was a small affair, her presentation a great one. The famous dancer Vestris gave her lessons and taught her how to make her bows, how to make believe kiss the hem of the Queen's gown. "Considering, madame, the place you are to occupy, her Majesty will approach you and kiss you; you must appear full of gratitude, and try to find her hand, which she will draw back. Remember that all this must be done with grace, with a round arm. All eyes will be upon you, and remember that Vestris is your teacher." Madame de Polastron became the idol of the Comte d'Artois, who, hitherto, had been very inconstant. She inspired him with a great passion, as great as he could conceive of. She returned it with usury, devoted herself entirely to the cause of the Prince, and finally died of consumption.

Once more did Madame de Gontaut see Fulton; she was in a box at the opera in London, with Lady Mary Bentinck, Lord Clarendon, and some others. She saw Fulton in the pit, and bowed to him. He came to her box and shook hands with her. "What a pleasure, Miss Montaut, to find you here! I could hardly believe my own eyes." M. de La Tour du Pin said to him, politely: "You are probably mistaken; madame is the Viscountess of Gontaut." "Oh, dear me! this is too much; does she always change her name?" Then Madame de Gontaut told him the whole story of her journey to Calais, and of her false name. "Well," said Fulton, "let me make my compliments to your husband for having a wife who for a moment threatened to make me lose my head or give myself to the devil."

Mme. de Gontaut remained in England as long as the Empire endured. She returned to France with Louis XVIII. Her Memoirs have all the elements of interest to be found in the memories of a person who saw the first and second Restoration, the Revolution of 1830, who was intimate with the chief political actors of her time; but it must be confessed that she did not know how to use these elements. There is a perpetual tone of commonplace in the volume which has been published. A systematic admiration of the Princes, of their surroundings, of her own family, becomes in the end very fatiguing. Molière places in the mouth of his "Avare," *Harpagon*, this speech to his cook: "The great thing is to make a good dinner with little money." What shall we think of the cook who makes a bad dinner with a great deal of money? Mme. de Gontaut may be compared to such a cook in a literary sense. One leaves her Memoirs with an impression of dulness and fatigue.

Correspondence.

OUR NEUTRALITY IN CHILI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Ever since the revolution in Chili began, the attitude assumed by the United States Minister, Consuls, and Admirals, has been such as to meet with severest censure from all Americans here resident; and I am sure that were the American public acquainted with the facts, it would, with only increased energy, condemn their conduct and that of the Government at Washington which allows it.

Many things have been passed over in silence, each one excusing or accepting, as best he could, the just taunts cast against our representatives. Now, however, the limit of toleration is passed, and I raise my humble protest, seeking the courtesy of your columns to make it known, and soliciting the aid of your pen to denounce this last act of dishonor, disloyalty, and cowardly meanness toward a weaker nation.

Yesterday morning the *Esmeralda* a second time appeared off the bay, and the stir among the Dictator's forces made it apparent that the Congressional arms were effecting a landing. It was rumored that troops were disembarking in Quinteros, an inlet twenty miles directly north of Valparaiso. Distrust of the news was likewise apparent from the uncertainty attending the movement of the shore forces, though troops were despatched to the point of threatened attack.

There were in the bay one German and two British war ships, and the United States cruiser *San Francisco*. At about noon the *San Francisco* was seen to be steaming out. Observers of all nationalities, natives included, asserted that she was going out to spy for Balmaceda. This was hooted at by the Americans, who anticipated that she was going out to meet the *Esmeralda;* but she soon passed that vessel, and was lost to sight round the distant point of Quinteros Bay. She returned at five P. M., and was almost immediately boarded by the United States Consul, who went out in one of the Captain of the Port's boats. When they came back, though it is asserted that the port authorities were not allowed on board, yet I know positively that on landing they knew the number of transports, war vessels, and es-

timated number of men disembarked. The same evening, too, it was public news that the *San Francisco* had seen twelve transports, including three tugs and six men-of-war, in Quinteros Bay, and that the opposition had landed between 8,000 and 9,000 men. Though discrediting the story, one could not but feel that Admiral Brown had been most indiscreet in going out to Quinteros at such a critical moment, to a place where certainly no protection of American interests, but pure curiosity, called him; especially since by going he laid himself open to such imputations of disloyalty to neutrality and honor.

Not long after the return of the *San Francisco*, unwonted activity and decision marked the movement of the Government troops, which were hurried out by the railroad line early in the evening. This did not look well, yet our dismay can be imagined when newspaper boys this morning were calling out: "News of the fleet, brought by the *San Francisco*," and the Government paper, which accompanies this (the only one published this morning), began its account with the following: (Translation) "*From trustworthy news brought by the U. S. war ship San Francisco*, which arrived yesterday, we know for a fact that the revolutionists have, from their twelve transports and six war vessels, disembarked about 8,000 men in the vicinity of Concon and Quinteros," etc.

I know that the German Admiral and British Captain were each invited to send an officer. The former accepted, while the latter declined, because he felt such a proceeding unwarranted and despicable.

Comment is scarcely necessary. The bare statement of facts is sufficient to place Admiral Brown in no enviable light. An enemy (which the vast majority of the intelligent people and masses of the country regard as the representative of the Constitutional Government of Chili) was landing in an out-of-the-way, almost uninhabited bay, where no menace to any American interests could possibly be; and yet, when the Dictator's forces were in a quandary as to what was actually occurring there, a United States vessel goes out. On her return the real state of affairs becomes publicly known, and on that information forces are immediately thrown out along the line. That "our country" should have ever had representatives whose curiosity should lead them to such a breach of honorable dealing in behalf of tyranny and the worst form of military despotism, is disgraceful; yet the time may come when the revelation of a much more outrageous instance of the United States Navy having given a helping hand to Balmaceda and his accursed cause, may be made when further proof is obtained.

Heavy fighting has to-day been going on to the north of this, and the advance in the direction from which the sound of firing came, showed that the Congressional forces have gained ground. Late this afternoon transports were seen going south, decked with bunting. They have scored a victory and gained a footing. It will be rapid work now. Balmaceda will not hold out for the completion of his term of office, which constitutionally expires September 18. The Dictatorship is near its end. Congress and the people are bound to win. Would that the United States officials here had sympathized with the right! The influence of its representatives has unfortunately been on the side of oppression, cruelty, and tyranny. Their conduct, I regret to have to say it, has been unmanly and unjustifiable.

JOHN TRUMBULL.

VALPARAISO, CHILI, August 21.

P. S., AUGUST 24.—The *Gaceta Comercial*, from which I quoted above, was closed the following day. What raised the ire of the authorities was not, I believe, the *San Francisco* item, but the statement that Balmaceda had come on from Santiago to lead his troops in person. He is reported as having been seen in this vicinity. Certainly, his stanchest supporters are all here, and with him will probably, when the inevitable defeat comes, go on board the *San Francisco* to escape the punishment they justly merit.

If Admiral Brown, remarked an American resident to me, had only at this juncture observed neutrality as well as he did during the Peruvian war, when it led him to withhold assistance from drowning men at the blowing up of the Chilian transport *Loa* in Callao Bay, all would have been well—and this letter would never have been written.

J. T.

REV. LAWRENCE WASHINGTON OF PURLEIGH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Following up the suggestion made in the *Nation* for July 16, 1891, that the MS. authorities for Walker's 'Account of the Sufferings of the Clergy' were in the Bodleian Library, Mr. H. F. Waters has recently examined the volumes with gratifying results. He writes under date of September 1, 1891: "This afternoon I came upon the chief letter upon which he [Walker] evidently depended for his information about the sequestered rector of Purleigh." This letter, he adds,

"was in worse order than anything I had been looking at. It, and two or three accompanying papers, had evidently suffered from dampness, and had been eaten, I think, by flies, perhaps mice. The letter was probably written in 1706 (judging from the dates of those near it), but where from or whom by there was nothing on the face of it to disclose at first sight. It was devoted to the cases of Mr. Cherry, Mr. Washington, and Mr. Wright of Witham. He spoke of Mr. Cherry as having 'dwelt 20 miles from me.' A little farther on he writes: 'The first visitation our diocesan made here at Easterford Kelvedon Mr. Cherry preached,' etc. Then comes this reference:

"'I doe not remember that ever I knew or heard of Mr. Washington after he had been sequestered, but there was then one Mr. Roberts a neighbor of mine who was owner and patron of a parish so small that nobody would accept of his church (but with difficulty) and Mr. Roberts entertained Mr. Washington, where he was suffered quietly to preach. I have heard him and tooke him to be a very worthy pious man. I have been in his company there, and he appeared a very modest sober person, and I heard him recommended as such by several gentlemen who knew him before I did. He was a loyal person, and had one of the best benefices in these parts, and this was the onely cause of his expulsion as I verily believe.'"

Mr. Waters adds that against both paragraphs, viz, relating to Mr. Cherry and Mr. Washington, Walker had written, "See last paragraph in this ——. J. W." Turning to the last paragraph, where dampness and flies had done the most mischief, Mr. Waters could make out only the word "Braxted." A reference to Morant's 'Essex' showed that Braxted Parva was just such a poor, mean living, and that the patron was Thomas Roberts. The Visitation of Essex shows the Roberts to have been there for four generations in 1634. A comparison of handwritings showed that the writer of this letter was the Henry Ayloffe who wrote another letter in the same collection, under date of March 26, 1706, annotated by Walker as "Esquire and Justice of the Peace." As Morant says that the Ayloffes had their chief seat at Braxted Magna, this letter seems to be of the highest authority. There was a Henry Ayloffe, third son, born about 1630, according to the Visitation of Essex, in 1634, who seems to be the writer. The early register of Little Braxted seems to be lost, but probably further search will give more particulars about Lawrence Washington there.

Immediately following this discovery, another bit of evidence appears. A few days later, Miss Emma M. Walford (of 46 Great Coram Street, Russell Square, London), a well-known expert genealogist, discovered and sent forward an entry in the register of the parish of All Saints, Maldon, Essex, as follows:

"Mr. Laurence Washington buried January 21, 1652."

Maldon is but three miles north from Purleigh, and is an old and comparatively large town, the natural abiding-place of any one interested in Purleigh. The inference is irresistible that we have at last discovered the death of George Washington's last English progenitor. I may here add that Little Braxted is about six miles north from Maldon, lying just to the east of Witham. From Purleigh to Braxted is less than nine miles in an air line.

In this connection another clue may be suggested. When the library of the late S. G. Drake was sold at Boston, May, 1876, lot No. 8130 was entitled "*Ohel* or *Beth shemesh*, a Tabernacle for the Sun; or *Irenicum Evangelicum*. An Idea Church of Church Discipline in the Theorick and Practick Parts," London, 1653, 4to. The author was John Rogers, rector of Purleigh, the successor of Lawrence Washington, and the one who paid a portion of the tithes to Mrs. Washington, as shown by Mr. M. D. Conway in *Harper's Magazine* for May, 1891. Mr. John Ward Dean remembers the book as containing some autobiographical items. If the purchaser of Drake's copy, or the happy owner of any other copy, will now examine it, possibly some item may be found in regard to Purleigh. I should like very much to see the book.—Yours very truly,

W. H. WHITMORE.

BOSTON, September 30, 1891.

P. S.—In order to give all possible clues, I would say that in *Notes and Queries*, 7th s. xii. p. 23, July 11, 1891, a writer signing himself "Vernon" made a coarse and apparently venomous attack on Mr. Waters's book. "Vernon" speaks of some deeds which he had lately copied, one of which shows that Sir John, and not Sir William, was the oldest son of the Lawrence Washington of Sulgrave who died in 1616.

"This Sir John of Thrapston in 1627 became bound for a debt of John Lord Mordaunt, afterwards Earl of Peterborough, and after the Earl's death he was sued and outlawed for the debt, which may account for the mystery which seems to shroud him also. Another of these deeds, in which yet another Laurence occurs, fourth in direct descent from the grantee of Sulgrave, gives just a possibility of a different link. If any one unconnected with the New England Society is interested enough and has time, which I have not, to work out this possibility, I shall be glad to give my references and any notes likely to be of use."

I hope some one of your readers not belonging to the New England Historic-Genealogical Society, to which this "Vernon" has so pronounced a dislike, will follow up this challenge and see if he has any information worth notice.

WHAT THE RUSSIANS READ.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The London correspondent of the New York *Times*, not long ago having finished with William II. of Germany and written *quod erat demonstrandum*, has now taken up a corollary, being prepared to finish Alexander III. of Russia. In the *Times* of Monday, September 14, he does the Russian people so great injustice that I beg of you a little space for some incontestable facts in protest. The injustice is contained especially in the italicized part of the following paragraph:

"Another indication [that "the great empire" is "marching back to barbarism"], perhaps even more significant, is found in the immense proportional increase of books printed in the Russian language. Booksellers who formerly kept a few Russian works, and devoted most of their shelf space to French, German, and even English literature, now see the conditions quite reversed. *The new Russian generation is far less inclined to reading of any sort than that which flourished under the Liberator Czar, and is also far less well educated. The demand for serious works has fallen almost to nothing. The principal display in every window and on every counter of foreign books is of Zola's novels. The Russian books, all in pamphlet form, are for the most part translations of Zola and other French novelists*, and these are annually read in increasing numbers, because younger Russians are not learning languages as their fathers did."

Our facts in refutation of this slander are taken from the St. Petersburg *Knizhny Viestnik*, the "Organ of the Russian Association of Booksellers and Publishers." In the January number of this year are given the "statistics of the book-publishing business in Russia for 1890," which show a total of 4,358 works. An analysis of the monthly numbers of 1890 shows that a single (combined) copy of all the works consisted of 680,133 pages (averaging 156 to each work), and that the number of copies all told was 11,755,503 (averaging 2,697). (It must be remarked, parenthetically, that in this journal the notice of each new work gives, almost without exception, the number of pages and the size of the edition—number of copies.) The analysis also shows that translations from foreign languages occupied but about 10 per cent. of the pages and 5½ per cent. of the copies.

The class *belles-lettres* in the table below will be seen to contain 18 per cent. of all the pages and 10 per cent. of all the copies. Of this the translations form about one-fifth by pages and one-sixth by copies. Of these translations, again, not quite one-third by pages and a little more than one-third by copies are from the French. And of these just one is a translation of Zola, of 442 pages and 2,800 copies. Against this Zola let us put some other Frenchmen, naming first number of pages and then number of copies: Gaboriau, 1,103, 8,000; Daudet, 1,137, 7,740; Hugo, 745, 6,500; Verne, 799, 5,500; Molière, 160, 5,110; Flaubert, 352, 5,000; Dumas, 282, 4,800. Others of this class are: Madame (Guizot) de Witt, Coppée, Ohnet, Cullerre, Girardin, Gérard de Nerval, etc. We cannot tell, of course, how many Russian translations of Zola get across the Tsar's borders from France and Germany; but if there were any truth in the statements about Zola's works contained in the paragraph quoted, there could not possibly be any such showing in the *Knizhny Viestnik*.

We are told that "the demand for serious works has fallen almost to nothing." The table below completely refutes that assertion; but two more examples from the class *belles-lettres* must be given, for comparison with the French: 'Paradise Lost' appears in 351 pages and 6,000 copies; and "Hamlet" in 136 pages and 10,000 copies. Where is Zola now? and where the lack of "demand for serious works"?

Class.	No. of works	Per cent. of the whole		Rus. translations: Per cent. of the class	
		by pages	by copies	by pages	by copies
Theology	244	5.7	7.3	4.79	1.06
Philosophy	46	.9	.4	26.77	24.56
Pedagogics	56	1.2	.7	12.61	3.05
Philology	455	11.2	19.1	6.49	3.07
Belles-lettres	639	18.1	10.1	20.23	16.55
Geography	119	2.7	2.1	3.34	3.79
History	281	9.6	3.6	5.11	5.12
Political science	337	12.6	3.5	2.15	1.36
Mathematics	158	2.2	3.7	3.38	1.88
Military and naval science	209	5.1	2.9	2.22	1.32
Natural science	137	2.8	1.1	10.79	14.3
Medical science	372	7.8	4.2	30.7	30.96
Technology	181	2.9	1.3	19.25	14.38
Rural economy	95	1.6	1.6	1.11	2.19
Juvenile	152	3.1	4.9	30.39	18.67
Popular (national)	410	3.6	23.5	.58	.21
Art	283	3.4	4.4	13.66	6.45
Works for reference	234	5.5	5.6	0.0	0.0
	4,358	100.0	100.0		

The *Times* correspondent seems so determined to go wrong in regard to Russia that, when obliged to recognize a fact, he would compel it to bear false witness. "The immense proportional increase of books printed in the Russian language," instead of being, as he asserts, a significant indication of a "grand national retrograde movement," is most significant of national advancement, and must delight the heart of the Russian patriot—who is not a myth, notwithstanding what a German would call the "outlandish" newspapers.

J. Sumner Smith.

New Haven, October 3, 1891.

SERVETUS AND THE CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow the correction of a possible incorrect inference from your note in the last *Nation* regarding the German translation of 'Christianismi Restitutio'? Servetus did not describe the complete circulation of the blood—*i. e.*, from the left ventricle of the heart through the vessels of the body to the right ventricle (systemic circulation), and from the right ventricle through the vessels of the lungs to the left ventricle (pulmonary circulation). It was the pulmonary circulation only that he was aware of and described (1553), in opposition to the common belief of his time that a direct communication existed between the right and left ventricles through the ventricular septum. Cæsalpinus (1593) still held to this idea of Galen regarding the porosity of the septum, but accepted in part the pulmonary circulation also. From some passages in his writings it has been inferred that he recognized the systemic circulation, but this is doubtful.

Certainly the complete circulation, in the sense of a passage of the blood through two systems of vessels and both sides of the heart and a return to its starting point, was not known until it was established by Harvey's brilliant experiments and careful observations (1628).

Frederic S. Lee.

Columbia College, October 3, 1891.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. will publish during the present month the 'Collected Writings and Memoirs of the late Field Marshal von Moltke'; 'Literary Landmarks of Edinburgh,' by Laurence Hutton; 'The Warwickshire Avon,' by T. Quiller-Couch, with illustrations by Alfred Parsons; 'Studies in the Wagnerian Drama,' by Henry E. Krehbiel; 'Arts and Criticism,' and 'The Spanish-American Republics,' by Theodore Child; 'American Football,' by Walter Camp; an *édition de luxe* of 'Ben Hur,' in two volumes, with 20 full-page photogravures and more than a thousand marginal drawings from designs by William Martin Johnson; 'Life and Letters of Gen. Thomas J. ("Stonewall") Jackson,' by his widow, edited by the Rev. Dr. Henry M. Field; and 'Sharp Eyes,' insect, bird, and flower studies by W. Hamilton Gibson.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in preparation 'The Divorce of Catherine of Aragon,' by J. A. Froude; 'Japonica,' Sir Edwin Arnold's observations on Japan, with illustrations by Robert Blum; 'Travels amongst the Great Andes of the Equator,' by Edward Whymper; 'Lyra Heroica,' by W. E. Henley; 'Across Russia,' by Dr. Charles A. Stoddard; 'Ocean Steamships,' the series of papers that have been running in *Scribner's Magazine*; 'Nature and Man in America,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'On the Border with Crook,' by Capt. John G. Bourke, with illustrations; 'Elsket, and Other Stories,' by Thomas Nelson Page; and the "American History Series" in epochs—Prof. Geo. P. Fisher of Yale treating of discovery and colonization; Prof. W. M. Sloane of Princeton, of the French Wars and the Revolution; President F. A. Walker of the Boston Institute of Technology, of the Constitution and national consolidation; and Prof. J. W. Burgess of Columbia, of the period from the peace of 1815 to the end of Reconstruction—this last occupying two volumes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in hand 'The Odes and Epodes of Horace,' translated into English verse by the Rev. John B. Hague, with notes and a parallel eclectic Latin text and references to previous translations; 'The Art Teaching of John Ruskin,' by W. G. Collingwood; 'A Guide to Greek Tragedy,' by Prof. L. Campbell; and 'English Literature during the Past Fifty Years,' by Mrs. Oliphant. They have nearly ready a revised and enlarged edition of Mr. Chas. Burr Todd's 'History of the Burr Family,' with a chapter, by Justice Bradley of the United States Supreme Court, on the Wheeler family, with which the Burrs were closely allied.

Macmillan & Co. promise an *édition de luxe* of Mrs. Oliphant's 'Makers of Florence,' with 200 additional plates; Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford,' with illustrations by Hugh Thomson; a 'Browning Cyclopædia,' with commentary and explanations, by Dr. Edward Berdoe; and 'Man and Beast in India,' by L. J. Kipling, father of the novelist.

'A Frenchman in America,' by Max O'Rell, with numerous illustrations by Kemble, is in the press of Cassell & Co.

Kemble will also lend his pencil to a holiday edition of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have undertaken; and Edward H. Garrett will illustrate their new issue of Whittier's 'Snow-Bound.'

Prof. Alpheus S. Packard's 'The Labrador Coast: a Journal of Two Summer Cruises to that Region,' which has been delayed in publication, is set down for the present month by N. D. C. Hodges, 47 Lafayette Place.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will share in the English enterprise of issuing a group of volumes of sermons or addresses selected or expressly written by distinguished representative men in the Church of England and in the chief branches of British Nonconformity. Each will contain a portrait of the author, a biographical sketch, and a bibliography. The Archbishop of Canterbury leads off with 'Living Theology.'

Little, Brown & Co. will bring out a collection of 'Elizabethan Songs,' with an introduction by Andrew Lang and illustrations by E. H. Garrett.

The 'Calendar of Sonnets by H. H.,' announced by Roberts Brothers, will have twelve illustrations by Émile Bayard and vignettes by Garrett.

J. C. Nimmo, London, begins his list of new books for the present month with a limited reprint of 'The Humorist,' containing forty illustrations by George Cruikshank, colored by hand; together with 'The Cruikshankian Momus,' pictorial broadsides and humorous song-headings by the three Cruikshanks, being fifty-two designs, also colored by hand. Other titles are: 'Last Words on the History of the Title-page,' with notes on some colophons and twenty-seven facsimiles of title-pages (including the first page of the Mazarin Bible), by Alfred W. Pollard; new editions of 'Notitia Venatica,' a treatise on fox-hunting, by Robert T. Vyner, and of Joseph Grego's 'Reminiscences and Recollections of Captain Gronow,' with hand-colored illustrations in each case; the 'Dramatic Works of George Farquhar,' edited by Alex. Charles Ewald, in two volumes, limited to 520 copies; and 'The Soft Porcelain of Sèvres,' fifty plates, royal folio, with an historical introduction by Édouard Garnier.

Mr. J. Scott of the British civil service in Corea, who issued a few years ago his Corean Phrase-book, is now seeing through the press a 'Dictionary of the Corean Language.' The work is based on seven years' research among the native records and official documents and oral sources of the language, Mr. Scott being among the first to master the vernacular on the ground and among the people. The book will be ready before the end of the year.

The definitive edition of Dr. Holmes's writings which is now being published, under the author's supervision, by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., is beyond the need of comment for its contents. It will fill thirteen duodecimo volumes, exactly matching the final Lowell in size and in type, but the printed page is broader and slightly more condensed, and the margins are narrower. The binding is in a red cloth, with a leather stamp, and does not indicate the series by volume numbers, so that purchasers can take the set or any part. The prose leads off, and the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table' constitutes vol. i., and bears the likeness of Dr. Holmes at the age of forty. In the fourth volume, 'Over the Teacups,' there is an etched portrait, later, but without date. Characteristic new prefaces are prefixed to each volume. The "Autocrat" returns an unaffected "encyclical of thanks" to his multitude of admirers and correspondents, and seizes the opportunity to recant an intimation, in his preface of 1882, that mechanical invention had exhausted itself with the telescope and electric illumination. The electric motor has rebuked him, and we hope the flying-machine will do so in its turn. The "Professor" congratulates himself on the liberal tendencies within the evangelical sects, and the evidence that "there is no such thing as an air-tight reservoir of doctrinal finalities." The "Poet" deplores afresh the evil consequences of "the process of scientific specialization"; it is the only pessimistic note in these prefaces. The indexes, indispensable accompaniments of Dr. Holmes's discursiveness, are seductive to any mind not wholly devoid of intellectual curiosity.

The meritorious translations from the Dialogues of Plato, by an anonymous admirer, which the Scribners have been publishing at intervals during the past dozen years, now amount to four volumes, 'Socrates,' 'A Day in Athens with Socrates,' 'Talks with Socrates about Life,' and 'Talks with Athenian Youths.' Made each for the hand, as a group they seem appropriately to belong together in a box, and so they come to us, in a reissue which deserves to be borne in mind as the gift season approaches.

Since we are speaking of new editions, it will be in place to mention here Loftie's 'Westminster Abbey,' with Herbert Railton's and other illustrations, a comely octavo (Macmillan); Capt. Metcalfe's 'Course of Instruction in Ordnance and Gunnery' (John Wiley & Sons); Van Dyke's 'Poetry of Tennyson,' revised and enlarged (Scribners); and John Rae's 'Contemporary Socialism' (Scribners). Mr. Van Dyke has added a chapter taking account of Tennyson's latest production, and another for a guide to the study of Tennyson by a classification of his poems. He has also revised the valuable chronology of Tennyson's Life and Works, with the aid of the poet himself. The most extensive revisions of Mr. Rae's work are found in the chapters on "The Progress and Present Position of Socialism" and on "Russian Nihilism," while two new chapters have been added—"Anarchism" and "State Socialism"—the latter being nearly 100 pages long. We can but repeat the praise of the author's thorough research and philosophic temper which we expressed on the appearance of the first edition, in 1884.

Prof. Buchheim, the indefatigable editor and interpreter of German poetry and prose, has given us another fruit of his labor in an attractive little volume of 'Balladen und Romanzen' (Golden Treasury Series, Macmillan & Co., 1891), which is in every way a worthy companion to his 'Deutsche Lyrik,' published some ten years ago. The same praiseworthy accuracy in the rendering of the text, the same careful adherence to the chronological order, the same cautious, somewhat pedantic judgment of artistic merit which characterized the earlier volume, are to be found here again, and help to make up a collection of narrative German poetry which it is not too much to say is truly representative. Some minor objections to Prof. Buchheim's criticism and method of selection might, of course, easily be raised. It is hard to see what is gained by such a dubious statement as his definition of *Ballade* as a dramatic-lyrical, of *Romanze* as an epic-lyrical poem. It is to be regretted that he should not have found space for at least a few specimens of the popular ballad. No possible excuse, it seems, could be found for the insertion of such a trashy production as H. Pröhle's "Kaiserwoort in Goslar," based on an absurd piece of *Volksetymologie*, and destitute of any idea or sentiment, except an almost insipid Byzantinism. But it would be unfair to dwell on the defects of a work which, taken as a whole, must be ranked with the best of its kind, and which is a most welcome addition to the unfortunately small number of trustworthy and well-edited German text-books.

The folio 'Popular Hand-Atlas of the World' which bears the imprint of T. Nelson & Sons, proceeds from the house of J. Bartholomew in Edinburgh, and is an abridgment of the 'Library Reference Atlas' made by the same cartographer for Macmillan & Co. last year. Many of the maps are identical, some are reduced in size, and there are sixty-seven in all as against eighty-four in the fuller collection. With an eye to the American market, the maps of North and South America precede those of Europe and the rest of the Eastern Hemisphere. The United States are delineated on a fairly large scale, as in the 'Library Reference Atlas,' but the map of Virginia and the Carolinas has been for some reason omitted from the series, and Maine has been docked from procrustean necessity, as Florida has been. The execution of the Bartholomew maps is familiar to all who have at all compared atlases. They succeed in being clear, and err on that side rather than on the side of fulness. This collection will be found handy, and it is provided with a "descriptive index," which is really a one-line gazetteer, and does not locate the names on the maps by ordinates and coördinates. A 'Globe Hand-Atlas,' from the same maker and publishers, is large octavo in form, and gives fifty-four maps, with an index by latitude and longitude. Three of the number exhibit classical geography, and some show the physical geography of the chief continents.

Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, sends us two more examples of his school wall-maps, namely, fourth editions of South America (political) and Africa (physical), by Heinrich Kiepert, revised by Richard Kiepert. They are on the same scale, 1:8,000,000, and are in four and six sheets respectively, strongly colored to catch the eye. It is to be remarked that the physical map of Africa is not devoid of names of places, bays, rivers, mountains, etc. The authority of the Kieperts, father and son, needs no endorsement from us.

Mr. Hamerton pursues his theme of "The Present State of the Fine Arts in France," in the *Portfolio* for August and September (Macmillan). He treats first (it is really eighthly) of the caricaturists—a race almost extinct in England, as he says, referring to "the genuine old caricature," whereas French caricature has survived and "made progress during the last twenty years." He regards "'Caran d'Ache' (pronounced 'd'Ash')" as the most original and inventive of living caricaturists, carrying the narrative style to perfection. In his ninth paper, Mr. Hamerton deals with portrait and landscape, and has some judicious observations on the practice, so common in Salons, of withholding the names of private persons whose portraits are exhibited. This may be delicacy or a *conditio sine qua non*, in most cases, but Mr. Hamerton suggests a descriptive title, *e. g.*, "The Lady with One Glove," as an aid to memory in place of "Madame D." He thinks there is a strong present tendency to be truthful in portraiture. In discoursing of landscape he says that though France vies with the best in Switzerland or Spain, "very few Frenchmen have attacked mountainous scenery with success."

A landscape by Binet, "La Grand' Mare à Saint-Aubin, près Quillebœuf," cited by Mr. Hamerton as an example of this painter's capacity for laying before us an extensive tract of country, is reproduced by process in *L'Art* for July 15 (Macmillan), and substantiates the justice of this critic's praise. In the same

number a worthy companion of Caran d'Ache, "Crafty," is represented in delightful narrative caricature. And again, in the issue for August 15, we meet with Émile Friant's "Ombres Portées," which Mr. Hamerton mentions for its portrait quality, though he describes it accurately as "a very middle-class man, far from handsome, . . . expressing silent love and adoration [he is squeezing her hand] for a very middle-class woman, far from pretty, and who does not seem encouraging."

In *Sun and Shade* for October (New York: Photo-Gravure Co.) the first plate in position and in importance is the portrait of James Russell Lowell from the Gutekunst negative, which is one of the landmarks of the poet's latter age. Lowell is also remembered abundantly in the current number of the *New England Magazine*, where reminiscences by Edward Everett Hale and verses by Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton are followed by a very serviceable account of the *Pioneer* by E. D. Mead. Mr. Mead gives several examples of Mr. Lowell's contributions to this short-lived venture, and they warrant the remark that "there is no word which Lowell wrote for the *Pioneer* which is not interesting as read to-day." The interest of the article is greatly heightened by facsimiles of the title-page of No. 1 of the *Pioneer* and of some of its illustrations, including one by a Cruikshankian Boston caricaturist, D. C. Johnston, who did not deserve the oblivion into which he has fallen. Before leaving this number of the *New England Magazine*, which is replete with profitable reading, we should mention the opening pages of Gen. B. F. Butler's autobiography.

It is pleasant to record the fact that at the recent Berlin Exhibition the Grand Prize of Honor was awarded to the Society of American Wood-Engravers.

"E. J. S." writes from Washington: "Apropos of the controversy between philosopher and rain-maker, may we not infer from the presence of meteorological instruments that production of rain must be preceded by careful barometric observations? Of course you know the laconic advice given by the bishop to the curate, when asked for his sanction of prayers for rain: 'First consult the barometer'?"

"S. I. S." writes from New Haven: "Lowell's lines, quoted by Mr. Whitney in the last *Nation*, are from 'To the Muse,' in the volume entitled 'Under the Willows,' published in 1869, and also in the 'Household Edition' of the Poetical Works, published in 1876."

"In the *Nation* of September 24," writes "J. W.," "'X.' thinks *gotten* is not one of those 'numerous survivals' of Elizabethan English current here and obsolete in England; but Hakluyt ('Westerne Planting,' p. 102), writing in 1584, was certainly Elizabethan when he said, 'They have *gotten* the starte of us.'"

—It is perhaps not too much to call M. Jules Huret's 'Enquête sur l'Evolution littéraire' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern) one of the most extraordinary books in the history of authorship. M. Huret is a reporter on the staff of an enterprising French daily newspaper called *L'Écho de Paris*, and during March, April, May, and June of this year he went about Paris asking the leading literary men of the French capital their opinions as to the literary outlook, as to whether or not the naturalism of M. Zola was dead or dying, as to whether the psychologists would inherit the vogue of the departed Naturalists, and as to the value of the new school of Symbolists. Sixty-four interviews in all appeared in the newspaper, and are now reprinted in the present volume, accompanied by various letters, corrections, and supplementary opinions. Nowhere but in France could such a book have been possible; nowhere else is there such a keen interest in the principles and manifestations of literary art; nowhere else are there so many young authors ardently in search of new formulas. In the main, the discussion is curious rather than fruitful, but it supplies abundant material for satiric opinion of the literary temperament. The younger men especially are unsparing iconoclasts, and respect none of their elders; nor do they dwell together in amity among themselves. The new school of poets, the Decadents and the Symbolists, are especially intolerant towards each other. Even a man as old as M. Leconte de Lisle allows himself to cast reflections on M. Anatole France, with the result that pistols and coffee seemed probable; but once again "your If is your only peacemaker." The only American author of whom any of the disputants seem ever to have heard is Poe, although one of the sixty-four cites Emerson casually. Two of the Symbolists are Americans, Mr. Stuart Merrill and Mr. Viele-Griffin; one is a Greek, M. Moreas; and another coming light, M. Maurice Maeterlinck, is a Belgian. Altogether, M. Huret's book is a most amusing exhibition of *fin de siècle* Parisianism.

—In the discussion of the authorship of the Aristotle papyrus, now in full swing, the doubters appear to be mainly British scholars, while the Germans—with two or three conspicuous exceptions—accept the treatise as Aristotle's, as even more Aristotelian than Aristotle himself. In Ad. Bauer ('Literarische und Historische Forschungen,' etc. Munich: Beck), we have a thoroughgoing vindicator of the Aristotelian authorship, as also of the enormous value of the work, in which, he claims, we have at last the key to many vexed problems of Athenian history. He provides a useful chronological table for the period between B. C. 595 and 446. We miss a satisfactory discussion of Aristotle's sources, and think Bauer wrong in some of his corrections of the text; but his little book is distinctly the most important contribution yet made to the literature of the papyrus. Schvarcz, whose brilliant and original work on Democracy is known to all students of institutions, wishes to assign the treatise to Demetrius of Phaleron, the "Phalereus" of Milton, friend of Theophrastus and Governor of Athens B. C. 317-307 (*Ungarische Revue*, April). Rühl of Königsberg rejects it as unworthy of Aristotle, but makes no suggestion as to its author (*Rheinisches Museum*, vol. xlvi, No. 3). Fr. Cauer's contention, in his 'Hat Aristoteles die Schrift vom Staat der Athener geschrieben?' (Stuttgart: Göschen), that the work was independently composed by a pupil of Aristotle, will commend itself only to those who concur with Cauer in finding defects in it inexplicable on the hypothesis of Aristotelian authorship, and are ready to reject all positive testimony on the point. We are disposed to admit that Aristotle had help in collecting material, and that small portions of the treatise may have been compiled by another hand; but it is clear that these parts were revised and touched up by Aristotle—though not rewritten—and the whole work carries the weight of his name. It is pushing scepticism too far to deny to Aristotle a work accepted as his by his younger contemporaries, unchallenged in antiquity, with many internal evidences of genuineness, merely because it is not quite what we should have looked for. We must not forget that our ideal has been formed upon works written for a different purpose, themselves not wholly free from suspicion. This popular and sketchy "primer of Athenian constitutional history and citizen's handbook," as it has been happily characterized by an English scholar, is not to be judged as if it aimed to be a body of political doctrine, systematically arranged, for the use of the well-informed members of the Peripatetic school.

—In the Prince Consort Prize Dissertation for 1890, by J. W. Headlam of King's College, 'Election by Lot at Athens' (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan), we have an ingenious discussion of an interesting question, brought to date by the use of the new 'Constitution of Athens.' The writer aims to show that election by lot, though religious in origin, had, as practised, no religious significance whatever; that it flourished because it was a thoroughly democratic institution. It secured perfect equality among the citizens, rotation in office, and the authority of the Assembly. In the sense that democracy is inverted monarchy (Sir H. Maine), the Assembly ruled absolutely, becoming at times the "Tyrant Demos"; it had its favorite advisers, but there were no such things at Athens as party organizations and party management in our sense. Mr. Headlam's essay is original in its sharp criticism of the current view that party feeling at Athens found expression in the elections of generals and of other officers. He argues that elections had no political meaning whatever, since the officials elected had small powers, and were under the constant control of the Assembly. Party feeling found its vent, if anywhere, at the law-courts: the "sycophant" was the bane of ancient politics, where lot prevailed; whereas modern states, where elections are the rule, are cursed by the wire-puller. To choice by lot are due two good features in the Athenian system, which is a more genuine form of democracy than has since come into existence, viz., unexampled regularity and purity in the administration of the State, and absence of intense and long-continued party passion. The author's contention that elections had no party or political significance, seems hardly borne out by all the facts; but he does well to bring extravagant opinions on the subject back to the right mean. There are a few slips—*e. g.*, Aeschines was Ambassador in Peloponnese in B. C. 348, not in 346 (p. 73); Demosthenes was Commissioner for Fortifications in B. C. 337, not 338 (p. 107); the plans criticised by the Boulé were probably designs for the embroidery on the peplus of Athena, not plans of temples (p. 189); misprints on pp. 94, 168, 183, 187, etc.—but the little book is an important and suggestive one. The writer's originality, combined with sobriety, and his lucidity of statement, lead us to look for further valuable work from him.

—A rare monument of literary industry and indomitable perseverance under seemingly insuperable difficulties is Constant von Wurzbach's 'Biographisches Lexikon des Kaiserthums Oesterreich,' the sixtieth and final volume of which has just appeared. The author, who was born at Laibach in the Austrian province of Illyria, and is now in the seventy-fourth year of his age, began life as a soldier, entering the army at eighteen before he had finished his studies at the university. After four years of rather severe military service, he was promoted in 1841 to the rank of lieutenant. At that time his regiment was stationed in Lemberg in Galicia, where he had an opportunity of resuming his academical pursuits, and, in 1843, after passing an *examne*

rigorosum, he received the degree of doctor of philosophy from the university of that city. In 1844 he threw up his commission and was appointed to a place in the library of the Lemberg University; four years later he was transferred to a similar position in the Imperial Library at Vienna and made keeper of the archives of the Ministry of the Interior. The first sheets of the 'Biographical Lexicon,' which it was originally intended to complete in a dozen volumes, were printed in 1855. Not only the labor, but also the entire cost, of the undertaking rested at first upon the shoulders of Wurzbach, whose finances were hardly able to sustain the heavy burden. Fortunately, with the issue of the sixth volume, the very favorable criticisms of the work, especially by the German press, induced the Austrian Government to intervene and bear a portion of the expense of publication; the Imperial Academy of Sciences also voted a small sum to be paid on the completion of each successive volume. Ultimately, he was granted a permanent leave of absence in order that he might devote all his time and energy to his important task, while retaining his official position and enjoying the emoluments of it. Very soon, too, it became evident that the mass of material which had been already collected, and was constantly increasing, could not be advantageously compressed within the narrow limits originally proposed. The author resolved, therefore, to enlarge his plan, to give himself ample space and scope, and to do full justice to the subjects treated, regardless of the size which his work might finally attain. For his purpose the political boundaries of the Austrian Empire are the same to-day as they were in 1855; he ignores the battles of Magenta, Solferino, and Königgrätz, and the treaties of peace concluded at Villafranca and Prague, and regards Lombardy and Venice as still under the sceptre of Franz Joseph. He also retains administrative divisions of the empire that have long ceased to exist, and are now well-nigh forgotten, such as the territory formerly known as "Serbische Wojwodschaft und Temeser Banat," which was made a "crown-land" in 1849, but, on the reconstitution of Hungary in 1860, was, by an imperial decree, reunited with the kingdom of the Magyars. These otherwise harmless anachronisms are sometimes confusing to readers not perfectly familiar with the many political metamorphoses which the domain of the Hapsburgs has undergone.

—The unique value and epochal significance of Wurzbach's 'Lexicon' lie in the fact that it contains information concerning sovereigns, statesmen, scholars, musicians, poets, artists, authors, and other distinguished persons, not elsewhere easily accessible, and gives interesting glimpses into the intellectual characteristics and peculiar culture of the manifold and rather motley races of eastern Europe, of which the rest of the civilized world knows very little and has only scanty means of knowing anything more. Not the least of the preliminary difficulties which our author had to overcome, was the mastery of seventeen languages, without which it would have been impossible for him to carry on his investigations. These were the tools in the use of which he must become skilled before he could begin to quarry the material necessary to the construction of the edifice he had designed. That a work of this kind should be more or less strongly colored by the single mind which conceived and executed it is inevitable. One may not always be ready to endorse the personal views or political opinions expressed by Wurzbach, but no one, we think, will ever consult these volumes without finding what he seeks, nor lay them down without a warm feeling of gratitude to the man who had the boldness to enter upon such a gigantic task and the energy and erudition requisite for its successful completion. We may add that the 'Biographical Lexicon' is only one of many works on which Wurzbach's literary and scholarly reputation rests. Among his earlier publications we find a 'Bibliographical-Statistical Survey of the Literature of the Austrian Empire' (3 vols., 1854–56), in the form of official reports as librarian to the Minister of the Interior, Baron Alexander von Bach, and full of valuable information. Besides his 'Polish and Ruthenian Folk-Songs,' his 'Polish Proverbs,' his monograph on 'The Churches of Cracow' (an interesting contribution to the political and ecclesiastical history of Poland, as well as to the architecture and antiquities of the former capital of the Polish Republic), his well-known 'Schillerbuch,' his 'Historical Words, Proverbs, and Phrases,' and other works of a like character, he is the author of several volumes of verse published under the semi-pseudonym of W. Constant. The best of these productions are unquestionably the epics and ballads in his 'Gemmen' (Hamburg, 1855) and 'Cameen' (Düsseldorf, 1856), and his translations from various Slavic tongues, although as a lyrical poet he is by no means inferior to the multitude of ready rhymists who are essaying to climb the German Parnassus. In further proof of his versatility it may be stated that he printed at Lemberg in 1843 a book on the 'Elements of Geometry,' which was favorably received, and gave evidence of his ability to attain eminence as a mathematician had he not been diverted from this course by the superior charms of the Muses.

RECENT CELTIC LITERATURE.

Studies in the Arthurian Legend. By John Rhys. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891. Pp. viii., 411.

The Fians, etc. By J. G. Campbell. Introduction by Alfred Nutt. London: David Nutt. 1891. Pp. xxxviii., 292.

LIGHT is slowly but surely creeping over the dark places of our earth. And what could be darker and more labyrinthian, even to the professed student, than the Arthurian cycle? Yet for both reader and poet the nebulous world of Arthur and his knights and dames has always had a strange charm. Not to go beyond the bounds of English literature, we need only cite the names of Malory in the fifteenth century, Spenser in the sixteenth, Milton in the seventeenth, Tennyson, Swinburne, and Matthew Arnold in our own. Despite the cavils and strictures of critics of the logical school, we may admit, once for all, that the Arthurian atmosphere is congenial to poetry of a certain kind. Whether that kind be the highest and best, is another question. Enough to see and feel that it *is* poetry.

But the Arthurian world is, we have said, dark and labyrinthian. More than that, it is uncanny. Even in the Tennysonian adaptation *in usum Delphini*, there are touches of gloom that make one shrink. And the further back in the centuries one reads, the greater one's perplexity. How did it all come about, this mixture of religious fervor and blatant sensuality typifying the middle ages? What was the origin, or at least what is the final analysis, of such conglomerates as Arthur and Guinevere, Modred, Merlin, Lancelot, Gawain, Galahad, Tristan, and Isolde? To such questions Prof. Rhys's book supplies an answer which, if not final, is at least sufficient for the year and the century, and which does honor to the Oxford chair.

First, but not least, let us congratulate the author upon his perfect urbanity. This is no empty compliment. For ten years now the province of Celtic philology has been overhung by skies of blood and Apocalyptic vials of wrath. Zimmer, single-handed, on the one side, and Windisch, Stokes, Arbois de Jubainville, and their auxiliaries on the other, have waged bitter war. Charges and countercharges, incriminations and recriminations, have been hurled with deadly aim. Perhaps the cause of scholarship may ultimately gain through the shock of contention. But to live in this surcharged atmosphere is assuredly not pleasant. All the more welcome, therefore, must be a book which not only is replete with scholarship, but which breathes the blessed spirit of peace to all men of good will.

In general it seems to us that our author postulates too much in the ordinary reader. By this we mean not so much his assumption that the reader is, or ought to be, familiar with his Hibbert 'Lectures on Celtic Heathendom,' published in 1888 (the book is not difficult to procure), as his assumption that the reader possesses an off-hand familiarity with the salient features of Arthurian story, ancient and modern, and with the characteristics of Celtic literary form. This is a very rare acquisition. Those who have it can be counted off on the fingers of one's hand. Our readers may test the matter for themselves. Let them try to "place" an Arthurian name, trait, or incident in Gildas, Nennius, Geoffrey of Monmouth, Chrétien of Troyes, the 'Mabinogion,' the Welsh Triads, or in Malory. We are far from seeking a quarrel with so amiable and conscientious a searcher after truth. We admit freely the force of his statement, in the preface, that it has been his "chief object . . . to make Welsh literature help to shed light on the Arthurian legend," and therefore not to formulate the legend itself. Nevertheless, from the purely practical point of view, we believe that Prof. Rhys would have helped his "general reader" more had he given a ré umé, a skeleton, as it were, of the Arthurian legend. This assumes, of course, his ability to discover a skeleton in the amorphous mass. But perhaps there is none, perhaps the legend belongs to the order of invertebrates. Be that as it may, the reader will have to know familiarly the Arthurian legend in its successive stadia before he can justly estimate the author's elucidations.

Within our narrow limits we shall attempt to give only a few of Prof. Rhys's positions. Arthur is a blending of history and myth, of a *Comes Britanniæ* who defended his country against the invading Saxons, and of a Celtic divinity, either a sun-god or a culture-hero. It is interesting to learn the etymology of the name. Prof. Rhys equates it with an assumed Latin *artor*, parallel with the actual *arātor* "ploughman," ploughing of course symbolizing cultivation and culture in general. In this connection we should like to know what to do with Art the son of Conn in Irish legend. Still more interesting is the examination of Guinevere (Gwen hwyvar, or "white spectre"), p. 38, and the parallel between her and Etáin, or Be Find in Irish. But we can scarcely accept the explanation, p. 33, that Be Find is *more correctly* Be Bind. In Irish, *bind* and *find* are distinct words, the former meaning "sweet, melodious," the latter "fair, white." Fair woman is expressed in Irish by Be Find. The "triad" of Guineveres is equated

with the triad of Etáins and the triad of Isoldes (in the Tristan story). The capture or recapture of Guinevere by Arthur, or by Lancelot, is likened by Gaston Paris and by our author to the story of Orpheus and Eurydice. This brings us at once to the nether-world, which plays, we may say, the leading rôle in Celtic mythology. Most of the fantastic exploits which the later middle ages anthropomorphized so ingeniously are reducible to the perennial struggle between the powers of Light and the powers of Darkness. Even the Holy Grail itself, once supposed to be a purely Christian symbol, is regarded by Prof. Rhys (herein following Nutt in his 'Legend of the Holy Grail') as originally a cauldron of Hades. Whether the Nutt-Rhys theory will gain unqualified assent is a question that we cannot enter upon here. Our knowledge of *early* mediæval Christian legend is still too meagre. Lipsius's investigation of the apocryphal acts of the Apostles should teach us caution in setting too narrow limits to Oriental-Christian mysticism. How much that Grimm looked upon as Teutonic is now demonstrated by Lipsius to be Gnostic! At any rate, we fail to catch the point of our author's utterance, p. 326, "Outside the Celtic domain one may point to the Dwarf's Cup as one of the old Norse terms symbolic of thought, wisdom, and especially the inspiration of poetry," and we would ask our author how he happened to overlook the infinitely more celebrated 'Kettle' that furnishes the theme to no less than two entire poems in the Edda, namely, the "Hymiskvidha" and the "Lokasenna" (Oegisdrekka).

The identification of Peredur-Percival with Lancelot is highly suggestive. Equally so the parallel between the Empress in the Peredur story and the Irish Mórrígu, or Great Queen, and the suggestion of a contamination of the Celtic name Etain with the Greek name Helen (Elen) of the celebrated mother of Constantine the Great, p. 110. It need not disturb our enjoyment of Tennysonian poetry to learn that the Lily Maid of Astolat and the Lady of Shalott are but different phases of the same myth. Prof. Rhys's remark upon the weird fascination exercised by the Lady of Shalott in Tennysonian verse should meet with hearty approval. And so also should his passing condemnation of the Laureate's conception of Arthur himself, "falsetto preachments of the modern muse," p. 20. But we are less confident that it will. The Anglo-American Philistine has, we fear, accepted the falsetto preachments as Arthurian gospel.

In connection with the *green* color mentioned, pp. 53, 59, we miss an adequate discussion of the curious English romance of Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight. It is barely mentioned, p. 174. Occasionally the author introduces illustrative parallels from Teutonic mythology, *e. g.*, Siegfried's wooing in behalf of Gunther, pp. 226, 233. Such parallels, we think, might have been easily multiplied. Peredur's forgetting and neglect of Yngharad, pp. 85, 87, 112, 218, has its counterpart in Siegfried's forgetting of Brünhild. Less obvious, but not to be rejected, is the kinship between Cúchulainn's mare, p. 221, and Odhinn's horse Sleipnir. The heroes of Welsh stories, we read, never drive in chariots, but ride on horseback. In Irish myth, riding on horseback is commonly taken to be an indication of later composition. Can this test be applied to Welsh? At page 168 reference is made to the "fons Galabes," said by Geoffrey of Monmouth to be "in natione Gewisseorum." We should like to have an etymological interpretation of this name *Gewis*, which figures not only in Bede, but in the Anglo-Saxon chronicle. Sweet, in his 'Oldest English Texts,' treats the word as of Teutonic origin. But this is by no means certain. Perhaps Apollodorus, p. 197, may have had good reasons of his own for interpreting the Amazon's girdle captured by Hercules as the σύμβολον τοῦ πρωτεύειν ἁπασῶν, but the Siegfried-Brünhild story has taught us to regard such a girdle rather as the σύμβολον τῆς παρθενείας. And speaking of παρθενεία leads us to remark that Prof. Rhys's euphemistic allusion to chastity in Irish story-telling, p. 177, may be contrasted with Prof. Zimmer's terrific indictment, *Zeitschrift für deutsches Altertum* xxxii., 281-285. We regret that the Oxford professor should be unacquainted with his Greifswald colleague's memorable discussion of the Voyages of Maildun and Brendan, *Zeitschrift*, etc., xxxiii., 129-220, 257-338. His conception of the Celtic Hell and Paradise, and the Islands of the Dead, would have gained greatly in breadth and depth. But let us hasten to add that there is no fundamental difference of view between the two scholars.

Highly ingenious are our author's attempts to trace the evolution of original Welsh names; see pp. 284, 296, 299, and elsewhere. To appreciate the difficulties involved, one should first read chapter xvi, which treats of the various ways in which Welsh tradition came into the Anglo-French world. A name introduced orally was subjected to the usual corruptions of foreign ear and tongue. But these were slight in comparison with the clerical corruption of names occurring in ill-written Welsh manuscripts. Thus Rianon becomes Niniane and even Viviane, "the worst and most popular in print." The author's Irish references, however accurate as references, are not always as serviceable as they might be. The story of Conla the Red, p. 128, is referred to Windisch's Irish Grammar. A much more satisfactory reference would have been to Crowe's paper in the *Kilkenny Journal*, No. 17, giving text, translation, and introduction. We have detected one curious error of frequent occurrence in the notes. The famous Irish codex is cited as the 'Book of the Dun.' For this read 'Book of the Dun Cow.' And for an explanation of the curious title see O'Curry, 'Lectures on the MS. Materials,' etc., p. 30. The zealous Anglicist will hardly accept Prof. Rhys's estimate (p. 389) of pre-Norman English literature; but the present is no place for rectification.

We have ventured upon a few criticisms to show our interest in the subject. Of these Arthurian studies as a whole we can speak nothing but good. The book is throughout readable. Even in the most difficult passages the style is clear, simple, and elegant. The author's scholarship does not befog his utterance. We earnestly commend the book to all who would gain an insight into Arthurian legend.

Of an altogether different kind is the Rev. Mr. Campbell's book on the Fians. It is a collection of tales of Finn and his warriors, taken down by Mr. Campbell in the course of thirty years, from the lips of the Gaelic-speaking Scotch. Its chief value lies in its showing how deep-seated and widespread is the popular knowledge of Fionn mac Cumhall (pronounced Finn Mac Cool). The reader who approaches the collection from the side of Middle Irish literature will find little that is new; and that little is usually of a non-Celtic character, betraying contamination with one or another of the more common forms of European story-telling. Thus the trick of walking backwards into a cave (p. 166) resembles the story of the Greek robber, Cacus, as is pointed out in the Introduction (p. x.). But the editor might have added that the fastening of Garry's hair to the logs (p. 165) suggests at least the story of Samson. The editor is not at his best in comparative philology. But we must be charitable to utterances like this (p. x.): "In the ancient geographical names of Greece and Rome many place-names are to be found that admit of much explanation from the Gaelic, *e. g.*, Marathon by the sea is very like Maranan, Seas or Waves." The major proposition is doubtless true; but the minor? We have one general fault to find with the make-up of the book. One's powers of divination are in constant demand to perceive where the editorial labor of introduction and comment ends and the story proper begins. This is wholly unnecessary. The only scientific plan of editing a story is to give the text as heard on one page, translation on the opposite page, verbal explanations in foot-notes, general explanations either before or after the text, or in both places. In any case the eye should be able to see at a glance what is editor and what is story-teller.

In that part of the introduction which is by Mr. Alfred Nutt, that accomplished scholar, whose name we have mentioned above in connection with the Grail legend, touches upon a subject now hotly debated, namely, the origin of the Finn story. Until quite recently it was universally assumed that Finn, son of Cumall, and his band, were as distinctively Irish as Cúchulainn and Queen Medb. But in 1890 Prof. Zimmer published in the *Zeitschrift für deutsches Altertum*, xxxv.—Nutt's reference to vol. liii. is an obvious slip of the pen—an article of 170 pp., in which he denied the Irish origin of the Finn story, and maintained that the Fenians were at bottom only Norwegian vikings of the ninth century marauding in Ireland. Finn himself was perhaps Caitill Find (the Irish rendering of Ketill Hvi), a Norwegian leader who fell in 857. Mr. Nutt gives a fair résumé of Zimmer's position and arguments, to which we refer our readers. That the new theory should provoke angry protest from the Irish camp was inevitable. The Fenians of legend had given their name to Young Ireland as defenders of their country. To be informed that the original Fenians were but enemies (literally so, the word being, according to Zimmer, a corruption of Scandinavian *fjándr*, "enemy"), was too much for patriotic scholarship. In a brief appendix, Zimmer, going still further, contends that Oisin, the son of Finn (Macpherson's Ossian) was etymologically Ôswine, Oiserg was Ôsric, Osbran was Ôsbrand, Osult was Ôswald; Ôs- in these compounds being the well-known English equivalent of Âs- in Scandinavian. We will not take sides in the controversy. The points in dispute are at once difficult and obscure; time and patience alone can permanently settle them. Meanwhile we ought to be able to say this much at least without offending Irish susceptibilities: Irish myth and legend, in the shape in which they have come down to us (the MSS. cannot be dated earlier than 1100) are confused and incoherent. They need reconstruction as much as, let us say, the Siegfried myth in Norse-German, or the Beowulf myth in Anglo-Saxon. It is a truism of Irish history that for over two centuries prior to 1100, the island was at the mercy of invaders from Scandinavia. Is it at all improbable that these Danes, Swedes, or Norwegians should have brought with them their own mythology and imposed some of its traits upon their Celtic neighbors? It should be borne in mind that Zimmer two years be-

fore, in the *Zeitschrift*, xxxiii., showed that even the earlier and undoubtedly Irish Cúchulainn cycle betrayed evidences of Teutonic contamination. His latest paper is but a continuation of the former. And his method in both is the same. In the Finn story, Finn burns his finger in cooking the salmon, and, sticking it hastily in his mouth, acquires thereby a knowledge of things unknown. From the Irish point of view this episode is unintelligible, but it becomes perfectly clear if we treat it as a garbled reminiscence of Siegfried roasting the heart of Fafnir. Not a few words and phrases in Irish legend are inexplicable by the laws of Celtic philology, but they are intelligible as corruptions of Norse words on the Irish tongue. We merely indicate the drift of Zimmer's argument. Whether all his etymologies and contentions will obtain final acceptance we leave to the future, contenting ourselves for the present with the belief that he has given a new and powerful impulse to mythological study. It is interesting to note that the burnt-finger episode occurs in Mr. Campbell's collection, p. 20.

Familiar Quotations: A Collection of Passages, Phrases, and Proverbs traced to their Sources in Ancient and Modern Literature. By John Bartlett. 9th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1891.

With lengthening span, this indispensable handbook has steadily broadened its scope, till it pauses at the point indicated by its new sub-title. It is still preponderantly a poetical anthology, but the prose element is now significantly large, and in one block have been added 121 pages of translations extending from Bidpai to Uhland, some of them expressly made for this work, with generous draughts from Plutarch, Epictetus, Marcus Aurelius, Diogenes Laertius, Cervantes, etc. A good deal of the old appendix has been incorporated in the body of the 'Quotations,' but the new appendix still fills eleven pages. If the type is slightly larger than in the eighth edition (1882), so also is the page, and there are now 1,158 pages against the former 904—an increase of much more than a third, as Mr. Bartlett reckons; and we gladly take his word that the stupendous index contains 10,000 additional lines.

These are the bare statistics of the compiler's final achievement, but it is impossible to indicate the amount of overhauling which the work has received in every part. At most we can touch upon a few representative names by way of suggestion. It cannot be denied that in a collection of this character the personal equation counts for very much; but if one should ask what poet in the past nine years had most absorbed public attention, the answer would be, unanimously, Browning. Browning clubs in England and America, Browning's death and Browning's Life, are notorious facts, and Browning quotations have consequently been the order of the day. Mr. Bartlett's recognition of this is almost startling in extent. In the eighth edition of the 'Quotations' there were just three extracts from Browning, and two of these were from "Faracelsus." The present edition leaps to nine *pages* of extracts, and the citations from "Paracelsus" have been quadrupled. Yet we remark with surprise that "The Lost Leader" only now is deemed "familiar." There is no other example of expansion comparable to this. Browning, by a disagreeable association, reminds us of Edward Fitzgerald, and so of Omar Khayyám, whose one extract has become six, in accordance with an enlarged reading and popularity of the "Rubáiyát." From Browning to Tennyson, too, is a natural transition; the latter's nine pages have been extended to twelve.

So much for contemporary English poets. Among their predecessors, Shakspere has become still more a household word, chiefly, it would appear, in the direction of the Sonnets; a rather tardy admission being accorded (among other well-known lines) to "Full many a glorious morning have I seen," and to "Not marble, nor the gilded monuments." Wordsworth fills no more pages than in the previous edition, but has made gains, not easy to discover on account of transpositions. Coleridge does better proportionately, but by an extension of his prose; extracts from his 'Table Talk' are given for the first time. These two poets admirably illustrate the fortuitous and arbitrary character of "familiar quotations," which are so far from being a criterion of the poetic worth and beauty of the pieces they are taken from. Let any one compare the single excerpt from the Peele Castle stanzas, or the two from the ode "Dejection," with what remains behind. But then, let any one love the poetry of Clough, and turn in vain to this dictionary to find a trace of popular favor—not even "Say not the struggle naught availeth," nor "It fortifies my soul to know"; neither "Peschiera" nor "Qua cursum ventus." His name is altogether wanting. Carlyle, the poet, suffers a like eclipse, though his translation of Goethe's "Symbolum" is known by heart to many. His prose, on the other hand, has been notably extended, from 'Sartor Resartus,' 'Heroes,' and 'Frederick the Great.'

Emerson, to come to America, has received a great expansion, and in his case, too, surprises are not few, in that "So nigh is grandeur to our dust," and "When half-gods go, The gods arrive," have just been discovered, and that his "Terminus"—perhaps the noblest swan-song of any poet—is still *terra incognita*. His prose sayings have been multiplied, and "Hitch your wagon to a star" at last finds its proper place in this handbook. So, oddly enough, does the stanza, "Life is real! life is earnest!" which had been heretofore passed over in Longfellow's "Psalm of Life"; and a shorter omission is likewise repaired. Had the fates ordained a tenth edition, perhaps we should have had this poem at last printed entire. Holmes's "Chambered Nautilus," again, has been recalled from a strange exile; and his prose has grown from one item to a page. The section devoted to Lowell was, as we see, in the press before the date of his death could be filled out. His three pages in the eighth edition have become eight, with two of prose—an innovation. First now to appear under Whittier we remark extracts from his "Ichabod" and "The Eternal Goodness"; but even so a page is hardly made out for a poet far more widely read than Lowell, yet also, we apprehend, less quoted, and certainly less quotable. And to these three preëminent poets of the elder generation, which of the later-born are to succeed, this dictionary being witness? Cranch, older than Lowell, and Channing, but a few months younger, and both still surviving, are little known to the great public of the present day. They have contributed something to Mr. Bartlett's store. Of all the rest, with possibly one or two obscure exceptions, Mrs. Elizabeth Akers Allen, for her "Rock me to Sleep, Mother," and Bret Harte, for his "Heathen Chinee," alone pass current from mouth to mouth. That implies neglect of Aldrich, Chadwick, Gilder, Higginson, Howells, Joaquin Miller, Parsons, J. J. Piatt, Stedman, Stoddard, and Story among the men well known for their verse at the date of Mr. Bartlett's eighth edition; Miss Thomas, Miss Woolsey, Mrs. Piatt, Mrs. Moulton, Mrs. Dorr, Mrs. Thaxter, among the women—to mention no others, of both sexes. We may observe, too, that the recent dead, Bayard Taylor excepted, have fared no better, and that not a line serves for a headstone to Paul Hayne, Helen Hunt Jackson, Sidney Lanier, or John Boyle O'Reilly. Numbers, it is clear, do not suffice. The public, indifferent to if not annoyed by the swarm of latter-day bards, seems ready to exclaim with Goethe:

> "Wisse dass mir sehr misfällt
> Wenn so viele singen und reden!
> Wer treibt die Dichtkunst aus der Welt?
> Die Poeten!"

We might continue our evidences of the perfecting of his compilation on the part of Mr. Bartlett, but it is time that we too should say finis. No more useful example of persistent renovation and improvement of a standard work has been offered in this country, and seldom anywhere outside of Germany. While the 'Familiar Quotations' has been imitated and pirated in England, it has never been approached, and is to-day the convenience of all English-speaking peoples. Its rare textual accuracy, precise citation, original research, and instructive comparisons of nearly identical thoughts and expressions, would constitute a sufficient life-service for any author. But Mr. Bartlett does not cease from labor because he will put no further touches to the 'Familiar Quotations.' Praise and gratitude for this closed account; but a new page of the ledger will presently open when his Shakspere Concordance sees the light.

English Composition: Eight Lectures given at the Lowell Institute [Boston]. By Barrett Wendell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Prof. Wendell has for a decade had a responsible charge at Harvard College in connection with the English department, and has acquitted himself well. All that he here tells us incidentally of his acquired experience as instructor in a most difficult branch, will profit his fellow-instructors everywhere. These, however, he does not address (for he has not aimed at making a text-book), but the public at large. As he undertook to interest a mixed audience by lecturing, so he thinks the general reader will find his remarks more appetizing than the ordinary manuals. Consequently, he has but slightly retouched his discourses. This seems to us a misjudgment, on several grounds.

In the first place, a lecturer on rhetoric must, almost of necessity, greatly curtail his illustrations and subordinate them to his general principles—must begin by developing the latter. This is the bane of text-books for beginners even in formal and exact science, and is what has made grammar so odious a study. The mind refuses to be interested in abstract definitions and systematic presentation; and the first business of a text-book is to interest. The lecturer who employs this method in a series is further at the disadvantage, as compared with a writer, of having to refresh the memory of the regular attendants, as well as to furnish a clue to listeners who come in at the middle of the course. In fact, Mr. Wendell resorts to a great deal of iteration—to a great deal more, we are sure, than he would have ventured upon or thought needful had he composed for readers alone. Then he has, as he freely confesses, been handicapped by the conditions of his lectureship, viz., so many talks of just an hour each, with

the result of destroying the proportion he usually observes with his college classes; hence unavoidable compression and relatively undue stress.

Despite the compression, there is in some of these chapters an air of diffuseness and almost of padding. Much valuable space is wasted, as it seems to us, on a fanciful distinction between the written and the spoken word, which, for example, finds a concrete expression in the remarkable assertion that, "alone of the elements of style, paragraphs belong to written composition, and not to spoken." There is a whole chapter on paragraphs, which Mr. Wendell calls "parts of [written] composition," as if they were not parts of thought, whatever mode be taken to give them utterance. To the mind they represent single efforts, to the voice they are breathing-spells, to the eye they are merely punctuation-marks. Mr. Wendell's scheme has not, so far as we can see, any provision for the case of a thinker who dictates—say a review—to an amanuensis without indicating paragraphs. In the revision, if the thought has been orderly and logical, the paragraphing is merely a mechanical affair; and the nature of the composition will determine whether the cleavage be between topics or between categories. In the former case the paragraphic break may be likened to the period; in the latter to the semicolon.

Mr. Wendell admits that for him punctuation is a mystery; and in truth it cannot be taught in lectures without a great deal of apparatus. The few words he bestows upon the theme are of no worth for practical guidance. The same may be said of his observations on the correct use of shall and will, in which his loose idea is shown by the sentence, "I *will* come, means, clearly enough, that I should like to come very much." Was this in Regulus's mind when he pledged himself to return to the Carthaginians? "I will come" means "I intend, I am resolved, to come." It will not do here, as Mr. Wendell proposes, to refer to good manners or good sense for a criterion. In other parts of his doctrine he shifts his burden in like manner, and even calls in "the average man" as his *deus ex machina*. The appeal to good usage, which, of course, he constantly urges, is the only definite and practical rule.

The unconscious side of literary expression or style is hardly at all regarded by Mr. Wendell. Writers of eminence differ extremely among themselves in artistic intent, in rough-drafting, correction, polish; but substantially they write prose, as M. Jourdain spoke it, without knowing it. The gift is inborn, but so is the power of thought, without which mere fluency would never gain distinction for any one. "'I can't write, anyhow,' say students to me year after year; they mean," says Mr. Wendell, "that they won't think." This no more follows than it would from a person's declining to speak in public. A whole library of books on English composition could not teach a man to express himself on a subject beyond the range of his interest, his knowledge, or his natural capacity. Hence the discipline surest of success is to be sought in narration and description, in making abstracts from good models, and in translations. The thinking may be left to take care of itself, as may style in the higher sense. The cultivation of clearness, directness, and terseness is the thing to be aimed at for the ordinary student, who can never hope to shine as thinker or stylist. It would tend to spare Mr. Wendell his "most frequent experience," "the striking out of the first page or so of a student's compositions," written, as our author pleasantly says, in obedience to "a very strong impulse to preface something in particular by at least a paragraph of nothing in particular, bearing to the real matter in hand a relation not more inherently intimate than that of the tuning of violins to a symphony." It might also save his pupils from such defects as this (p. 181): "If rigid adherence to formal rules be fatally frigid, none the less fatal to any certainty of effect is *that* relaxation of grasp *that* must result from disregard of the principles of Unity, of Mass, and of Coherence, *that* underlie all formal rules"—where *the*, *that*, and *which* would have been more elegant and less monotonous, and at the same time more perspicuous; or this (p. 222): "I might go on almost as long as I chose. In brief, *these* seem to mean that we may assume the average man to know what good use is"—where the antecedent of *these* is ten lines off, with five plural nouns between.

We are tempted to close with a nugget of good sense respecting composition, which may be found in the correspondence of Rousseau, and as it would be a pity to translate it, we may be pardoned for giving it in the original. The passage is the more important because Rousseau notoriously elaborated what he wrote and was a conscious artist:

"Qu'une expression soit ou ne soit pas ce qu'on appelle française ou du bel usage, ce n'est pas de cela qu'il s'agit: on ne parle et l'on n'écrit que pour se faire entendre; pourvu qu'on soit intelligible, on va à son but; quand on est clair, on y va encore mieux: parlez donc clairement pour quiconque entend le français. Voilà la règle, et soyez sûr que, fissiez-vous au surplus cinq cents barbarismes, vous n'en aurez pas moins bien écrit. Je vais plus loin, et je soutiens qu'il faut quelquefois faire des fautes de grammaire pour être plus lumineux. C'est en cela, et non dans toutes les pédanteries du purisme, que consiste le véritable art d'écrire."

We are bound to say that this doctrine is by no means foreign to Mr. Wendell, as any reader of his pages will see.

Dante's Treatise 'De Vulgari Eloquentiâ.' Translated into English, with explanatory notes, by A. G. Ferrers Howell. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. 1890.

It is to be regretted that we have not a complete and uniform English translation of all Dante's works, for to the student of history and letters all that Dante wrote possesses the exceptional value of an authoritative document. In many and varied subjects, in questions of science, government, literature, and philology, he throws light on an interesting period of history. In his minor works especially, he was almost the only writer of the day who bore witness to the changes through which Italy was passing in language and literature no less than in politics and religion. Such "documents" must, of course, be made accessible to the general reader and student as well as to the specialist. In Germany, thanks to that passion for translating into the vernacular masterpieces of all languages which was one of the best traits of the romantic movement, Kannegiesser and Förster had published by 1845 satisfactory renderings of all Dante's minor works. But the English tongue has not been so fortunate. The 'Lyrics,' indeed, were translated as early as 1835, and the 'New Life' in 1846, but it was not until 1879 that the treatise 'On Monarchy' appeared, and not until 1889 that the 'Banquet' was satisfactorily rendered into English. There still remained four minor pieces of various value: (1) Dante's Letters—important remnants of his public and private correspondence; (2) the treatise 'On the Relations of Land and Water'—a marked example of Dante's eager interest in scientific inquiry; (3) certain Eclogues—communications, in what seems to us the most artificial of forms, addressed to Giovanni del Virgilio, one of the most interesting of the early humanists; and (4) a treatise 'On the Vulgar Tongue.' For a creditable translation of this last from the vigorous but crabbed Latin in which it is written, we owe our thanks to Mr. Howell.

The treatise 'On the Vulgar Tongue' is of interest both to the pure philologian and to the general student of literature. To the philologian it recommends itself as the earliest Italian work whose author recognized the common basis of the Romance languages and had an inkling of their historical relation to Latin; even though it frequently disappoints him by a too frequent use of the purely subjective and deductive methods, which Dante owed to his scholastic studies, at just the points where facts objectively considered for purposes of induction would be most interesting and valuable. Whatever the worth, however, of its information on linguistic matters, the treatise leaves on the reader an impression of great nobility. Dante himself shows in it. At a time when the early humanism was beginning to be dominant, and a senile Latin to tyrannize over the new-born Italian, the master could see in the vernacular the high worth of that which is the instrument of our daily needs, however intimate or common they may be.

"The Vulgar Tongue," he says, "is that which we acquire without any rule, by imitating our nurses. We afterwards have another secondary speech, which the Romans called Grammar. Few, however, acquire the use of this secondary speech, because we can only be guided and instructed in it by the expenditure of much time and by assiduous study. Of these two kinds of speech, also, the Vulgar Tongue is the nobler, as well because it was the first employed by the human race as because the whole world makes use of it, though it has been divided into different forms of utterance and words. It is also the nobler as being natural to us, whereas the other is rather of an artificial kind; and it is of this nobler form of speech that we intend to treat."

To the attentive reader, moreover, this fragmentary treatise marks something like an epoch in Dante's life. Internal evidence assigns it to the earlier years of his exile, and most scholars agree that it was written about 1305, just before the 'Banquet,' the sceptical Scartazzini alone placing it later. But what is most significant about it is that in it Dante is midway between the love-sonneteer of the 'New Life' and the great thinker and poet of the 'Divine Comedy.' Shorter pieces, sonnets, ballades, and the like, no longer attract him, nor has he yet risen to the ambitions of his later all-embracing 'Comedy.' The *Canzone*, a much longer form of composition than the sonnet, answering roughly to the elaborate ode of the eighteenth century, seems to him most worthy of an author's ambition. "Now, that the whole of the art of poetic song is embraced in *Canzoni* appears from the fact that whatever is found in the art is found in them. . . . For all the utterances of the highest mental powers of illustrious poets* are found in *Canzoni* alone. Wherefore, in reference to the subject now before us, it is clear that the matters which are worthy of the highest vulgar tongue ought to be handled in *Canzoni*." To the theory of the *Canzone*, then, with all its problems for subtlety and deftness, the poet is devoting

*Dante's own extraordinary phrase is, "Quicquid de cacuminibus illustrium capitum profluxit ad labia."

himself already. His earnestness warns the reader that this trained hand will find work more worthy of it. Already Dante feels that something separates him from his fellows. The theme of one is always love, he says; that of others arms. His, and his alone, is the theme of "righteousness."

Mr. Howell's rendering, though not preëminent for smoothness and fluency, has in general triumphed over the peculiar difficulties which he had to meet. His notes are, so far as they go, accurate; but they are designed for the most cursory reader. The main facts concerning Cino da Pistoia's life (p. 98), for instance, are already at hand in several books of reference with which any one who is likely to use the translation must be familiar. What is much more important than dates and titles is a full statement of Cino's part in that school of poetry which Dante did so much to found and to perpetuate—the *dolce stil nuovo*. Indeed, the treatise 'On the Vulgar Tongue,' though not written for that purpose, can best serve us as a guide to the literature of the thirteenth century. It is in their dealing with the structure and sequence of the various schools of that literature that Mr. Howell's notes are weakest.

Essays, Scientific, Political, and Speculative. By Herbert Spencer. Library Edition, containing seven essays not before republished, and various other additions. 3 vols., 8vo, pp. 478, 466, 516. With an alphabetical index. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

THE theory of ethics which has latterly been taking shape under the hands of Stephen, Spencer, and others, is, from a practical point of view, one of the most important boons that philosophy has ever imparted to the world, since it supplies a worthy motive to conservative morals at a time when all is confused and endangered by the storm of new thought, the disintegration of creeds, and the failure of all evidences of an exalted future life.

The little of new which is contributed to the ethical theory in the present edition of Mr. Spencer's essays is contained in the essays on the "Ethics of Kant" and on "Absolute Political Ethics." It was hardly to be expected that the additions would go to enhance Mr. Spencer's well-built-up reputation. The popularity of his doctrine has probably passed its meridian. In one of the new essays, he quotes with admiration Huxley's fine saying, "Science commits suicide when it adopts a creed." That is just the principle of death lurking in Spencer's philosophy. It is a creed in that it is erected upon axioms founded only on the inconceivability of their contradictory opposites, and regarded as absolutely indubitable. One of the seven essays mentioned on the title-page refers to the discussion concerning the a-priori origin of axioms. Few psychologists, if any, would now dispute the instinctive origin of the ideas from which the three laws of motion have become evolved under the influence of experience and reflection. But it is a widely different thing to say that these laws are without doubt exactly true. For such a belief there cannot be the slightest warrant. In the same way, it may be true that all scientific reasoning postulates something which men seek to formulate as the general uniformity of nature; but it by no means follows that reasoning cannot discover that this postulate is not exactly true. That would be like insisting that because astronomy rests on observations, therefore the astronomer cannot deduce from these observations their probable error. Science or philosophy cannot itself commit suicide; but a method of inquiry which provides no means for the rectification of its first principles, has mixed and swallowed its own poison and has to expect an inevitable doom. What explains the success of modern science is that it has pursued a method which corrects its own premises and conclusions. It reminds us of certain methods of arithmetical computation where mistakes of ciphering have no effect but what disappears as the process goes on. In like manner philosophical inquiry, which necessarily begins in ignorance, must not pursue a method by which the error of its first assumptions is allowed to retain its full effect to the end, or else it will come to naught.

The most interesting of the new essays is that "On the Factors of Organic Evolution," in which the author urges almost irresistibly the indirect evidence of the transmission of acquired characters. As in the question of spontaneous generation, the direct evidence is feeble, if not quite wanting. But the force of general facts and indirect considerations would appear, at least to onlookers of the controversy, as sufficient to remove all doubt. Spencer well says that many of the modern evolutionists are more Darwinian than Darwin ever was; yet in part the reverse is true. The intellectual motive which has prompted evolutionary speculation in biology is the desire to discover the laws which determine the succession of generations. This involves in some sense a "postulate" that the phenomena are subject to law; but to jump to the assumption made by neo-Darwinians that the form of each individual is a mathematical resultant of the forms of its ancestors, is not to be more Darwinian than Darwin, but, on the contrary, it is seriously to maim his theory.

Spencer cites the old dogma that Nature abhors a vacuum as an example of a merely verbal explanation. A reader of Boyle's attack upon the maxim, made while it was a living belief, would hardly so judge it, since Nature was conceived as a sort of living being mediating between the Creator and the universe. Yet, as Nature's abhorrence of a vacuum remained somewhat unreasonable, Spencer is right in saying that the theory gave little help towards understanding the facts. But what, then, shall we say of a theory which proposes to explain all growth and its inexhaustible manifold of results by the law of the conservation of energy—that is, by a mere uniformity in the motion or matter, a mere general description of certain phenomena? To suppose an intelligence, provided only we can see its acts intelligently, is to suppose that which is intelligible *par excellence*. But to suppose that blind matter is subject to a primordial law, with nothing but an Unknowable beyond, would seem to leave everything as incomprehensible as well could be, and so fail completely to fulfil the function of a hypothesis.

Besides, the law of *vis viva* is plainly violated in the phenomena of growth, since this is not a reversible process. To explain such actions—of which viscosity and friction are examples—physicists resort to the consideration of the chance encounters between trillions of molecules, and it is an admirable scientific feature of the Darwinian hypothesis that, in order to account for a similar irreversible operation, that of growth, it equally resorts to the doctrine of chances in its fortuitous variations. The attempt of some of Darwin's followers to drop this feature of the theory is unscientific. It is also destructive of the theory, for if any laws of heredity are followed with mathematical exactitude, it becomes at once evident that the species of animals and plants cannot have arisen in anything like the manner in which Darwin supposed them to arise.

Another interesting part of this essay is where the author draws attention to the strong evidence of an enormous direct effect upon animal and vegetable forms due to the circumambient element. Such considerations strengthen Mr. Clarence King's suggestion that transmutations of species have chiefly been caused by geological changes of almost cataclysmic magnitude and suddenness, affecting the chemical constitution of the atmosphere and ocean.

In the essay, or prepared "interview," on "The Americans," Spencer holds, it will be remembered, that we carry the gospel of work too far.

Usambara und seine Nachbargebiete. Von Dr. Oscar Baumann. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer. 8vo, pp. 375.

THIS stout book is an elaborate description of the northernmost of the East African countries recently acquired by Germany. It is based on the personal observations of the author during two explorations made in 1888 and 1890. The territory described comprises a strip of the continent extending from the coast opposite the island of Pemba, just to the north of Zanzibar, in a northwest direction as far as the mountain Kilimanjaro. Its extent is estimated at 45,900 square kilometres, with some 156,000 inhabitants of various races and tribes. The author divides it into coast-land, *Vorland*, steppe, and the hill-region, and each is treated separately and in detail—its physical features, its fauna and flora, its people and their manners and customs. He begins with the coast, describing the various ports with extreme minuteness, even to the mention of the beer-saloon of Tanga, a town which is the home of twenty Germans as well as the seat of a garrison.

The most interesting part of the book is that relating to the life of the natives, who, in the various regions, differ very much in their customs. Some of the tribes, for instance, practise circumcision. One is distinguished by the worship of its ancestry. Another offers sacrifices to its dead to ward off the misfortunes which their spirits are supposed to bring to their families. In another a murderer is sold as a slave, unless his property suffices to satisfy the claims of the relatives of his victim, while in others he is executed. One tribe was visited which did not live in villages, but in scattered huts or on farms, as it were. Particularly interesting are Dr. Baumann's accounts of the children, the girls who play with dolls, and the ceremonies attending their coming of age and marriage, as well as the dances and music of the several tribes. The English missions are referred to in a kindly spirit, but an unfavorable report is made of their work and influence. Islam, on the other hand, is spreading rapidly among some of the coast tribes.

The closing chapter deals with the climate as affecting Europeans—the coast being fairly healthy and the *Vorland* unhealthy—and the value of the country for commercial and colonial purposes. In its present condition this value is small, as the population is scanty, and a large part of the country is exposed to the periodical ravages of the Masai, who absolutely prohibit cattle-raising by driving off all the herds. There are no indications of coal or minerals, except that iron is found in the mountain streams of Pare. It is taken out and washed like gold, chiefly by the women, who also do much of the smelting and smith's work in making spears and swords. The au-

thor advocates strongly the construction of a railway from the port of Tanga to a point ninety kilometres distant in the interior, where two important caravan routes meet, the one going to the Victoria Nyanza, the other through Ugogo to Lake Tanganyika. From the latest advices this has been determined upon, and an engineer has been sent out to survey the route.

An appendix contains reports on the author's collection of edible plants, of butterflies, and of skulls. There are also lists of words in divers native languages, and several of the African songs and dances are set to music. The large map of the country is an admirable piece of work, and reflects great credit upon Dr. Baumann, who regards it as his most important task and considers the book to be subsidiary to it. In addition to the general map are others, showing the distribution of the races, the density of the population, the distribution of the food plants, and the geology of the country. The author's style is clear, and his descriptions are vivid, while the general appearance of the book is very attractive.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Bibliographical Catalogue of Macmillan & Co.'s Publications from 1843 to 1889. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Ball, Thomas. My Threescore Years and Ten. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Bartlett, John. Familiar Quotations. 9th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Barrie, J. M. Auld Licht Idylls. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Bate, W. S. Wayside Voices. New York; The Author.
Behnke, Emil. Stammering, its Nature and Treatment. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Boldrewood, Rolf. A Sydney-Side Saxon. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Bristol, E. L. M. Before He Was Born. New York: The Author. 50 cents.
Brooks, Noah. The Boy Settlers. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
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Brown, Prof. G. B. The Fine Arts. [University Extension Manuals.] Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
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Gilman, N. P., and Jackson, E. P. Conduct as a Fine Art. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Goldsmith, Milton. Rabbi and Priest. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.
Gore, Prof. J. H. Geodesy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Harris, A. L. The Fatal Request. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
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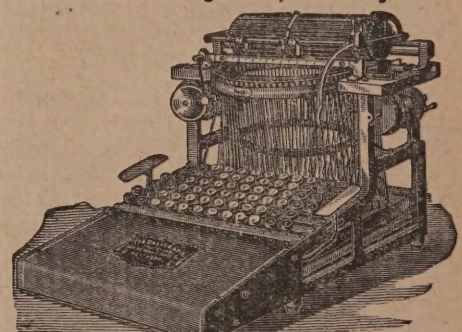

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 15, 1891.

The Week.

THE experts who have been examining the affairs of the Keystone Bank for the City Councils Investigating Committee in Philadelphia have made their report, and it establishes with great thoroughness and conclusiveness the fact that there was a conspiracy between Bardsley and the officials of the bank to rob both the City Treasury and the bank. The experts say that, at the time Bardsley entered upon the duties of his office as City Treasurer, "the Keystone National Bank was insolvent," there being an actual deficit of $1,031,499.78, and that, "in addition to the entire exhaustion of the capital stock of $500,000, its assets, even at the valuations fixed by the bank of such as had bona-fide existence, were $531,499.78 less than the liabilities." The experts say in conclusion that an accurate accounting at this late day would be impracticable, owing to the extraordinary condition of the bank's records. "Not one of the books," they declare, "was complete; nearly 400 pages were cut out of the ledgers for one year, and fraudulent manipulations were of almost daily occurrence; many loans were obtained upon the fictitious affidavit of the authority of the Board of Directors, and these and nearly all the other loans to the bank were omitted in the books, and for years after insolvency it was concealed by falsifications and manipulations that an exhaustive examination would certainly have discovered before it was too late for remedy." This is a statement which makes it more imperative than ever that there should be a searching investigation by Congress in order to ascertain why it was that the Comptroller of the Currency did not discover the condition of the bank long before he did, and why he delayed for two months to close it after he had discovered that it was thoroughly rotten.

In view of this report of the experts, the address which was put forth on Friday in Philadelphia, signed by over one hundred Republicans, all men of the highest character, asking voters to support the Democratic nominee for City Treasurer, Mr. Wright, is most timely. Mr. Wright was appointed to the position by Gov. Pattison when Bardsley confessed and resigned, and has shown great fitness for the duties of the position. The address declares in favor of Mr. Wright's candidacy in the most convincing terms. Among the better-known signers are Wayne MacVeagh, Henry Charles Lea, Dr. Henry Hartshorne, the Rev. Dr. G. E. Hare, the Rev. Dr. Joseph May, the Rev. Dr. S. D. McConnell, the Rev. L. K. Berridge, Owen J. Wister, Morton P. Henry, Dr. Charles W. Dulles, and Dr. D. Hayes Agnew. The address was published in full by Mr. Childs in the *Public Ledger*, but not a line of it appeared in the *Press*, though the editorial moralist of that journal sneered at the signers of it, and said that any one professing to be a Republican who rejects the Republican nominee for Mr. Wright, "must do so because he prefers the success of the Democratic party, with all that it implies, rather than the success of the Republican party."

The developments at Monday's session of the Pennsylvania Legislative Investigating Committee were as illuminative of the remarkable condition to which Quayism has reduced that Commonwealth as anything that has preceded them. An ex-City Treasurer took the stand, and testified that though while he had been Treasurer he had never taken any commission on city advertising, he had acted as Bardsley's agent in collecting 40 per cent. commission from the newspapers which were favored with it, that he had in each instance collected this in bank bills, the grand total being about $17,000, and had handed the entire amount over to Bardsley, who said he needed it to save him from threatened bankruptcy. The business managers or editors of the papers involved testified that they paid this commission, though they had never paid anything like it in amount for any other kind of advertising, and that they were in the habit of having the matter put in type in one office and then stereotyped for use in the others, thus increasing their individual profits. None of them seemed to be aware that they were in a disreputable or doubtful business, and that what they were doing was sharing with Bardsley in a raid on the city treasury. The payment of the commission in bank bills recalls "Jake" Sharp's methods with the Broadway Railway franchise, and shows a desire to avoid leaving any tell-tale trace of the transaction which is of itself a confession of guilty knowledge.

Following this exposure, there came one of the most childish exhibitions of depravity that have yet been made. The stenographer who had taken for the Committee the testimony of the Auditor-General and State Treasurer, who are about to be investigated by the Senate in special session, disappeared from the State a day or two ago, taking his notes with him, and it was said that he had gone to Michigan with the intention of keeping out of the State with the testimony long enough to delay the work of the Senate till after election. This was indignantly denied; but color was given to it on Monday, when the stenographer failed to appear, and no sign of the testimony was given till just as the Committee was ready to adjourn. Then a package was handed to the Chairman, which proved to be the testimony written out. The Chairman announced that it came from the stenographer at Ann Arbor; but when the postmark on the wrapper was examined, it revealed the fact that the package had been mailed that morning on the railway, at some point between Pittsburgh and Philadelphia. This is trickery of a kindergarten order, which would be possible only in a thoroughly demoralized gang of hard-pressed plunderers.

Gov. Campbell of Ohio made a speech the other day, in which he proposed to divide the vote of Ohio with Mr. McKinley on the basis of McKinley having the votes of all persons whose wages have been increased since the passage of the McKinley tariff, and Campbell having the votes of all whose wages have not been increased since that time. On that basis the Governor said that he should be reëlected by 750,000 majority at least, that being the total vote of the State. He had repeatedly asked anybody in his audiences whose wages had been raised since the passage of that bill to stand up, or to give his name and tell what branch of industry he was engaged in. Nobody had yet responded to that invitation. It is just possible that Mr. Andrew Carnegie is taking steps to astonish the Governor by raising the wages of his men, the following notice having been served on them within a few days.

NOTICE.

TO OUR EMPLOYEES: As provided in the above agreement, we hereby notify you that we desire to end it December 31, 1891, and that we will be ready to make a new sliding-scale agreement with you at any time after October 10, 1891, to take effect January 1, 1892. The contemplated changes are rendered necessary principally by the introduction of many mechanical improvements and advanced methods of manufacture, by which the output has been very much increased since the above agreement went into effect.

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It will be observed that the reason for giving this notice to the men is, that there have been many mechanical improvements and new methods of manufacture introduced lately. Such improvements invariably lead to dispensing with human labor: there are fewer hands employed for a given output. Now it is possible that Carnegie Brothers find themselves embarrassed by this condition of things, and want time to consider how they shall distribute the increased profit among their men in the form of higher wages. We advise Gov. Campbell to keep an eye on the Carnegie works and workmen, for, although they are not in his State, they are hard by, and the example set by the Carnegies might have an overpowering influence on wages in Ohio. We see that some of the local papers, in a censorious spirit, construe the notice as an intention to reduce wages. Whether the intention is to reduce or to increase the scale, it is certain that fewer men will be employed to produce a ton of rails, or of structural iron, or what not. Then the question will naturally arise, What becomes of the farmers' home market that the tariff is always building up? How

many barrels of flour does a new machine consume? How many dozens of eggs would be required to keep a puddling-furnace going after the puddler himself had been discharged?

An interesting debate has been going on in the columns of the Richmond *Times* between Senator Daniel of Virginia and Mr. James Dooley of that city on the free-coinage question. In the *Times* of October 4, Mr. Dooley runs his antagonist into a corner from which he will not easily escape. Senator Daniel had contended that free coinage would be a relief to the overburdened debtors of the country. Mr. Dooley finds that a large and increasing part of the indebtedness of the country is upon contracts payable specifically in gold, and the testimony that he introduces upon this point is unimpeachable. Now, in order to relieve some debtors, he argues, you are going to increase arbitrarily the burdens of others? You require them to receive, in payment for what is due to them, a worse currency than they have to pay. Do you intend, he asks, to make silver legal tender on gold contracts? To this "fetching question" Senator Daniel answers that "it is a delicate power as against existing contracts, and ought not to be used unless indispensable to our financial system"—a truly Delphic utterance. But it is indispensable, as Mr. Dooley shows, unless you are going to grind one class of debtors for the benefit of another class. The correspondence shows that Mr. Dooley is more than a match for the Senator in economical discussion, whatever may be their respective powers in other fields.

As the canvass goes on, things in this city become more and more "mixed." The appearance of Gov. Hill and Mr. Cleveland on the same platform on Friday night was a curious phenomenon. Mr. Cleveland is, wherever he appears, an imposing personage, and always says weighty things. His speech was by no means enthusiastic, but it was cool and dexterous. He had a good word for all classes of his supporters. He had little to say—though what he said was high praise—about the Democratic candidate for the Governorship; but he dwelt on the importance of this election with regard to national issues, and threw this into the form of warning to the Independents who are afraid of Tammany. But on this point the Independents are not likely to be much influenced by his arguments, because they were used in 1887 to induce us to make Fellows District Attorney, and in 1888 to induce us to reëlect Grant to the Mayoralty. They are a kind of advice which the titular head of a great party is obliged to give, *ex officio*, as it were, but they are to be received as the faithful receive a "pious opinion" in the Catholic Church—that is, as obligatory by those who like it, but as non-obligatory by those who do not. The appearance of Hill at the meeting, with his "malign influence" in good working order, must produce great hilarity among readers of the *Times*, which has to treat him now with respect. It pulled through its trouble bravely, however, by castigating him soundly about silver and warmly commending him about the World's Fair. In fact, its enthusiasm was so roused while patting him on the back about the Fair that it boldly announced:

> "On this World's Fair issue alone Platt and Fassett ought to be overwhelmed in defeat by the people of this State."

If this "alone" were the issue, it would be the funniest adult election the world ever saw.

Mr. George S. Hale clearly stated the line of action upon which independent voters proceed, in a recent address at Boston. "We desire to accomplish great objects," he said, "and it is indifferent to us by whose means we accomplish them. We ask who is able to maintain the banner of the cause which we deem the most important." This rule makes the independent voter support the present Democratic Governor for re-election in Massachusetts, even though he incline to the Republican side in national politics, on the ground that the pending election is for State officers, and that Russell has proved himself far better qualified for the place than his Republican opponent. In like manner, such a voter in New York, even though he believe thoroughly in the Democratic policy regarding the tariff, may feel constrained to support the Republican ticket for State officers, on the ground that Fassett is a better man for Governor than Flower, and that there is far more hope of getting ballot reform from the Republicans than from the Democrats. In Pennsylvania, on the other hand, men who are earnest Republicans on national issues are zealously supporting the Democratic candidates for State officers, on the ground that in that way only can the frauds committed by Republicans be exposed and punished. In each of these three States the question for the voter is, which party will do most for the cause he has most at heart in the pending election.

The discharge by the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* of Gen. H. V. Boynton, the well-known and highly respected writer who has been for twenty-five years the Washington correspondent, first of the old *Gazette* and later of the combined paper, is only another sign of the progressive downfall of what was once one of the ablest, most independent, and most influential journals in the country. The Cincinnati *Commercial* of 1870 to 1877 was a credit to journalism, but for some years past the newspaper has been steadily going down hill until now it has touched bottom on the plane of the Cincinnati *Enquirer*. Whether McLean of the *Enquirer* has actually secured financial control of it may be a question, but that the McLean ideals of journalism have been adopted is obvious to every reader. The suggestion that Gen. Boynton's discharge is due to the fact that he has all along been a strong opponent of Mr. Blaine, while the paper intends to devote itself to the nomination of Mr. Blaine for the Presidency next year, may be dismissed as absurd. Nobody outside of a lunatic asylum longer talks seriously of Mr. Blaine's being a candidate for any other office than that of the valetudinarian. The reason Gen. Boynton had to go was because the present management of the *Commercial Gazette* "has no use" for that type of a man, and it would have been a reproach to him if he had long retained his connection with that sort of journalism.

By a curious oversight, no mention has been made in this part of the country of the fact that the Legislature of Colorado, at its last session, passed both a corrupt-practices act and a ballot-reform act, each an excellent measure. The former prohibits bribery, corruption, intimidation, and all other forms of improper influence in elections, and requires sworn publication after election by both candidates and campaign committees of all expenditures made. The ballot act is a close adaptation of the Australian system, providing for an exclusively official blanket ballot, with the names of candidates arranged in party groups with the party name and emblem at the top of each. The voter can indicate his choice either by checking the names of individual candidates, or by placing a single mark opposite the party emblem at the top of a group. Colorado makes the number of States having new ballot laws thirty, which Kentucky and Texas will increase to thirty-two when the laws called for by their new constitutional enactments shall have been framed.

A newspaper commentator on Parnell's career makes the assertion that he made "no [constructive] use of his leadership," and that "mere defiance" was all he furnished to the solution of the Irish question. This simply shows that the writer has not read even Mr. James Bryce's narrative entitled "How We [the Liberals] Became Home-Rulers." This narrative covers the period between 1880 and 1886. Any one who wants to know what Parnell accomplished as a legislator and agitator should peruse this carefully. He will there find that Parnell managed to crowd into these five years the most extraordinary changes in English policy and opinion in British Parliamentary annals. That is to say, he raised the Irish question from a condition of absolute contempt and made it the chief question of British politics; converted the great Liberal party from a state of complete ignorance and indifference about it to a belief in its transcendent importance; convinced the great bulk of that party that a change in the framework of the British Government greater than has taken place since 1688 was a proper concession to Irish feeling and opinion, and induced the Ministry to bring in a bill for the purpose and to stand or fall by it. Moreover, Parnell did this with a despised and discredited following of eighty-five members. It is also true that there was no bit of legisla-

tion with regard to Ireland during his Parliamentary career to which he did not contribute valuable suggestions and criticism. One of his bills, which was regarded with scorn by the present Ministry when he introduced it, was adopted and passed the following year by the Tories, who had to eat their own denunciations of it in the most disgraceful and humiliating way. It would have been folly for him, a private member, to have spent much time in drafting bills in an assembly in which the majority was fiercely hostile to him, and in which the right of initiating legislation is reserved to the Ministry. But no apparently forlorn and hopeless cause was ever more effectively served than was the Irish cause in Parliament by him. His faults of all sorts were serious, and his fall at the end was tremendous, but he was none the less a man of extraordinary capacity and great achievement.

It is not in the least likely that the Parnellites will be able to carry out their threat of keeping up a distinctive organization, hostile not only to the rest of the Irish party, but to Gladstone and the English Liberals. The melancholy failure of Parnell's attempt to do this very thing, in spite of his prestige and his great ability, shows the fate that is in store for the little Rump of blatherskites and firebrands which he has left behind. There is no man of any weight or eminence among them. They all shine with a reflected light, which, of course, will now rapidly disappear. When the preparations for a general election begin, and they ask the Irish voters to refuse the help of the English Liberals in getting the very thing they have been struggling for for ninety years, the absurdity of the programme will be apparent even to the most illogical. Moreover, they have no journal of any influence to represent them, now that the *Freeman's Journal* has abandoned their cause; and an Irish party without a newspaper is like a locomotive without fuel.

The strain of idealism in the Jewish mind is well shown in the decision of the Russo-Jewish Committee of London to send the novelist, Mr. Hall Caine, on a tour through Russia. This action was resolved upon in the thought that "the powerful pen of an imaginative writer, who has lately shown his strong sympathy with the Jewish people in another land of oppression [Morocco], might perhaps move the public so deeply that even the Russian Government could not be indifferent to the outburst of indignation which would be evoked." Ever since 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' reformers and philanthropists have been looking for the novel that would furnish a short cut to their goal. One reason why they have not found it is the fact that the peculiar conditions which led to the anti-slavery story cannot be reproduced, among them being the circumstance that Mrs. Stowe did her work with no foresight whatever of its tremendous effect. When notice is deliberately served on the public that it is to be profoundly moved, and the novelist is seen squaring his elbows for the work, the tears do not follow to order. Besides, Russia is pretty well hardened by this time to "outbursts of indignation" in other countries, and will have to be stayed in her course, if at all by outside influence, by something more tangible than the horrified cries of the readers of an "imaginative writer."

It is not easy to say at this distance whether the new Russian loan, for which subscriptions were opened in Paris a few days ago, has been a success or a failure. Only a part of the loan was subscribed for within the prescribed period, and hence an extension has been rendered necessary. Its prospects for futher subscription, moreover, are impaired by the fact that the financial markets are already quoting the loan at a discount. Under ordinary circumstances all this would practically assure the failure of the loan. But Russia is so very hard pressed and needy a borrower, and has tried its experiment under conditions so thoroughly adverse—the whole Jewish banking community being enlisted against it—that a very moderate measure of success in this undertaking would be equivalent to a financial triumph elsewhere. That such unfavorable incidents were anticipated, moreover, is apparent from the liberal commission of three-quarters of one per cent. offered to brokers, which gives ample margin for shrinkage in market quotations. Nobody need suppose, therefore, that M. Vishnegradsky will abandon his efforts because the first experiment resulted unfortunately. It is not in a single day that $100,000,000 can be raised on its own bonds by a nation practically bankrupt, with its securities tabooed in the two principal financial markets of Europe, its monetary projects handicapped by opposition from the most powerful Continental financiers, and its outlook for surplus revenue rendered almost desperate through the ruin of its harvest. Granting all the force of "Russophile" enthusiasm among French investors, the successful floating of so large a loan under such circumstances would be an episode almost without parallel in financial history. Certainly it would not be possible anywhere else than in France. But the French investors, great and small, entertain a very positive belief that political convictions may be backed unhesitatingly with money. Believing as they do in the political harmony of Russia and France, it is quite possible that investment in a Russian loan appeals to them much as if it were an investment in the Franco-Russian Alliance.

The meagre and unintelligible accounts of rioting in Rio de Janeiro probably indicate no serious political trouble; yet they may very well be an index of grave public discontent with the way things are going. The dissatisfaction relates partly to the conduct of President Fonseca, who persists in going on pretty much as he did when Dictator, as if the Constitution and Congress were toys for the people to amuse themselves with, while he was doing the real governing of the country according to his superior lights. Then, there is also great complaint of the general financial management; huge banking scandals are in the background; the accounts of the Provisional Government and the budget for the coming year are kept back from Congress in an extraordinary manner; and the unexampled decline in foreign exchange has raised the cost of living to an unprecedented height. A good deal of all this has been reflected in the independent comments of the *Rio News*, a journal that is often extreme in its utterances, we must remark, but one that has a happy faculty of telling disagreeable truths— as in its issue of August 25:

> "There can be no disputing the fact that the situation in Brazil has become most critical, and that it cannot be supported much longer. Although the country is now marketing a large coffee crop, and although the out-turn of other products is equal to, if not above, the average, the rate of exchange is steadily falling, and the costs and difficulties of living and transacting business are continually increasing. There has been no war, nor great calamity; the country is in a state of profound peace, and not one single obstacle exists to the development of industry and trade. And yet, in spite of all this, he credit of the country abroad has largely decreased, and is being now maintained with difficulty, while at home the currency of the country is depreciated nearly 50 per cent., trade is becoming demoralized, and public confidence has been seriously shaken. There has been a peaceful change of government, which has created but little more disturbance than an ordinary change of ministry; but it has left everything in so topsy-turvy and unsettled a condition that the new men seem to be utterly lost in the confusion. In every branch of the public service, incapacity and indifference reign supreme. We have a bank problem which no one is able to solve, a currency problem which no one can understand, a joint-stock-company problem whose destructive results no one foresees, a transportation and shipping problem whose defects no one appreciates, a custom-house problem whose oppressiveness and fatal consequences no one cares to think about, and political problems without number, whose solution is being sought in makeshifts and delays, to the incalculable loss of trade and industry in every part of the country."

The election returns from Norway show strong gains for the Radicals at the expense of the moderate Left, the Conservatives remaining about as before. This change of front indicates an endorsement by his party of Steen's policy of a separate Foreign Office for Norway, and if the Radical increase continues in the remaining districts, the present Minister's position will be assured for the following year. Unless, however, the Conservatives suffer some serious loss of votes, which at present does not seem at all likely, the question cannot be brought to a vote, as without a combination of the two branches of the Left the necessary two-thirds majority cannot be reached. It begins to look now as if Norway were slowly drifting towards the unfortunate political situation of her sister kingdom, Denmark, where everything else is subordinated to the consideration of a single apparently unattainable object. As in Denmark, the Radicals of Norway are bitterly opposed to any form of compromise, regarding with disgust their more amenable brethren.

STATE AND NATIONAL POLITICS.

ONE of the fears of the framers of the Constitution was that the Federal Government would prove so insignificant in the popular eye, compared with the State Government, that State and not Federal offices would be the chief objects of ambition to first-rate men. For a while this was true. There was a period, in the larger States at least, when a lover of public honors would rather be Governor than Senator. But this state of things has long passed away. It is the Federal offices which are now the great political prizes and which most fire the popular imagination. The Presidential election has made all others by comparison unimportant.

If this tendency had been accompanied by an extension of the sphere of Federal authority, there would be little to be said against it except by the enemies of centralization. But it has not. Federal jurisdiction covers almost the same ground that it did one hundred years ago. Nine-tenths of all the rights and interests for the protection of which government exists among civilized men are still within the sphere of State legislation. If it were not for the tariff, which raises prices, the great bulk of the population of New York would never, from one year's end to another, except through the Post-office, come in contact with Federal authority. Property, marriage, education, wills and succession, civil and criminal justice, land tenures, charities, are all matters exclusively of State jurisdiction, over which neither President nor Congress has any control whatever. So that our increasing absorption in the Presidential election and increasing indifference to the State elections may fairly be called an anomaly which will greatly puzzle future historians.

It is made all the more extraordinary by the fictitious powers attributed to the President during the canvass. Every Presidential canvass furnishes illustrations of this, but the most striking illustration of it was furnished in 1884, when the Republican press, headed by the *Tribune*, continued day after day, with wearisome iteration, to assure its readers that, if Cleveland were elected, the rebel debt would be paid, the old slave-owners would be compensated for the loss of their property, and, more extraordinary still, that the tariff would be so modified that most of the mills would be closed, and tens of thousands of American workmen would be thrown out of employment. Moreover, this was believed, in whole or in part, by thousands of very intelligent people. We remember being assured in that year by the head of a great corporation, a Republican, that, in twelve months after Cleveland's accession to power, starving workmen would be knocking people down and robbing them in broad daylight in the streets of New York. No knowledge of the Constitution, no amount of experience of the failure of Presidents to exert any influence whatever on legislation, even with a majority of their own party in Congress, seems sufficient to protect people against this extraordinary hallucination. President Cleveland prevented a great deal of mischievous legislation by his vetoes, but all he was able to accomplish against the tariff he effected by an appeal to the people, in a message which was not destined to bear fruit until two years after he had gone out of office.

Every American knows well that great legislative changes are effected only by the slow working of public opinion through Congressional elections, but this does not prevent his once in four years picturing the President to himself as a benevolent or malevolent despot, as the case may be, who can change the framework of society by a ukase. The election of Harrison in 1888 did not prevent a crushing reversal of the popular verdict in 1890, and Harrison had no more power to prevent it than to prevent an equinoctial gale. The office is a great one, but its powers, and even its influence on public opinion, are very limited. The origin of the purely fictitious importance attributed to it would be found, we have little doubt, by the philosophic historian, in the effect on the imagination of political managers of its immense patronage, exercised under the spoils system. The man who can, if he will, make "a clean sweep," rises, in their affrighted vision, like the Arabian genie, in monstrous proportions, out of the electoral bottle.

That this growing subordination of State to Federal politics has in any way improved the latter, nobody will affirm. Of the deteriorating effect on State politics of using State elections as "straws" to indicate how Federal elections are likely to go, or to influence their result, there is, unhappily, little question. This effect was first most markedly visible in what were known as the "October States," viz., Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Iowa. In these States the State election in Presidential years very soon ceased to have any reference to or influence on State affairs. It became at first disguisedly, and then avowedly, a means of persuading one side or the other that it would win the Presidential election in the following month. As soon as this practice was established, the whole force of each party all over the country in fraud and corruption was directed to achieving victory in these "preliminary skirmishes," until the October States became sinks of corruption, and the date of the election had to be changed to prevent the virtual destruction of the local government.

But a State did not need to be an "October State" to fall a victim to the poison, and did not escape it by ceasing to be an October State. The managers now seek to obtain their "straws" a year earlier. They have begun to demand the use of State elections for Federal purposes, in every year of the Presidential term. There is now, in the larger and more important States, no election in which either Democrats or Republicans, if the managers have their way, are allowed to vote on the issues which most nearly concern their property and reputation. No voter in New York, or Pennsylvania, or Ohio, or Indiana, is allowed, if the politicians can help it, to express in his vote an honest opinion about the way his local government is administered. He has to vote not every four years, but every year, on the tariff and the negro, and on nothing else.

For an illustration of the effect of this on State politics, we need not go further than Pennsylvania and New York. In Pennsylvania, every local interest has been subordinated for twenty years to the support of tariff legislation in Congress and the election of high-tariff Presidents, and the result is "Quayism," or, in other words, the conversion of the State Government into a slough of corruption, the recent revelations about which are astonishing the whole country and discrediting popular government all over the world. In New York, there has grown up during the same period one of the most corrupt and powerful organizations ever seen in politics, with the sole object of quartering as many adventurers as possible on the public treasury, and with most disastrous effect on the political morality and public spirit of both the great parties. And now, so necessary has this organization become to the winning of Federal victories, that the time never comes when party managers will admit that its destruction at the polls may safely be attempted, or when, indeed, any opposition can be safely offered to it by the party to which it nominally belongs. At every election it cunningly claims what may be called its "benefit of clergy." Every time it is asked to take its hand out of the public's pocket, it asks whether you want to ruin the Democratic party?

That this effect on State and city would be produced by this practice, might have been predicted, à priori. The honesty and efficiency of the State Government is as necessary to the genuine success of the American Commonwealth as the honesty and efficiency of the Federal Government; indeed, an intelligent man might, without heresy, say, more so. But no government can be honestly or efficiently administered under which responsibility is divorced from power. That is to say, no government can be really successful in which officers are elected for other purposes than the faithful administration of the office. It is not in human nature for a man who knows that he has been elected Governor of a State not because he is the fittest man for the place, but because, no matter what kind of man he is, his election will furnish a useful "straw" about the result of some other election, to care greatly how he discharges his duty. In fact, he must inevitably doubt whether he has any duty in the premises after he has duly furnished the "straw." Nor can caucuses and conventions greatly care what kind of candidates they present to the voters, as long as they are able to tell them that at this election it makes no difference who is elected, as long as the party wins.

The Republic that could stand this indefinitely would have to be more clearly under the protection of Divine Providence than any Republic has yet been.

PARNELL.

THE most obvious reflection suggested by Parnell's death is, of course, how fortunate it would have been for his fame if it had overtaken him two years ago—say, at the close of the Pigott trial. But if he had died then, his character, puzzling and inscrutable as it was, would not have been as puzzling and inscrutable as it is now. It has been from the beginning a bundle of mysteries on which not even his most intimate friends and followers have been able to throw much light. His determination, when he first entered on political life, to break with the circle in which he was born—that of the Anglo-Irish Protestant gentry—and ally himself with the tenants and Nationalists in a crusade which sought to visit on his own class the consequences of English misgovernment, would have been easily explained by the possession of a warm and enthusiastic temperament, such as is usually described by the epithet "Celtic." But he was, to all outward appearance, a man of unusually cold temperament. No Englishman could surpass him in frigidity of manner. In fact, he had in perfection the "you-be-damned air" which is said to characterize that most typically phlegmatic of Englishmen, Lord Hartington. He was, to all outward appearance, the last man in the world to be moved by a sentimental grievance or fired by a great idea. He had, when he entered Parliament, no sign of the orator about him. Impassive, and unsympathetic in face and movements, he was probably the most unpromising material for an Irish agitator, or ventilator of Irish wrongs, that the troubled fortunes of the island have ever brought to the surface of her politics.

Nevertheless, from the moment of his election to the House of Commons in 1875, he forsook resolutely and unchangeably his own class and all its traditions, and threw in his lot with the then small band of despised and much-abused Irish agitators, who had reached the conclusion that calm discussion of Irish questions was wasted on the English majority, and that, in order to make any real impression on it, sterner measures must be resorted to. He promptly threw off the authority of the then Home-Rule leader, the gentlemanly and moderate Butt, and raised boldly the banner of obstruction by night and day, and fought under it with a bitterness which astonished the English public, completely won over the Irish, and made him in four years their acknowledged leader.

The change in his oratory, too, was no less remarkable than the change in his rôle. It was in the beginning the halting and uncertain utterance of a man who, having no faculty for public talk, rather despised it as an instrument of persuasion. It became, by the time he joined the land movement in 1879, an instrument of extraordinary power, in which every word went home like a pistol shot. The effect of it was heightened by the seeming nonchalance of manner with which he poured it forth. His sarcasm in particular was a weapon from which even the boldest shrank. On one memorable occasion, when he turned on Mr. Chamberlain, after one of his feats of tergiversation, the action of Parnell's oratory on the victim was likened by an eye-witness to the slow dropping of vitriol on an exposed countenance. But it was probably never so characteristically used as in the contemptuous address which he delivered to the Tory majority, who were unwilling to make a formal acknowledgment of his innocence after Pigott's suicide. The scorn which he managed to infuse into the simple closing phrase, "I am sorry for you," is said to have been a wonderful triumph of mere manner and intonation.

His retention of the undisputed leadership of the Irish party sent to the House by the extension of the suffrage, considering the gulf of caste, and manners, and temperament which separated him from them, has always been considered another mystery of his career, second only to its beginning. But this has never seemed to us a great puzzle. The mass of his followers were little fitted by training or education to engage in encounters in the House with the English masters of debate. They were many of them illiterate and uncouth men, who, even if they had the gift of speech, would have been listened to with impatience. Their orators, too, like Dillon, O'Brien, and Sexton, had not yet begun to feel their own power, and in those early days were too mellifluously and fluently Irish to be able to make much impression on an audience to whom the idea that Irish oratory could have anything decidedly unpleasant and serious behind it was still unfamiliar. In those days Parnell was a tower of strength. He proved himself from the beginning a Parliamentarian of consummate force, who was never caught napping, who feared no man, and who never rose without saying the exact thing he meant.

The melancholy tale of his fall from this high and strange position is now familiar to everybody. There were signs of it for two years at least before the end came. Prolonged absence from his post in the House, leaving his followers in absolute ignorance of his whereabouts or of the date of his return, grew more and more frequent, and spread ill-concealed uneasiness through the Liberal ranks. When the dénouement came, it proved to be the old, old story of Samson and Delilah. But no one expected it would really be the close of an extraordinary career. A brief retirement from public life would probably have, for all practical purposes, effaced the memory of it. But then there came that astounding transformation which made recovery impossible. The shrewd, cold, and apparently calculating parliamentarian and man of the world, who had never been known to make a business mistake or give a point to an enemy, was suddenly converted into a shrill, passionate, and reckless claimant of honors and trusts which nobody was willing to award him, making open proclamation of his readiness to ruin his party and his cause in order to retain a position which he had sacrificed with open eyes. But this last act in the tragedy furnishes really rather a study in morbid pyschology than in politics. We presume that all who ever followed Parnell or admired him will cling to the belief that the frantic follies of his last years were the result of disease, and not a revelation of long hidden moral unsoundness. No more striking figure has ever appeared in English politics, and if he could have passed from the scene at an earlier period, his name would probably have been put without difficulty, when the passions of the Irish question had subsided, on the roll of illustrious British public men.

BALLOT REFORM IN PENNSYLVANIA.

LAST spring neither party in Pennsylvania was disposed to disregard the popular demand for a ballot which should be both secret and impartially furnished to every voter. Yet the uncertainties of the political situation were such that the Republican Legislature passed, and the Democratic Governor approved, a ballot bill whose operation was deferred until after March 1, 1892—that is, until after the next State and local elections, which would have furnished valuable experience, and would undoubtedly have secured a true ballot reform at the next Presidential election. Moreover, the "practical politicians" inserted in the bill a provision that any voter might declare that, by reason of disability, he desired the assistance of a qualified voter in the voting compartment where he was to prepare his ballot. The bill also allows watchers, with their poll-list and challenge-marks, so that it guarantees little more secrecy than at present. As the Legislature does not meet in regular session again until after the next Presidential election, the Ballot Law will stand unless the Constitution of the State is changed in the meantime. This contingency was foreseen by the labor leaders; and, by their agitation, a bill was passed by the same Legislature of 1891, calling upon the people to vote for or against a Constitutional Convention, and at the same election to choose delegates to sit in the Convention, if called.

The Convention of 1873 introduced into the Constitution of Pennsylvania two provisions which are now objected to as opposed to the secrecy of the ballot, and consequently to ballot reform. These were the numbering of the ballots as received by the election officers, and the provision that no voter should be deprived of his right to vote by reason of his not being registered in advance of the election. The dangers then most prominent being the stuffing of ballot-boxes and the personation of voters—no member of that Convention seems to have thought of any more efficient remedy than positive identification of the voter and his ballot by the above means—and by making the election districts small, so that the voters might know each other. As a result of these provisions, ballot-box-stuffing and personation have been changed into intimidation and bribery. To prevent the old evils and suppress the new now seems possible only by requiring previous registration and a secret ballot. Without a popular awakening, however, there can be no ballot reform in Pennsylvania for the next two or

three years. By that time the now dominant party will have such a small majority as to be upon its good behavior. For this contingency, the astute managers of the Republican party have provided by a plank in the present party platform, promising that if the people do not call a convention, the Legislature will submit an amendment to accomplish the desired reform. The Democratic platform-maker, with less shrewdness, has suggested that, if a convention be called, the delegates ought to feel themselves pledged to consider merely the one question of ballot reform. But no such pledge is a part of the platform.

The necessity for calling a convention to amend the State Constitution does not arise from the absence of the usual clause authorizing the Legislature to submit amendments to the people. There was such an omission in the Constitution of 1790, as a kind of recoil from the provisions of the Constitution of 1776; but in 1838 the present provision was added, which prevents the Legislature from proposing amendments to the State Constitution "oftener than once in five years." This restraint is now operative, as the prohibition amendment was submitted by the Legislature in 1889, and, being left to its fate, was of course defeated by the active efforts of the liquor interest.

There is, nevertheless, no restraint upon the calling of a convention as often as the Legislature may choose, the people having merely the choice of delegates. This was the Democratic plan in the last Legislature, and had the merit of securing a convention. But the Legislature passed the Republican bill, which submits at one election the two questions, whether there shall be a convention, and, if so, who shall compose it. On the Democratic side of both houses it was objected that the double election on one day would compel candidates to work for election to an office which might never exist, whereas the effect ought to have been to make the candidates active promoters of the Convention. As a matter of fact, they have expressed no views whatever upon the method of amending the Constitution; nor have the newspapers considered it worth their while to discuss what form the amendment of the Constitution to secure ballot reform shall take. The silence of the press is the less excusable, as the question of amendment must come up, if not now, then in the near future.

The Constitution may be amended by simply striking out the compromises of 1873, thus returning to the requirements of 1790 and 1838 (without going further back), that "all elections shall be by ballot." This would leave the Legislature free to introduce the Australian system. Such seems to have been the thought of the Republicans in their ballot bill, which finally became a law, for, in the section where secrecy was sought after by sealing up the number required to be placed upon the ballot by the Constitution of the State, there is a proviso that no number shall be placed on the ballot after the Constitution ceases to require such numbering. Still another course is practicable: An article might be inserted in the Constitution fixing even the details of an election, if the restriction upon the submission of amendments by the Legislature were taken off. This would obviate the necessity of calling a convention, and would escape the peril of throwing open the whole Constitution to the tinkering of a convention called expressly for one purpose.

"SOCIALS."

In these days of sociological study, when the habits of all forms of civilized and uncivilized society are made the subject of special investigation, it is surprising that so little scientific attention has been given to those manifestations of the gregarious instinct of Americans which are called "socials," or "sociables." Most observers of life and readers of the country press have been vaguely aware of these phenomena, and some have doubtless been struck by their rapid spread in new forms throughout the land, so that "Pink Teas" and "Apron Socials" now figure frequently in the reports of the doings of the gay world. But what was needed was some skilled and patient investigator who should study the facts at close range, and bring order into this confused province of human knowledge. Such a person has been found, we are glad to say, and the manual on the subject which she has published in Chicago, under the title 'Socials,' comes nearer filling "a long-felt want" than many of the more pretentious works of sociologists. It is true that she writes as the ardent advocate and propagator of "socials," rather than as their dispassionate critic; but she gives a full classification and explanation of them, including some varieties invented by herself, and so throws a great deal of light upon a very dark subject.

Her most general definition of a "social" is that it is "one of the commonest means by which different societies seek to raise money." She also notes the fact that people are "less charitably inclined, less public-spirited than they used to be; every season they become more exacting as to the amount of amusement furnished for the money. . . . Consequently, from all over the country, arises the cry: 'What can we get up that shall be new and entertaining?'" Having thus clearly pointed out the demand for the inventive purveyor of "socials," she proceeds to lay down certain general principles by which that important functionary must be guided. The first is, that "the character of those who are to form the audience must be taken into consideration." As she justly observes, a "Shaksperian carnival" is "delightful," but would be voted "stupid by one who had never read Shakspere." In like manner "An Evening with Browning" would scarcely be enjoyed by those who, having "read and studied all day, want to be amused, and will be more likely to spend their money where they can have a good time without much mental effort." Hence arises the necessity for such mentally non-fatiguing substitutes as the "C Social," the "Crazy Social," and the "Phantom Social," all of which, with a great many others, are elaborately explained by the author.

Take the "Palette Social" as a specimen: "Each gentleman paid twenty-five cents, and received a palette cut from white cardboard, to which a small lead-pencil was tied with narrow ribbon. On the palette were the words, 'Supper for two' in fancy letters, and along one side of it were figures from 1 to 20. The gentlemen were then taken to another room, where attendants wrapped them in sheets, and tied masks over their faces, completely disguising them; then a tiny card, just large enough to hold one or two figures, was fastened to the drapery of each. The ladies were required to pay ten cents each, which entitled them to a card similar to those fastened to the gentlemen. They were then told that they would find a package in the next room marked by a card bearing a number corresponding to that which they held. . . . The lady was obliged to remove the mask from the face of her 'package' as soon as she found it, and he then acted as her escort for the rest of the evening." Now, before the unthinking reader pronounces a hasty judgment upon the foregoing, let him pause to reflect how many important principles of the art of social converse it illustrates. "One of the most necessary elements," says our author, "is surprise." There can be no question about that result—at least upon a mind not made *blasé* by a long experience of "socials." Moreover, this "surprise" at once "rendered impossible the restraint so often noticeable at such gatherings." The "Palette Social" also meets in the finest way another requirement of the art, which is, our expounder tells us: "Do not be afraid to be silly." A doubt occurs to us, however, very likely due to our ignorance, whether there is not here a violation of that other canon implied in the author's assertion, "A person with any regard for comfort will not go a second time to a place where he has once been made nearly wild."

Only secondary to the main object of raising money, a great aim of "socials" is, we are told, to do away with "awful pauses" and "stiffness." An effective way of getting rid of those undesirable features is furnished by the "Conundrum Social," in which the gentlemen draw conundrums from one box and the ladies the answers from another, and then "the gentleman must find the lady who holds the answer to his conundrum, and pay for her supper." There is a hint here also for those who deplore the decay of conversation as a fine art, since "the delightful part of this arrangement is that in his search he is obliged to enter into conversation with many different ladies," and thus "the scene at once becomes animated." If "stiffness" cannot be avoided in this way, the experimenter is advised to try a "Brown Tea," at the conclusion of which the ladies are placed "behind a curtain, with their feet only in view," and auctioned off to "charitably inclined young men who will buy a supper for them." If all else fails, resort should be had to the "Apron Social," in which the gentlemen hem aprons, the most successful

seamster being voted a prize by the ladies. "The more comical the prize is, the better. A pumpkin pie, baked in the largest dripping-pan in the neighborhood, is usually hailed with delight, and so is a popcorn ball as large as a water-pail."

In spite of her aversion to the literary "socials," as being too intellectually exhausting, our mentor provides for one "Authors' Social." She admits that this "requires considerable preparation," but thinks it necessary to pander occasionally to "those who prefer to have a little instruction with their amusement." Those exceptional people are to be gratified by the impersonation of a "few well-known authors." She suggests as a "good company"—"good," we suppose, for the desired combination of "instruction" and "amusement"—"Dickens, Tennyson, Longfellow, Mark Twain, Bill Nye, Josiah Allen's wife, Amelia Rives, and Elizabeth Stuart Phelps." After the "actors" have made themselves up "to look as nearly as possible like the authors whom they personate," they are to go on with a "dialogue" which "should be prepared and committed to memory. This," it is conceded, "may seem a difficult task to many, but it is not, if begun aright." The way to begin aright is, it seems, "if there is a funny incident in the life of one author, another tells it as a good joke on him." Thus we suppose it would be the thing for Josiah Allen's wife to twit Tennyson with becoming a lord, in spite of having expressed his preference for a kind heart over a coronet. Readings of "something which they have written, and a song or two may be introduced," and the only stipulation in regard to the "conversations" is that they should be "natural and lively." Even after all precautions are taken, the warning is given that the "audience . . . may not enjoy a whole evening devoted to authors. . . . Do not think because the literary entertainment is good and ought to be liked, that it must and shall be." Consequently, you are to experiment upon your audience with a minute dose of "authors," and, if they do not seem to like it, then "have simple refreshments, followed by general conversation or games."

We are unable to go into the delights of the "Cap Social," the "Basket Social," the "Mother Goose Social," the "Mum Social," the "Quaker Social," and the many other fascinating varieties described in the manual. What we have written will at least serve to show that the future of American society is secure. When such forms of social intercourse as those explained here are in common and growing use in large sections of our country, it can no longer be truthfully said that the American Philistine leads a life of "hideousness and immense ennui," as Matthew Arnold asserted to be the case with the British Philistine, the heir of the Puritans and their theory of life. That writer is dead, unfortunately, and so it must be left to some other pen than his to write a description of the brilliance of the American "social," which will rival his famous account of society in the salons of France.

SWISS AND AMERICAN CONSTITUTIONALISM.

LONDON, September 23, 1891.

NOTHING is more noteworthy than the attention which of recent years publicists in both England and America have directed to the Swiss Constitution. Twenty (or even ten) years back no English writer, except Mr. Freeman, knew anything about Swiss politics, and not the least among the many services the author of the 'History of Federal Government' has rendered to the English people on both sides of the Atlantic is his having at last taught the world that Switzerland possessed many things of interest besides her mountains. The 'Swiss Confederation' of Sir Francis Adams, the lectures of Prof. Moses, Mr. Vincent's lucid essay on 'State and Federal Government in Switzerland,' are all signs that Prof. Freeman's teaching has at last borne fruit, and that thoughtful men, especially in America, are now resolved to study the history and the institutions of a State which, according to the way you look at the matter, may be called either the oldest or the newest of Federal governments.

It is natural and desirable that the jurists of America should explore with special care the intricate Federal system of Switzerland. They have some advantages as students which cannot be possessed either by English or by French observers. The resemblances between the Federalism of America and the Federalism of Switzerland are striking and obvious; they cannot possibly escape the notice of any one who knows the history or takes part in the public life of the United States. The analogies between the history of the two Federations are full of curiosity and instruction. The struggle between the Catholic and the Protestant Cantons has a real affinity to the struggle between the South and the North. In both countries a body of States representing what must be called retrograde political ideas held their own for a length of time with marvellous success against States of far greater power, which were the representatives of modern progress and enlightenment. The disputes about the common territories oddly recall certain phases of the conflict between the free States and the slave States. The Sonderbund anticipated secession. Dufour's strategy was in its way quite as remarkable as Grant's; the week's campaign which, contrary to the expectation of the best-informed European statesmen, finally crushed the Sonderbund, was as decisive in its way as the years of civil war which ended in the destruction of the Confederacy.

The institutions of Switzerland, again, may be called a reduced copy of the American Commonwealth. The Cantons are only States called by another name. The doctrine of State rights is at least as well understood in the Confederacy as in the United States. In Switzerland, even more than in America, the whole working of the Government and the political life of the nation depend upon the constant effort to maintain an elaborate and very artificial balance between the supremacy of the nation and the semi-sovereignty—if jurists will pardon the term—of States, such as Lucerne, Geneva, or Zurich. The Swiss Federal Assembly is in some points of view an intended imitation of Congress: we may safely assert that the Swiss would never have tried a bicameral system but for the influence of American example, that the Council of States owes its existence to admiration for the American Senate, and that the creation of the Federal Court was, if not caused, yet greatly aided, by the high reputation of the Supreme Court of the United States. When we add to all this that in Switzerland, as in America, democratic institutions and habits of an extreme type are combined with Federal institutions, we need not wonder that American jurists should devote special attention to a country where an American may find himself at home.

Yet, to speak the truth, I am inclined to think that the real, and, still more, the superficial, similarities between the Swiss and the American commonwealths are likely to prove a snare in the path of Americans bent on understanding not only the form, which is a comparatively easy thing, but, what is a far more difficult matter, the spirit of Swiss political life. For the points of difference between the two democratic federations are, though not as salient as their points of resemblance, at least as remarkable, and are more fundamental. It were greatly to be wished, then, that American jurists, whose labors will, if well directed, bear rich fruit, should, in their study of Switzerland, bear in mind the features in which the Swiss Confederacy and the United States throw light on each other by way of contrast rather than of difference.

The constitutions of both countries are Federal democracies, but while American democracy is founded on traditions and ideas common to the whole English people, Swiss democracy is founded on historical conditions and on conceptions of government and law common to the whole of Continental Europe. Master the idea that the Swiss Confederacy is the one completely developed and completely successful democracy of the Continental type, while the United States is the one completely developed and preëminently successful democracy of the English type, and you have the clue to mysteries in Swiss institutions which are often overlooked, but which, if noted, always perplex the English or the American observer. In making this remark, let me add at once that I have not the presumption either to assert or to believe that wherever Swiss customs or laws deviate from the Anglo-Saxon type they are defective. The institutions of the English people are no more perfect than the institutions of other nations. Swiss statesmen may learn, as indeed they have learned, much that is valuable from the experience of England and of the United States. Englishmen and Americans may learn, though perhaps they have not yet learned, from the experience and institutions of the Swiss Confederacy. But neither Englishmen nor Americans will gain a knowledge which it is of importance they should acquire, unless they recognize the fact that, in spite of superficial appearances to the contrary, the Swiss commonwealth is no copy of the American commonwealth.

To see that this is so, it is enough to note the idea which underlies all the political institutions of the English people on both sides the Atlantic. This idea is nothing else than the supremacy of fixed law. In England, no less than in the United States, every official is—in reality, however much the fact may be disguised in England by fictions—bound by law, and, one may say, by very rigid law. What is of even more consequence than this, all the rights of individuals, both as regards each other and towards the State, are regulated by law, and are ultimately definable in any given case by the courts. The question, for instance, which is at this moment exercising the minds and exciting the passions of thousands of Englishmen—whether the Salvation Army may march with bands of music through East-

bourne on a Sunday—is from an English, as it would be, did the same difficulty arise at New York, from the American, point of view, a mere question of law. Its decision depends, unless Parliament should intervene and change the law, upon the correct interpretation of one or two sections in a local act of Parliament. There is, strictly speaking, no room for compromise. What may be the discretion of the Eastbourne magistrates—itself a question of law—or how this discretion, should it exist, may in the present condition of Eastbourne be most wisely exercised, are questions on which I have no means of forming an opinion. One thing is certain: neither the Queen, nor the Prime Minister, nor the Home Secretary, nor any official whatever, has a right to suspend the execution or override the terms of the law which at the present moment governs the right of meeting on Sundays at Eastbourne. The rights or the wrongs of the Salvationists, as of their opponents, are determinable by litigation; they are not determinable by diplomacy or negotiation.

Far otherwise is it in Switzerland. The Salvation Army thought well some years ago to "invade" Swiss territory. Their "campaign" excited some disturbance, and in certain Cantons much indignation; many of the cantonal governments passed laws (which, from a Salvationist point of view, might savor of persecution) for the suppression of the Army's open-air meetings. The Salvationists, like true Anglo-Saxons, stood upon their rights; they maintained that these laws were "unconstitutional" (in the American, not in the English, sense of that word); they applied to the Federal Court. The jurisdiction of the Federal Court in the matter was contestable. The body to which the decision as to the rights of the Salvationists and as to the constitutionality of the cantonal laws, in fact, under the Swiss Constitution, belonged, was in reality the Federal Council, or, as we should say in England, the Cabinet. The Executive, therefore, issued a report addressed, I conceive, to the Federal Assembly, which, in fact, decided the whole question. The judgment, if we may call it so, is very unlike the judgment of any English or American court. It is based partly on law, but partly—and this is hardly concealed—on general considerations of policy. It determines, in effect, that the right of public meeting must in principle be maintained in favor of the Salvationists, but that this right must in practice be exercised with moderation, and that the cantonal laws which restrain the right of public meeting are, if looked at as pieces of permanent legislation, unconstitutional, but if regarded as temporary regulations for the maintenance of order, are unobjectionable. The Salvationists, in short, are told that they must exercise their rights moderately, with out pushing them to extremes. The cantonal governments are told that, while they may slightly invade the strict rights of the Salvationists, they must not permanently subvert the privileges secured to all men by the Constitution.

This way of dealing with a legal and political difficulty has a good deal to recommend it, but no court in England or America could deal with a question of legal right in the manner in which the Swiss Cabinet have met the demands of the Salvationists and of their opponents. Certainly, neither in England nor in America would the Executive ever be called upon, as the Swiss Cabinet constantly is called upon, to exercise the functions of a court, and of a court governed partly by legal, partly by what I may term diplomatic, considerations. I have dwelt on this "case of the Salvationists" because it affords a typical instance of the working of Swiss institutions. The history of the recent movement in Ticino would, had I the space to follow it out, be equally illustrative of Swiss habits of political action. There again we should find that the Swiss Ministry or Cabinet—the terms are not correct, but they convey to my readers better than does any other language the nature of the Federal Council—dealt with a question of constitutional law which threatened a dangerous political crisis, partly as a court, partly as an executive body. Legal rights were sacrificed, but order was preserved and a national danger was averted. The members of the Ministry may not be perfectly just judges, but they are sagacious administrators and astute diplomatists.

If an Englishman is astonished at the freedom with which the Swiss Executive moderates the operation of strict law, an American would, I conceive, though I speak with diffidence, be surprised at the liberties which the Swiss Executive will, if occasion requires, take with cantonal rights. Now at the bottom of the authority which Swiss democrats concede, both in theory and in practice, to the Cabinet lie apparently two ideas. The first is, that in a democracy the Executive government as truly represents the people as the Federal Assembly or the courts, and that there is, therefore, no special ground for jealously watching the action of the Government. The second is, that the rules of the Constitution, and indeed the law of the land, is not the only expression of the will of the people; that therefore, when occasion requires, the Executive, which exists to carry into effect the will of the nation, may to a certain extent interfere with the operation of the law. Let me not be misunderstood. I do not assert that these ideas are either sound or unsound. It is clear enough that the democracy which entertains them may be exposed to dangers from which Englishmen or Americans are protected by the belief in law. My only contention is that these ideas, or notions like them, influence the Swiss, and give to the institutions of Switzerland a character essentially different from institutions created by the English people.

If we leave for a moment the spirit and come to some of the details of Swiss constitutionalism, we shall find that the arrangements of the Confederacy are weak or defective just where the institutions of the United States are strong, and that the institutions of Switzerland are strong just where the institutions of the United States are or seem to be weak.

The Swiss Council of States, for example, was made in avowed imitation of the American Senate. The statesmen of '48 expected that the Council would be the most influential part of the whole Federal Government. Experience has entirely belied their expectations. The Council of States has never, since its creation, been able to occupy anything like the position of the American Senate. For this failure many causes may be given; one is of itself sufficient to explain. The Council does not exercise any special functions; one might almost say that there is no reason for its existence, except, of course, the general reasons, some of them strong enough, which may always be urged in favor of the bicameral system.

The Federal Court, again, suffers a good deal by the comparison which its name provokes with the Supreme Court of the United States. It is, indeed, a most respectable tribunal, and, what is a matter of great consequence, the course of events since '48 has increased, and probably may yet increase, its authority. Mr. Vincent, whose judgment on such a matter ought to be treated with great respect, apparently expects that the Federal Court will by degrees come to occupy something more like the position of the American judiciary. Whether this expectation is well founded seems, to an observer uninfluenced by American traditions, very doubtful. That new functions will as time goes on be discharged by the Federal Court is probable or even certain; that it will ever exert an authority like that wielded by the Supreme Court is improbable, and this for more than one reason. The Federal Court has no independent means of enforcing its own judgments. For this purpose it must rely, in the last resort, on the aid of the Federal Cabinet. Its judges are elected by the Federal Assembly, and elected for short terms; it cannot pronounce any enactment of the Federal Assembly unconstitutional; it is in its own sphere overshadowed by the Cabinet. At the bottom of all these causes of weakness lies the fact, which is betrayed by every page of Swiss history, that the Swiss people have never discriminated with anything like distinctness the functions of the Executive, of the Legislature, and of the Judiciary. If this discrimination be, as most thinkers consider it is, a mark of progress, the Swiss in this matter fall behind not only England and the United States, but other Continental countries, such, for example, as France or Italy. It is fair to add that this blending of judicial with executive functions has in Switzerland some recommendations; but, until the "division of powers" is recognized, the authority of the Federal Court is not likely to be greatly increased.

Meanwhile, the Cabinet, or, to use the Swiss term, Federal Council, gains what the Court loses. No candid observer will assert that the American Presidency has been the most successful of the institutions created by the founders of the United States. But every one who has studied Swiss history and politics will be inclined to assert that the Council, or Cabinet, is the most successful, as it is certainly the most original, among the institutions of Switzerland. The Cabinet, placed in office, as it is, by a vote of the Assembly, but not exposed to be dismissed from office by the body which has placed it in power, combines to a very great extent the advantages of a parliamentary Executive such as exists in England, and a non-parliamentary Executive such as exists in America. Switzerland is thus saved from the changes of administration and the fluctuations of policy incident to cabinet government, and it is also saved from the conflicts, the excitement, and the intrigue which seem to be some of the evils that necessarily attend Presidential government. No democratic executive has ever displayed anything like the permanence and the quiet business capacity of the Swiss Council. Political theorists urge, and possibly may urge with success, the substitution for it of a body elected by direct popular vote. No argument is put forward in favor of this change except that the innovation is in accordance with so-called democratic principles. This fact is of itself sufficient evidence of the sterling merits possessed by the Swiss Ministry.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE SPEAKERSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It has been suggested in some quarters that it will be expedient to select the

next Speaker from the North or West, in order to avoid the charge of sectionalism which would be levelled against the promised tariff bill if a Southern man should be chosen Speaker. It is alleged in support of this that the Mills Bill suffered from that cause.

It is exceedingly unfortunate that so important a question as the election of the Speaker should be complicated by geographical considerations, and for my part I cannot think that they are entitled to much weight. A few years ago, it was asserted that the Executive Department could not safely be intrusted to the hands of a Democrat. As long as the experiment was untried, the argument was perhaps not without effect; but actual experience completely exploded it. Whatever else may be said of the Administration of Mr. Cleveland, no one will again contend that the Government will be unpatriotically conducted either by him or by his party. The important practical consequences of this have been repeatedly pointed out in the *Nation*.

The Speakership is an honor that justly falls to a party's leader, regardless of the situation of the district from which he "hails." The very position of leader of a party, whose members in greater or less number represent every point of the compass, shows the quality of statesman as against that of local politician. For a party, then, in a time of perfect peace, security, and national unity to renounce its leader because he comes from a district which, a quarter of a century ago, fought for an idea which it has since been glad to abandon, were surely pusillanimous in the extreme. The brave course is here, as elsewhere, the right course: the Speaker must be chosen on his merits. If he chance to be a Southern man, the effective way to silence insinuation is to prove by legislation that it is baseless. A tariff measure framed in the large spirit in which alone it should be conceived will for ever quiet apprehension on that score; whereas, if the natural party leader is put aside for another recommended solely or chiefly by the accident of locality, the scare will remain available for future use.

As far as my observation enables me to say, it seems to me that the Southern Democrats are disposed to pursue a wise and moderate course. To say the least, the conduct of the Northern Republicans in the last Congress was not so high-minded as to make it necessary to exclude the Southern Democrats from another trial. I dare say the Mills Bill was framed in as liberal and unselfish a spirit as the McKinley Bill. At all events, the charge of probable sectionalism comes with bad grace from those whose pet measure, so far from embodying the needs of even a section of the country, was dictated by a few grasping merchants and manufacturers. A. F.

LOUISVILLE, October 3, 1891.

HYGIENE IN FRANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The discussions in the Paris Academy of Medicine upon the causes and remedies for the stationary or diminishing character of the French population, as well as upon the leading questions of public sanitation, disease-prevention, and the loss of life due to the peculiar methods of infant farming, recently ended in the adoption of the appended resolutions. This body rarely makes recommendations to the law-making power unsuccessfully, and it may be confidently expected that these measures will shortly take effect.

(1.) That in each department there be established an asylum or refuge for the reception and care of women in the later months of pregnancy and in their accouchement. That, if so desired, absolute secrecy be observed. That there be an office to give succor and aid to persons unable to procure proper care for themselves and infants.

(2.) That the law of December 23, 1874, for the protection of infants, be revised in some of its provisions, and notably that relating to "l'élevage mercenaire," in order that infants may not henceforth be left without the supervision and care of the parents.

(3.) That vaccination and revaccination be made obligatory.

(4.) As this law is of national importance (it has been recently adopted), the Academy recommends that vaccination and revaccination be encouraged and facilitated by all possible means at all times, and notably so when departments are advised of the appearance of indications of variola by the State Council of Hygiene, because, contrary to popular prejudice, vaccination and revaccination are the surest means of arresting the spread of smallpox and stamping it out of existence.

(5.) That all school-children be vaccinated and revaccinated, as all soldiers and sailors are.

(6.) That a vaccination service be organized throughout the country, without charge to the people, a day being fixed upon for the operation, which is to be performed as seems necessary.

(7.) That smallpox cases be isolated in all instances, in hospitals and elsewhere.

(8.) That municipalities, prefects, and the powers that exist in communes be given sufficient authority by law to correct at once all insanitary conditions, and particularly to procure the supply of pure water without the admixture of sewage and surface contaminations.

The Academy has three times in the last ten years voted in favor of obligatory vaccination and revaccination. Many other public-health questions were under discussion, particularly measures looking to the prevention of typhoid and the commonly prevalent infectious diseases, the number of lives that could thus be saved annually, aggregating, it is estimated, upwards of 150,000; but the above measures were the principal ones formulated and urgently pressed upon the attention of the French Parliament.

C. A. SIEGFRIED.

NEWPORT, October 3, 1891.

THE WASHINGTON CONNECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the Washington papers in the possession of the Government I found the following letter, which may lead to some further discoveries in the English records on the Washington family. The emigrant Lawrence had married in England Mary Jones, and had by her one daughter, Mary. It was to this daughter that the letter was written. By a second wife Lawrence had a son John, the writer of the letter, and Ann. Mary married Edward Gibson of Hawnes, and Mr. Henry F. Waters gives me the following information: "He was vicar of that parish, as his father (of same name) had been before him. She probably died before her husband, if I draw the right inference from his will, which does not mention a wife. This will is of Edward Gibson of Hawnes, minister, 6th January, 1723; proved 17th June, 1732. . . . The Aunt Howard mentioned in the letter may have been Martha Washington, youngest sister of the two emigrants to Virginia, who herself was assisted by her eldest brother, Col. John Washington, to remove to Virginia." This last incident is to be found in Col. John's will, printed in my compilation of Washington wills. I would add that the letter is not an original, but a copy, sent to Washington when he was President by a descendant of this Mary Gibson. Perhaps some of your readers may be able to add to the information it conveys.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BROOKLYN, October 6, 1891.

VIRGINIA, June y^{e} 22d, 1699.

Dear & Loving Sister,

I had the happiness to see a Letter which you sent to my Aunt Howard, who died about a year and a half ago; I had heard of you by her before, but could not tell whether you were alive or not. It was truly great joy to hear that I had such a relation alive as yourself; not having any such a one by my Father's side as yourself. My Father had one Daughter by my Mother, who died when she was very young, before my remembrance. My Mother had three daughters when my Father married her, one died last winter, and left four or five children, the other two are alive & married and have had several children. My Mother married another man after my Father, who spent all, so that I had not the value of twenty shillings of my Father's estate, I being the youngest & therefore the weakest, which generally comes off short. But I thank God my Fortune has been pretty good since, as I have got a kind and loving wife, by whom I have had three sons and a daughter, of which I have buried my daughter and one son. I am afraid I shall never have the happiness of seeing you, since it has pleased God to set us at such a distance, but hoping to hear from you by all opportunities, which you shall assuredly do from him that is

Your ever loving Brother
till death
JNO. WASHINGTON.

If you write to me direct yours to me in Stafford county, on Potomack River in Virginia. Vale.

To Mrs. Mary Gibson, living at Hawne's in Bedf's. These sent with care.

A CAST-COLLECTION CATALOGUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been favored with a copy of the 'Tentative Lists of Objects Desirable for a Collection of Casts,' privately printed by the Committee of the Metropolitan Museum in New York. These "tentative lists" enumerate a mass of reproductions which, when brought together, would compose the richest museum of casts in the whole world. The announcement of such a noble enterprise can only be greeted with warm recognition. It is now too late for the United States to institute galleries rivalling the British Museum, the Uffizi, or the Louvre; and the money which could be spent on the purchase of second-rate originals cannot be better employed than in forming large collections of casts. The New York collection, if completed, would stand unrivalled, and it is not very difficult to make it so. The museums of Europe will certainly give every assistance in their power towards the fulfilment of that scheme. I am certain that it will benefit archæologists of all countries by the facility it will give them of obtaining in their turn casts and photographs. Allow me to express the wish that, at the same time, a very detailed catalogue be put in type, stating once for all the whole literature of every monument, and accompanying each of them with a pen-and-ink drawing taken from photographs, in the style of the excellent illustrations now appearing in the *Archæologischer Anzeiger*. A catalogue of that sort

would be simply invaluable, and would open a new era in the study of plastic art.

Truly yours, SALOMON REINACH,
Keeper of the Museum at St. Germain.

PARIS, September 22, 1891.

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & Co. extend their "Makers of America Series" this fall with biographies of Robert Fulton, by Prof. R. H. Thurston of Cornell; Sam Houston, by Henry Bruce; Sir William Johnson, by the Rev. W. E. Griffis; De Bienville, by Grace King; Cotton Mather, by Prof. Barrett Wendell; Thomas Hooker, by the Rev. Geo. L. Walker; and John Winthrop, by the Rev. Joseph H. Twichell. The same firm initiate a "Portia Series," for girls and women, and announce the following titles: 'Chats with Girls on Self-Culture,' by Eliza Chester; 'The Art of Entertaining,' by Mrs. M. E. W. Sherwood; and 'Physical Development and Exercise for Women,' by Dr. Mary Taylor Bissell. They have nearly ready the fifth and concluding volume of Mr. James Schouler's 'History of the United States,' ending with the civil war, and will publish a revised edition of Fergusson's 'History of the Modern Styles of Architecture,' and the same author's 'Indian and Eastern Architecture'; 'Prison Life during the Revolution,' by the Duchesse de Duras; and 'Short Studies in Literature,' by Hamilton W. Mabie. In preparation are a new edition of the 'School for Scandal,' illustrated by Mr. Frank M. Gregory, and also a selection of 'Charles Lamb's Dramatic Essays' in the Giunta Series.

Longmans, Green & Co. are just about to issue 'Epoch Maps Illustrating American History,' by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard; and 'Seas and Lands,' Sir Edwin Arnold's account of his recent travels.

'Laboratory Practice,' by Prof. J. P. Cooke of Harvard, is in the press of D. Appleton & Co.

James Pott & Co. announce 'Beautiful Thoughts from Henry Drummond,' selected and arranged by Elizabeth Cureton; and 'Moral Theology,' based on the 'Summa Theologiæ' of St. Thomas Aquinas, by the Rev. J. J. Elmendorf of Racine College.

Macmillan & Co. have been appointed special agents in this country of the London firm of George Bell & Sons, whose publications include the well-known "Bohn's Libraries."

From Houghton, Mifflin & Co. we are to have 'Three Episodes in Massachusetts History,' by Charles Francis Adams; 'Betty Alden,' a new tale of Plymouth Colony, by Mrs. Jane G. Austin; 'Colonial Furniture of New England,' by Dr. Irving Whitall Lyon; and 'The Land of the Lingering Snow,' an outdoor book by Frank Bolles, Secretary of Harvard University. They have just issued at a reduced price the annotated edition of 'Sheridan's Comedies: The Rivals and The School for Scandal,' published eight years ago by J. R. Osgood & Co.

Roberts Bros. will publish 'The Lovers' Year-Book of Poetry,' compiled by Horace P. Chandler.

D. Lothrop Co. have in hand 'Birddom,' by Leander S. Keyser.

Ginn & Co. will issue during the present month 'Straight Road to Cæsar: A Latin Lesson-Book for Beginners,' by George W. Waite and George H. White; and a 'Reference History of the United States,' by Hannah A. Davidson.

In December, W. B. Clarke & Co., Boston, expect to bring out a 'Memoir of Rufus Ellis,' including selections from his journals and letters.

We understand that Mr. Goldwin Smith has enlarged, and recast in the form of a biographical essay, his two reviews of the Life of William Lloyd Garrison in *Macmillan's Magazine* on the successive appearance of the two halves of the work in question. The book, which will still be of moderate compass, will appear shortly.

A Life of Benjamin Harris Brewster, by Eugene Coleman Savidge, may soon be expected from J. B. Lippincott Co.

Chapman & Hall, London, announce a new work on Dickens, 'A Week's Tramp in Dickens-Land, together with Personal Reminiscences of the "Inimitable Boz" therein collected,' by William R. Hughes. More than 100 illustrations are to lend attraction to the volume, from the designs of Maclise, H. K. Browne, Langton, and others.

A new firm of publishers in London, Lawrence & Bullen, announce a new series of the poets, to be called "The Muses' Library," and to begin with a two-volume edition of Herrick, prepared by Mr. A. W. Pollard, with a preface by Mr. Swinburne.

The same firm also announce two books likely to interest all dramatic collectors. The first is the famous theatrical poem, 'The Rosciad' of Charles Churchill, edited and annotated by Mr. Robert W. Lowe, to whom we already owe admirable editions of Cibber's 'Apology' and Doran's 'Annals of the English Stage.' It will be adorned by eight full-page portraits. The second book is a volume of collected criticisms of the contemporary theatre in London by Mr. Joseph Knight, the dramatic critic of the *Athenæum*. It is called 'Theatrical Notes: A Contribution towards a History of the Modern English Stage.' Mr. Knight has also under way the biography of Garrick for Mr. Archer's series of "English Actors."

The Dunlap Society has in press and nearly ready to issue to its members an account of 'The Private Life of William E. Burton,' by Mr. William L. Keese, author of the authorized biography of the comedian-manager. This will be followed towards the end of the year by a reprint from the pages of the *Gentleman's Magazine* (the American *Gentleman's*, which Burton edited in Philadelphia) of Burton's memoirs of the elder Wallack. The secretary of the Dunlap Society is now Mr. William Carey, No. 33 East Seventeenth Street, New York; and, for an annual subscription of $5, members receive three publications every year.

Among the other books about the stage likely to be published this fall is Mr. Davenport Adams's 'Dictionary of the Drama,' announced nearly ten years ago.

With the return of the holiday season, the Messrs. Putnam put forth a fresh issue of their pocket "Literary Gems"—Irving's 'Legend of Sleepy Hollow,' the 'Ancient Mariner,' some of Browning's Lyrics, Ruskin on Pre-Raphaelitism, Montaigne on the Education of Children, and three speeches on America delivered by John Bright during our civil war. This is undeniably a good assortment, and we only wish that the compass of these little books would have allowed admission of a fourth American speech of Bright's, in 1867, the most elevated of all in tone and the most finished in diction. His portrait, Montaigne's, and Ruskin's embellish their respective volumes. The rest have fancy frontispieces.

Mrs. Oliphant's 'The Makers of Florence' (Macmillan) has encountered a rare degree of popularity, having now attained its third edition in fifteen years, with five reissues, or reprints, as the memorandum on the reverse of the title-page calls them. The last shape is a medium octavo, and the volume is dubbed "extra-illustrated" in view of twenty full-page engraved reproductions of pictures by Florentine artists to be found in the churches or galleries of their city. These furnish a rather cold and pallid decoration, but are not out of keeping with the wood engravings in the text, which are not of a high order. The next stage of reproduction might fitly witness the abandonment of all the present illustrations, in favor either of pure photography or of such wood engraving as Mr. Cole could furnish. The present volume is elaborately bound, with a back of white canvas stamped with gilt and lettered in red.

By the side of the new edition of Dr. Holmes's works, his publishers (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) have brought out, in one dainty volume, 'The One-Hoss Shay, with its Companion Poems, How the Old Horse Won the Bet, and the Broomstick Train,' Mr. Howard Pyle furnishing the pen-and-ink illustrations. An interval of more than thirty years separates the first and the last of these pieces—the one a purely intellectual, the other a purely poetic conceit: logic versus metaphor. Mr. Pyle's drawings possess his usual cleverness, but occasionally seem to have less than justice done them in the "process" or the printing. The vignette on p. 29 is in the spirit of Bewick, for all that the execution is in black line and not in white.

The Historical Printing Club of Brooklyn, N. Y., has just reprinted its second Revolutionary orderly book, viz., that of the Maryland Loyalist Regiment. This was kept by Capt. Caleb Jones from June 18, 1778, to October 12, 1778, and comprehends the evacuation of Philadelphia, the march across the Jerseys, and the cantonment on Long Island, where the book was ultimately found. Its value lies in its supposed uniqueness so far as Loyalist regiments are concerned, and in its preserving Gen. Howe's orders after July 5. Mr. Paul Leicester Ford has edited and annotated this record. The most eminent name in the list of officers is that of Philip Barton Key, uncle of the author of "The Star-Spangled Banner."

Another and more important memorial of the Loyalists is the Rev. Arthur Wentworth Eaton's 'The Church of England in Nova Scotia and the Tory Clergy of the Revolution' (Thomas Whittaker). The Diocese of Nova Scotia, Mr. Eaton points out, "owes its existence to the Tories of the Revolution" who migrated thither, and is now the oldest colonial diocese of the Church of England. The author is noticeably liberal, fair-minded, and candid, as witness his admission regarding the anti-Revolutionary attitude of the Episcopal clergy, his comments on the sectarianism of King's College, and his chapter on "Other Religious Bodies," in which he says: "It is probably true that in late years the leading Dissenting bodies in Nova Scotia have often had ministers of greater ability, and sometimes of more thorough education, than the Church of England." Mr. Eaton writes in an interesting way, condensing the fruit of much research, and his work is in every respect meritorious. It is rich in biographical sketches of the exiled clergy, the later bishops, distinguished laymen, and royal governors. We need hardly say that New Englanders in particular, along with New Yorkers and Pennsylvanians, will find here a part of their own history, enacted beyond their territory and under altered conditions.

A good deal of conscientious research has gone into the making of 'The Sabbath in Puritan New England,' by Alice Morse Earle

(Scribners). Most unusual is the author's delving in the records of scattered local churches, and more than one pearl does she find in those dust-heaps. Puritan Psalmody gets special attention, but the whole range of Sabbath observance, at home and "in the great congregation," is covered, and the grim, the curious, the cruel, and the saintly stud the pages. Mrs. Earle once more shows that Peters's "Blue Laws" were, after all, only a sort of malicious codification of actual law and practice.

The second edition of Prof. Joseph Le Conte's 'Evolution: Its Nature, its Evidences, and its Relation to Religious Thought' (D. Appleton & Co.) serves to mark, in its added chapter on the factors of evolution, the point most in debate since the first appearance of his work. Further new matter is found in the chapters on the Divine Immanency and on the Relation of Evolution to the Doctrine of the Christ.

The will of John Washington, the emigrant, lately edited by Dr. J. M. Toner, has been acquired by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania for their collection.

The current Bulletin of the Boston Public Library (No. 86) devotes a section to Genealogy, beginning with a list of bibliographies, dictionaries, etc., and adding a list of serials, and lists of local and of family histories. These will be found valuable to any searcher.

In *Lincolnshire Notes and Queries* for October (Horncastle, Eng.), mention is made of an important work privately printed this year by Dr. George W. Marshall of the Heralds' College, called 'Parish Registers: A List of those printed, or of which MS. copies exist in Public Collections, together with references to extracts therefrom, printed and in manuscript.' The *Notes and Queries* prints the list of all entries relating to Lincolnshire, with references to volume and page of the late Col. Chester's transcript from the note-books of the late Lord Monson and Arthur Staunton Larken.

Mr. Stewart Culin, who has a genius for the investigation of what lies hidden under our noses, contributes to the July-September number of *American Folk-Lore* a striking enumeration and description of "Street Games of Boys in Brooklyn," whom we cannot suppose to be exceptionally favored in this particular.

"Tariffs and International Commerce" is the subject of a paper contributed by Prof. Shield Nicholson to the series on Britannic Confederation now being published in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. It is distinctly favorable to the idea that a commercial union between Great Britain and her colonies is practicable. The only reason which he gives for this conclusion is the fact that fifty years ago the tariffs of the United Kingdom were in a worse confusion than those of the colonies at the present day, and that now they are reduced to the simplest form. Then there were a thousand articles on which duties were collected; now there are practically only four or five. The colonial tariffs number forty-two, and their variety can be illustrated by the following instances: "Coals are free in 23 tariffs; in 11 they are charged specific duties, and in 8 *ad-valorem*. Salt is free in 13, it is charged specific duties in 21, and *ad-valorem* duties in 8." The only article which is almost universally free is manures. The principal reform which Prof. Nicholson presses upon the colonial statesmen is to abolish "their general taxes on unenumerated articles, and—where enumeration means taxation—in the curtailment of the list." By this means they would approximate the simplicity of the British tariff. He is careful to add that his idea of a commercial union does not mean protection against the rest of the world. The paper is somewhat rambling, but it is suggestive and not without weight. There are several striking quotations from Adam Smith, in one of which he propounds, according to Prof. Nicholson, "the most definite and most practicable scheme ever yet published of Imperial Federation."

Bulletin No. 7 of the Bureau of American Republics (Washington) is devoted entirely to Brazil, and comprises, with the reprint of much familiar matter, an historical sketch of the country, an account of the emancipation movement, various statistical chapters, and a translation of the Brazilian tariff now in force.

Hodder & Stoughton, London, send us the first number of *The Bookman*, "a monthly journal for bookreaders, bookbuyers, and booksellers." Its motto, "I am a Bookman," is taken from James Russell Lowell. Peculiar features of this periodical are (in addition to news notes and reviews) literary articles of a fresh kind, such as "The Carlyles and a Segment of their Circle," "Burton at Damascus," "Thomas Hardy's Wessex," "The Work of Rudyard Kipling," "Paternoster Row Forty Years Ago," "The Provincial Dailies—their Present Position," etc., and a "Young Authors' Page." In this page, MSS. submitted for judgment will be classified under headings with an occasional note. Finally, it seems as if it were the publishers' intention to throw in regularly a steel portrait for the sixpence. Lawrence's Tennyson adorns No. 1, which is typographically very attractive.

—The *Argosy* newspaper of British Guiana has recently published two documents relating to the fight, on the 24th of February, 1813, off the coast of Demerara, between the United States ship-of-war *Hornet*, commanded by Capt. James Lawrence, and the British brig *Peacock*. One of the documents is a report by Senior Lieutenant Frederick A. Wright, who took command of the *Peacock* when the commander of that vessel, Capt. Peake, was killed; the other is a statement, taken down at Barbados for the information of the British Admiral, and made by four of the sailors of the *Peacock*, who, when that vessel was sinking, got into a shattered boat and made their escape. Lieut. Wright's report is to be found among "Admiral's Despatches, North America," 1813, No. 24, and the sailors' narrative with "Admiral's Despatches, Leeward Islands," 1813, No. 30, in the Public Record Office, London. The Lieutenant's report was probably published at the time, but the sailors' narrative is now published for the first time. The two statements give fuller details than are to be found in either Cooper's or James's naval histories. It was in reference to this short and sharp engagement (an affair of between ten and fifteen minutes only) that Lawrence, afterwards, in addressing the men of the *Chesapeake*, when about to fight the *Shannon*, said: "Peacock her, my lads, Peacock her!" In connection with the foregoing we may mention that Mr. C. Montague Jones of Georgetown, British Guiana, proposes to exhibit in the British Guiana Court of the coming World's Fair one of his pictures of the fight between the *Hornet* and the *Peacock*.

—The identity of the pygmies of the ancients with the dwarfs of Equatorial Africa is the subject of an elaborate paper by M. Paul Monceau in the last number of the *Revue Historique*. The earliest-known representation of the latter is to be found in the monuments describing the conquests of the Egyptian kings of the eleventh and twelfth dynasties in the countries to the south of Egypt. To a later sculpture of the same people the word Akka is added—the same name by which one of the dwarf tribes of the Congo Basin, discovered by Schweinfurth and since seen by Stanley, is known at the present day. A few centuries after, the negro dwarf was received into the Egyptian mythology, and represented their Vulcan, though more as a searcher for the precious metals in the earth than as the artisan. This is possibly the origin of the universal tradition, especially in the Middle Ages, connecting dwarfs with underground habitations full of treasures of gold and silver. The Phœnicians borrowed him from the Egyptians and gave him the name Poumai—meaning a foot high or tall. They carried him to Cyprus, where he was worshipped as Poumaion, and from thence he passed into Greek mythology as the pygmy. The Greeks, according to our author, naturally, though mistakenly, connected the word Poumaion with their word πυγμή, a measure of length almost the same as that designated by the Phœnician word. At the recent Congress of Orientalists, Mr. R. G. Haliburton read a paper affirming the existence of a race of dwarfs in the Atlas Mountains of Morocco. He believes that their existence has hitherto been kept secret because of their sacred character, they being addressed as "Blessed Lord" by the people, and having the deepest veneration shown them when they leave their mountain haunts. Their special occupation seems to be, in accordance with the universal superstition, digging mines. While it is impossible to say whether Mr. Haliburton's evidence is sufficient to prove his statement, it is well to note that there is no passage in any ancient poet, geographer, or historian mentioned by M. Monceau, placing any dwarfs among the Atlas Mountains. All ancient tradition and testimony, with some unimportant exceptions, point to but two places as the home of the dwarf, India and Equatorial Africa.

—An enthusiastic linguist and collector writes to us as follows from Switzerland respecting his pursuit of the literature of the Romansch or Retoromanic language: "We visited the hamlets through the whole length of the Lower Engadine from Martinsbrück to the Austrian border upwards, and got together a large number of the works printed in the dialect there spoken. We did the same thing for the Upper Engadine on our way to St. Moritz, and afterwards, while sojourning at that pleasant resort. While descending the mountains to Chur, we stopped in the Oberhalbsteinerthal, where a distinct dialect is spoken, the literature of which is limited to a few religious manuals and elementary school-books. At Chur, the book-shops furnished a few additions to our treasures, and some excursions to the Rhenish Oberland—the Romanic speech of which possesses an extensive literature, both Protestant and Catholic—brought in many more. Meanwhile, through the antiquarian booksellers of the Tyrol and Northern Italy, we were able to acquire some of the publications in the Grōden, Enneberg, and other Romanic dialects of Austria, and in the allied Friulan (*lingua furlana*) and Istrian. The Retoromanic language survives in isolated dialects spoken between the headwaters of the Rhine and the mountains of Istria. The present centres of publication for the literature are Chur, the capital of the Grisons; Disentis (Catholic) in the Oberland, Samaden (Protestant) in the Engadine, Innsbruck and Trient (for the Tyrolese Romanic), and Udine and Gorizza (for the Friulan). In Switzerland there are just now only three regularly appearing Romanic weekly journals, the *Foegl d'Engiadina* (founded 1857) of Samaden, the

Gasetta Romonscha (also dating from 1857) of Disentis, and *Il Sursilvan* (now in its eighth year), published at Chur, while at Udine the *Florean dal Palazz* has been issued in Friulan weekly since 1883."

—"In the Grisons," continues our correspondent, "the number of Romanic writers is still considerable. In the Engadine dialect the two best-known poets are Simon Caratsch (who, until lately, has passed his winters in Turin, where his works have mostly been published, and his summers in his native village of Schanfs), and G. F. Caderas of Samaden. In the Oberland dialect the best-known poetical writer is Prof. J. A. Bühler of Chur, the translator of Schiller's 'Wilhelm Tell' and the author of a great number of short tales. Among critics and philologists may be mentioned Caspar Decurtins, a Deputy in the Swiss Parliament, who has edited many early Romanic texts in Ascoli's *Archivio Glottologico*, Gröber's *Zeitschrift*, and the Montpellier *Revue des Langues Romanes;* E. Pallioppi, Protestant pastor at Pontresina, who is occupied with the continuation of a Romanic lexicon begun by his father; Prof. J. C. Muoth of Chur; Prof. J. Candreja, librarian of the cantonal library at the same place. For some years there has existed at Chur a well-managed Societad Rhæto-Romanscha, with upwards of 500 members, which issues a handsomely printed yearly 'Annalas.'" Our correspondent also mentions a useful list published by Dr. Eduard Böhmer of the University of Strassburg (1883), and the complete, classified short-title catalogue of the cantonal library at Chur (1885). His own very considerable collection, we are glad to add, is destined for a well-known American college library.

—It is rather amusing to see how the Swiss press, intoxicated with the success of the recent anniversary festivals, indulges in magnifying the artistic importance of the literary efforts called forth by this occasion; a very respectable Bernese paper, for instance, going so far as to declare in all earnestness that the only parallel to the patriotic play performed at Berne during the late memorial days was the Attic drama. But, if we leave such naïve comparisons aside, it cannot be denied that there must have been something truly refreshing and genuinely poetical in these popular performances, which have sprung forth like wild flowers all over Switzerland during this autumn. Everywhere it was the people themselves who acted in them, everywhere they took place under the open sky, everywhere there was a most intimate sympathy and coöperation between actors and spectators, the whole audience in most places taking part in singing patriotic songs interwoven into the action of the plays. The most impressive of all these plays seems to have been the Bernese "Festspiel," performed on Saturday and Sunday, August 15 and 16, by some 900 persons, and before audiences of some 20,000 people. The text of this dramatic piece, the author of which is Dr. H. Weber, pastor in Höngg, is by no means without native poetical power. Its chief defect is a necessary lack of unity, the different scenes being so many different episodes in the seven centuries of Bernese history. But one is almost made to forget this defect by the impassioned sense of freedom which animates the whole, and the sturdy, artless language which carries away even the over-critical. There are six principal scenes: the foundation of the town by Duke Berchtold of Zähringen; the defeat of the landed aristocracy in the battle of Laupen; the struggle with Charles the Bold; the religious reformation; the overthrow of Berne by the armies of the French republic; the present reign of peaceful liberty. In the last scene "Berna" herself is seen surrounded by her loyal and contented people, when the chief figures of the former scenes, the heroes of the past, appear in solemn procession to do homage to the beloved mother. They are reverently greeted by the chorus of citizens:

> "Die Männer nahen vergangner Zeit,
> Der Heimat unsterbliche Helden,
> Sie, deren Ruhm Jahrhunderte weit
> Viel edle Zungen melden.
> Sie sind gestorben und leben noch,
> Sie haben gerungen und glänzen hoch,
> Des Landes reiner Ehrenschild,
> Hohen Muth's unsterblich Bild."

Each of them says some fitting word, each of them lays some tribute at the feet of "Berna," who on her part embraces them and blesses them as her children.

—We have received the first part of the fifth revised edition of Friedrich Kluge's 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprach.' (Strassburg: Trübner.) It reaches from *A* to *Bursche*, and has been enlarged from forty-seven pages in the fourth edition to sixty pages. New articles have been added, treating mostly of foreign words, such as *abonnieren*, *absolvieren*, *Accent*, *Appetit*, *Aprikose*, *Atlas*, even *apropos* and *boycotten*. But many native compounds and dialect words have also been taken up, such as *abschätzig*, *Abstecher*, *Abstimmung*, *Adamsapfel*, *Altweibersommer*, *aufhören; beiern*, *Best* (with a long *e*), *Bitze*. These additions are very welcome. The foreign words are generally relegated to a dictionary of foreign words, and such a dictionary is generally compiled by dilettanti who attend chiefly to pronunciation It is easy to criticise the including of some words and the excluding of others. We agree with Dr. Muss-Arnolt that *bethätigen* and *Branntwein* will be missed. *Amulet*, which had been dropped, has been justly restored to its place. *Bibel* deserved a separate article even if its congener *Fibel* be treated more fully in the fifth edition than in the fourth. Each article has evidently been carefully revised. We find little additions, as *Aach* under *A*, and great additions, as where the article *Aar* is lengthened from nine lines to almost a whole column. *Auerhahn* and *Auerochs* have been separated as they should be, since *Auer* is not the same in both words. *Aufwiegeln* has now a separate article. We had been referred under it to *wiegeln*, and this was omitted. *Behörde* is treated too briefly. Heyne has a good article upon it. *Belt* is much improved: it does not mean *any* strait, but only the Danish straits of the Baltic, with which the word is etymologically connected. *Der Balz* is a technical hunting term, and very rare. Its cognate *die Balze* is more common. Weigand is interested in this word because it is "Wetterauisch." Heyne has only *die Balz*. Under *Baas* the English "boss" might have been mentioned. Under *besser*, the attempt to connect it with an Aryan stem has been given up. Only the noun *Bagger* is mentioned. This is a new High German formation after the verb *baggern* had been taken from Low German.

—Kluge has been working of late years upon late Middle High and early New High German, as is seen in his separate book 'Von Luther bis Lessing.' His dictionary has greatly profited by these investigations. More exact dates have been given after careful study of sixteenth and seventeenth-century word-lists, dictionaries, and grammars. Take, for instance, such articles as *Arzt*, *Artischoke*, *Assel*, *Auster*, *Bernstein*, *bieder*. For *Bücking* Kluge very wisely does not accept Paul de Lagarde's statement to which Dr. Muss-Arnolt curtly refers him, viz., "It was so called because Bücking was the name of the man who first smoked herring." Is it possible that the great theologian and Semitic scholar, De Lagarde, was taken in by Heinrich Heine? The poet says in his 'Harzreise,' that he had for dinner in Klansthal "a kind of smoked herrings, called *Bückinge* after the name of their inventor, Wilhelm Bücking, who died in 1447, and was so honored by Charles V. on account of this invention that the latter journeyed from Middelburg to Biervliet, in Zeeland, in the year 1556, merely to see there the grave of this great man." Kluge and Franck, in his Dutch etymological dictionary, think that *Bücking* comes from Dutch *bokking*, and this from *bok*, Engl. *buck*, G. *Bock*. We cannot agree with Kluge that the German secondary form, *Bückling*, sprang up through association with *Bückling*, "bow," from *biegen*. Can Kluge have thought of the German conundrum, Which is the most polite fish? When we look at the various forms of this word, such as *Böckling*, *Pückling*, *Pökling*, *Pickling*, we cannot help associating Bückling with the verb *pökeln*, to "pickle," because this herring is pickled first and then smoked. A typographical improvement has been made in the new edition. Homonyms have been printed thus: *Asche*[1], *Asche*[2], instead of 1. *Asche*, 2. *Asche*. This arrangement is that of the great Murray and 'Century' dictionaries. The dialect and slang words are marked with a dagger. Clearly author and publisher vie with each other to keep this invaluable work up with the times. It is different with the English Dictionary of Skeat, which has been followed by a supplement but has no revised edition. Skeat put in some antiquated matter at the start, and much has become antiquated since it was published. It seems a pity that the fourth edition of Kluge was translated into English, and that Janssen's valuable indices were made to the same. This fifth edition is the one to index and to translate.

—'Defensio Populi ad Populos; or, the modern missionaries considered in relation to the recent riots,' is the title of a remarkable pamphlet in English, recen ly issued in Shanghai. Its author is believed to be an educated Chinaman, formerly connected with the diplomatic service, and well acquainted with foreign countries. From the abstract given in the London *Times*, it seems to be a bold demand for the withdrawal of Christian missionaries from China, or at least some radical change in the missionary system. This demand is justified by the fact that what the author calls the avowed objects of missionary labor have not been reached—the moral elevation, the intellectual enlightenment of the people, and works of charity; and that to have aroused the intense hatred of the whole people against them is a danger and injury to the Empire. It is unnecessary to follow him in the familiar arguments against Christianity and the thoroughly unjust depreciation of what the missionaries have accomplished, especially in bringing through their publications to the educated Chinese the thought and progress of the West. Though his general argument is weak and his conclusions false, yet in one important point he seems to us to have taken an impregnable position. He asserts that the common people believe that Christianity is being forced upon them in the same way and by the same means that they are compelled to open their ports and rivers to foreign ships and traders. The all-sufficient justification for their belief is the

fact that the missionary is backed by the gunboat as the trader is. Is it strange, then, that they hate the teachers of a religion in aid of which there are possible arguments of shot and shell? Is it not a thoroughly inconsistent position for the messengers of the Gospel of Peace to be placed in? In the interests of the missionary himself, and the end he is striving to obtain, we are strongly inclined to support the author's suggestion that all foreigners who engage in missionary work should give up their nationality and become amenable only to the laws of the country. This has been the practice for many years with the priests of a French Roman Catholic Missionary Society who have labored in the southwestern provinces of China with far greater success, though with far more privation, suffering, and persecution, than their gunboat-protected brethren, whether Catholic or Protestant.

RECENT POETRY.

THE extract from a letter of the late Mrs. Helen Jackson ("H. H."), prefixed to the second series of Emily Dickinson's poems (Boston: Roberts Bros.), suggests the curious difference in the careers of these two gifted women, both natives of the same small inland town of Massachusetts. They were playmates and schoolmates; both began to write after early girlhood had passed, and for the utterance of deep personal feeling. But the one easily obtained fame, friends, recognition, influence; she had varied social experience; with many sorrows, she obtained much of what was best and most enjoyable in life, and died in the maturity of a conspicuous literary career. The other died absolutely unknown, even by name, beyond her own domestic circle, and yet this nameless woman was at once uplifted into an extraordinary prominence by the simple publication of her poems, after death. Some added light is thrown on this curious transition by the preface contributed to the present volume by Mrs. Todd, but it leaves many questions to be asked. It, however, brings out clearly a point overlooked by many who have discussed Emily Dickinson's poems. Mrs. Todd has recalled attention to the fact that they should be viewed rather as sketches than as finished works. We can never know what changes the author might have made in them had she seriously addressed herself to putting them in print. Up to the point where she left them, her chief solicitude had clearly been with the phrase, not with the verse or the line. She would make many alterations to secure precisely the adjective or substantive she needed; but the minor changes required to perfect a rhyme or to avoid a repetition were sometimes postponed for some moment of leisure, it may be, or in other cases spurned as unimportant. Even her peculiarities of grammar seem like mere short cuts or abbreviations, as when one takes notes in shorthand. We all know that a really fine poem is rarely struck off at a single sitting; there are usually several stages of completion, at any one of which, up to the very last, the work would seem still imperfect if published. The peculiarity is that almost all of Emily Dickinson's compositions are taken at that intermediate stage; and they are, in short, to be viewed as sketches, not works of conscious completeness. With this interpretation, it may fairly be said that those contained in this second series are quite as remarkable as those in the first. Perhaps they are even more remarkable; at any rate, there are more of them.

They are divided into the same four departments, viz., Life, Love, Nature, Time and Eternity. It is to be noticed, however, that the department of love-poems is, in this volume, more scanty than in its predecessor, as if the author's little tale of experience, in that direction, were soon told. There is no loss of quality, however, even in that department, and in the other directions both quantity and quality are sustained. There is, in the first volume, for instance, no nobler strain of ethics than this (p. 199), which is also full of verbal felicities:

TRIUMPH.

Triumph may be of several kinds.
There's triumph in the room
When that old Imperator, Death,
By faith is overcome.

There's triumph of the finer mind
When truth, affronted long,
Advances calm to her supreme,
Her God her only throng.

A triumph when temptation's bribe
Is slowly handed back,
One eye upon the heaven renounced
And one upon the rack.

Severer triumph, by himself
Experienced, who can pass
Acquitted from that naked bar,
Jehovah's countenance!

Note, for instance, the fineness of touch in the word "slowly," in the third verse, indicating the greatness of the struggle by the fact that even the utmost heroism cannot instantly decide it. A characteristic effect is also produced by employing the strong Roman "Imperator" instead of the cheapened word "Emperor," and thus placing death as a sovereign of sovereigns. In the following verses we have a haunting picture, not easily to be dropped from the mind:

THE FORGOTTEN GRAVE.

After a hundred years
Nobody knows the place,—
Agony, that enacted there,
Motionless as peace.

Weeds triumphant ranged,
Strangers strolled and spelled
At the lone orthography
Of the elder dead.

Winds of summer fields
Recollect the way,—
Instinct picking up the key
Dropped by memory.

The poems on Nature in this volume indicate the same peculiar intimacy always shown by Emily Dickinson; it seems as if she had been in at the very birth of her birds and flowers, as in the following verses (p. 72):

FRINGED GENTIAN

God made a little gentian;
It tried to be a rose
And failed, and all the summer laughed.
But just before the snows
There came a purple creature
That ravished all the hill;
And summer hid her forehead,
And mockery was still.
The frosts were her condition;
The Tyrian would not come
Until the North evoked it.
"Creator! shall I bloom?"

The editors have put at the beginning of the volume two verses which seem—unlike all the rest—to show some objective aim in the poems; and they close with these four terse lines, which might well suffice for Emily Dickinson's own epitaph:

"Lay this laurel on the one
Too intrinsic for renown.
Laurel! veil your deathless tree,—
Him you chasten, that is he!"

The fact that Mr. Douglas Sladen, in his 'Younger American Poets' (Cassell Publishing Co.), makes no allusion to Emily Dickinson, shows how important it is that the editor of such a compilation should be on the spot and should have the latest information. The earliest information, if that is desirable, may certainly be said to be possessed by a compiler who heads his list of juvenile rhymers with the name of Paul Hamilton Hayne, who would, were he living, be over sixty. The mere selection thus seems so liberal that it is almost a disappointment to find that Whittier and Holmes are omitted. In the distribution of space, too, there is a waywardness which can only partly be explained by the whims of publishers; thus, Stedman has sixteen pages, Ella Wheeler Wilcox nine, and Aldrich one and a half. But, with all its faults and its wilderness of misprints—including, for instance, "Borjeson" for "Boyesen" (p. 665), and "Lamer" for "Lanier" (p. 666), the book affords a fairly good collection of the works of American poets less than sixty-one years old; and the appendix containing Canadian poets, and edited by Goodridge Bliss Roberts of St. John, N. B., is distinctly valuable and useful. We should not neglect to add that there is prefixed to the volume a dedication to the citizens of Boston, and a sonnet to "The American Fall at Niagara," both by Mr. Sladen and in a Tupper-like vein.

A far more modest and far better executed collection of miscellaneous poems, from English and American sources, is that called 'Sunshine in Life: Poems for the King's Daughters' (Putnam), selected by Florence Pohlman Lee. The selection is good, the typography beautiful, the dates of birth and (if need be) of death are mentioned in connection with each author, and several good indexes are supplied. For the benefit of that part of the public to which the order of the "King's Daughters" is but a name, it might have been well to intimate their aims and functions. Another book of poetry, no less valuable for not being new, is a new edition of Sidney Lanier's Poems (Scribners), with the well-known memoir by Wm. Hayes Ward. Good books, like good runners, possess what may be called their first and second wind; most sink down breathless when their first wind is exhausted, usually at or before the death of their author. If, however, an author's fame really survives him, it is likely to hold out for a long time, and such seems destined to be the fame of Sidney Lanier.

Of volumes wholly new, we find that of Helen Gray Cone incontestably the best: 'The Ride to the Lady, and Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The title-poem is the strongest poem of action and movement ever written by an American woman; and, as Emerson said of "H. H.'s" poems, perhaps we might as well omit the "woman." Since Scott there has been no terser handling of the ballad measure, mingled with fine spiritual touches that Scott could not have given. Read now the story of the *Orient* at Nelson's sea fight of Aboukir (p. 37):

THE STORY OF THE "ORIENT."

'T was a pleasant Sunday morning while the spring was in its glory,
English spring of gentle glory; smoking by his cottage door,
Florid-faced, the man-o'-war's-man told his white-head boy the story,
Noble story of Aboukir, told a hundred times before.

"Here, the Theseus—here, the Vanguard"; as he spoke each name sonorous—
Minotaur, Defence, Majestic, staunch old comrades of the brine,
That against the ships of Brueys made their broadsides roar in chorus—
Ranging daisies on his doorstone, deft he mapped the battle-line.

Mapped the curve of tall three-deckers, deft as might a man left-handed,
Who had given an arm to England later on at Trafalgar.
While he poured the praise of Nelson to the child with eyes expanded,
Bright athwart his honest forehead blushed the scarlet cutlass-scar.

For he served aboard the Vanguard, saw the Admiral, blind and bleeding
Borne below by silent sailors, borne to die as then they deemed.
Every stout heart sick but stubborn, fought the sea-dogs on unheeding,
Guns were cleared and manned and cleared, the battle thundered, flashed, and screamed.

Till a cry swelled loud and louder—towered on fire
the Orient stately,
Brueys' flag ship, she that carried guns a hundred
and a score;
Then came groping up the hatchway he they counted
dead but lately,
Came the little one-armed Admiral to guide the fight
once more.

"Lower the boats!" was Nelson's order. But the
listening boy beside him,
Who had followed all his motions with an eager
wide blue eye,
Nursed upon the name of Nelson till he half had det-
ified him,
Here, with childhood's crude consistence, broke the
tale to question "Why?"

For by children facts go streaming in a throng that
never pauses,
Noted not, till of a sudden, thought, a sunbeam,
gilds the motes.
All at once the known words quicken, and the child
would deal with causes:
Since to kill the French was righteous, why bade Nel-
son lower the boats?

Quick the man put by the question. "But the Orient,
none could save her;
We could see the ships, the ensigns, clear as day-
light by the flare;
And a many leaped and left her; but, God rest 'em,
some were braver;
Some held by her, firing steady till she blew to God
knows where."

At the shock, he said, the Vanguard shook through all
her timbers oaken;
It was like the shock of Doomsday—not a tar but
shuddered hard
All was hushed for one strange moment; then that
awful calm was broken
By the heavy plash that answered the descent of
mast and yard.

So, her cannon still defying, and her colors flaming,
flying,
In her pit her wounded helpless, on her deck her
admiral dead,
Soared the Orient into darkness with her living and
her dying.
"Yet our lads made shift to rescue threescore souls,"
the seaman said.

Long the boy with knit brows wondered o'er that
friending of the foeman;
Long the man with shut lips pondered; powerless he
to tell the cause
Why the brother in his bosom that desired the death of
no man,
In the crash of battle wakened, snapped the bonds
of hate like straws.

While he mused, his toddling maiden drew the daisies
to a posy;
Mild the bells of Sunday morning rang across the
churchyard sod;
And, helped on by tender hands, with sturdy feet all
bare and rosy,
Climbed his babe to mother's breast, as climbs the
slow world up to God.

Had that been written by a man—Rudyard Kipling, for instance—all the critics would have said, "How virile!" But the woman in the writer has given us that last verse, in which the "virile" is merged in the human, which is better. Another volume of good verse is 'A Handful of Lavender,' by Lizette Woodworth Reese (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), showing her well-known quality of fine sympathy with nature, penetrated by a charm of execution which may easily become mannerism unless she has a care. James Whitcomb Riley has also a very close intimacy with nature, as seen in his 'Old-Fashioned Roses' (Longmans), but he will always suffer in the eyes of serious critics from having first appeared on the comic stage, thus forfeiting the associations of seriousness; so that the reader still turns first to "Griggsby's Station" and "Little Orphant Annie." Miles I'Anson, in 'The Vision of Misery Hill' (Putnams), has some of the coarser California flavors; while Harry Fenn's illustrations of the same book are coarser and cruder still.

There is good local coloring in 'Wildwood Chimes' (Cincinnati: Clarke), by Emma Withers, who has for material the beautiful mountain woods of West Virginia. On the other hand, there is in 'An Idyl of the Sun, and Other Poems,' by Orin Cedesman Stevens (Holyoke, Mass.: Griffith), no local coloring at all—not even that of the sun—and while there are good touches, there is nothing which might not have been written anywhere. 'Lyrics of the Hudson,' by the late Horatio Nelson Powers (Boston: Lothrop), have a mediocre excellence above which rises these rather striking lines on that miracle yet unsung, the phonograph (p. 69):

THE PHONOGRAPH'S SALUTATION.

I seize the palpitating air. I hoard
Music and speech. All lips that speak are mine.
I speak, and the inviolable word
Authenticates its origin and sign.

I am a tomb, a paradise, a throne,
An angel, prophet, slave, immortal friend:
My living records in their native tone
Convict the knave and disputations end.

In me are souls embalmed. I am an ear
Flawless as Truth; and Truth's own tongue am I.
I am a resurrection, and men hear
The quick and dead converse, as I reply.

A most curious and interesting little book, which might well have been much larger and more annotated, is a volume of poems and translations in Pennsylvania Dutch: 'Drauss un Deheem: Gedichte in Pennsylvänisch Deitsch bei 'm Charles Calvin Ziegler von Brushvalley, Pa.' (Leipzig: Hesse & Becker). There is no regular glossary, but there is a very careful appendix illustrating the pronunciation of the dialect, and some notes as to the influx, constantly increasing, of English words. The best illustration of the result may be given by quoting two verses after Longfellow's 'The Reaper and the Flowers' (p. 38):

"Es is'n Schnitter—dar Dod heesst aer—
Sei Sens hot 'n scharfer Schnitt;
Die zeitig Frucht refft ar hi' un haer
Un die Blumme dekschwische mit.

"'Soll ich nix scheenes hawwe?' saagt aer;
'Die zeitig Frucht—is sel all?
Dar Geruch vun de Blumme liew' ich wol sehr,
Doch gew' ich sie widder bal.'"

Several recent American poets look away from local coloring at home and turn to Greece, that second home of all lovers of the ideal. Mrs. Lillah Cabot Perry, author of 'The Heart of the Weed' and of a remarkable volume of translations from Turgeneff, gives us a delightful collection of versions from the endless treasures of the Greek Anthology, under the title 'From the Garden of Hellas' (U. S. Book Co.). It may be questioned whether she has done well, in some cases, to make her translations rhyme; but even this is felicitously done, and there is a prevailing simplicity which is an improvement on the somewhat mincing and Leigh-Huntish style of the Andrew Lang school of translators. 'The Songs of Sappho,' by James S. Easby-Smith (Washington: Georgetown University), errs in the same way. Sappho's celebrated ode has been so often rendered in the Sapphic measure that it seems almost like doggerel when we read (p. 22)—

"Thou immortal Aphrodite, high-enthroned
Child of Zeus, thou all beguiling,
Hither come, I pray thee, smiling,
All my pains and woes exiling,
O thou love-enzoned";

but the book offers a faithful and patient piece of work by an undergraduate, and, as it gives the original of every fragment of Sappho, will be a valuable possession to those for whom Wharton's beautiful volume is too expensive. 'Homer in Chios: an Epopee,' by Denton J. Snider (St. Louis: Sigma Publishing Co.), is not a translation, but a poem with Homer for its hero. Mr. Snider is fond of Greek themes, and has several times daringly essayed them.

The year has yielded a good many English volumes in verse, most of which contribute, like the average of such volumes, a few translations from the classics, a few sketches of English country scenery, and some reminiscences of foreign travel. Among those by well-known authors, there are two more volumes of the reissue of Alfred Austin's works, 'Lyrical Poems' and 'Narrative Poems' (Macmillan). They are, like all that he has written, varied in theme, patient in execution, and singularly uninspired. Mr. F. W. Bourdillon's 'Ailes d'Alouette' (Boston: Roberts Bros.), is more disappointing, because one expects more from him. He is like that hero in Stockton's tale who ruined his literary career by a first success. All this graceful volume is filled with poems in two short verses; and among these the following perhaps comes nearest to the perfect finish of "The night has a thousand eyes":

SIGHT AND INSIGHT.

By land and sea I travelled wide;
My thought the earth could span;
And wearily I turned and cried,
"O little world of man!"

I wandered by a greenwood's side
The distance of a rod;
My eyes were opened, and I cried,
"O mighty world of God!"

'Lapsus Calami,' by J. K. S. (Cambridge, Eng.: Macmillan & Bowes), has already a guarantee of fame for having offered to the public, amid its numerous clever skits and college jokes, a single couplet which has touched the universal heart. We quote the whole poem of which this beneficent couplet forms the close (p. 3):

TO R. K.

Will there never come a season
Which shall rid us from the curse
Of a prose which knows no reason
And an unmelodious verse:
When the world shall cease to wonder
At the genius of an Ass,
And a boy's eccentric blunder
Shall not bring success to pass:

When mankind shall be delivered
From the clash of magazines,
And the inkstand shall be shivered
Into countless smithereens:
When there stands a muzzled stripling,
Mute, beside a muzzled bore.
When the Rudyards cease from Kipling,
And the Haggards Ride no more?

A slender and modest volume entitled 'The Shorter Poems of Robert Bridges' (London: Bell) contains many tender and thoughtful lyrics taken from his previous volumes and in some instances from his comedy, "The Humours of the Court." So the volume called 'Love's Looking-Glass' (London: Percival), is largely made up of poems previously published in a volume called 'Love in Idleness,' the joint production of H. C. Beeching, J. W. Mackail, and J. B. B. Nichols. They cover a wide range, from the Greek Anthology to the London "sweaters," and they seem mainly such poems as cultivated young gentlemen of leisure should write easily. 'The March of Man,' by Alfred Hayes (Macmillan), is a long poem on human progress in blank verse of a somewhat monotonous description, but with a generous tendency and some strong passages. It proceeds, apparently, from Birmingham, and is dedicated to the memory of Priestley. But a more gifted poet of progress shows himself in one already dear to many hearts, childish and mature, Walter Crane. His 'Renascence, a Book of Verse' (Macmillan), charmingly and quaintly illustrated by himself, has many graceful and ardent strains in it, including one sonnet "On the Suppression of Free Speech at Chicago." This following poem (p. 57) expresses more fully the range of his hope, and defines reciprocity in a far wider sense than that of Mr. Blaine:

HYMN OF FREE PEOPLES.

O kindreds! peoples strong!
That earth's large arms enfold,
Against the powers that work ye wrong
In common cause make bold.

From North, from East, and West;
Beneath the southern star;
In bonds of slavery opprest,
In cruel arms of war;

From East, and South, and North;
From desert-cities' shade,
From living tombs of toil, come forth,
Where rich man's gold is made.

. . . . . .

And far and wide proclaim,
Defying tyrants' ban,
Writ in all hearts, like tongues of flame—
The Brotherhood of Man!

A HANDFUL OF GREEK BOOKS.

The Students' Manual of Greek Tragedy. Edited, with notes and an introduction, from the German of Dr. Munk's 'Geschichte der Griechischen Literatur,' by A. W. Verrall. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1891. Pp. xxiv., 324.

A Short History of Greek Philosophy. By John Marshall. London: Percival & Co., New York: Macmillan. 1891. Pp. 253.

Longinus on the Sublime. Translated into English by H. L. Havell. With an introduction by Andrew Lang. Macmillan. Pp. xxxi., 101.

Talks with Athenian Youths. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891. Pp. xx., 178.

THE 'Manual of Greek Tragedy,' edited by Dr. Verrall, contains some interesting and novel matter contributed by the editor himself, and may be serviceable in other respects to the beginner. It presents, however, a curious example of a book which is intended for the unlearned and ingenuous reader, and which will, nevertheless, in respect of one-third of its matter and opinions, leave his mind in a state of great bewilderment. The cause of his puzzle and perplexity will be the character and merit of Euripides. Dr. Munk, whose popular history of Greek literature furnishes the substance of the chapters that are translated for the 'Manual,' takes a view of Euripides so old-fashioned that it may fairly be called not conservative but *passé*—the patronizing and depreciatory view of Hermann and Schlegel. "Euripides," says Dr. Munk, "had not formed any steady and consistent conception of poetic drama. . . . He lacked the sense of artistic combination. Certain plays are poor and careless in execution throughout. . . . If the dramatic situation of the 'Alcestis' is imperfect, that of the 'Andromache' is absolutely offensive." Dr. Verrall, on the other hand, says: "I desire to warn the reader that when we study one of the works of Euripides, we had best forget everything except this, that if we do not admire it, then, from the circumstances of the case, it is a thousand chances to one that the fault is in ourselves." Between these two doctors who disagree so extremely, the unlearned reader whom they address will shake his head in a quandary and ask himself, Now what am I to think of Euripides?

This, we believe, is a candid description of the situation. Of course, Dr. Verrall gives his reasons, or some of them, at least, in his preface, and states them in a most able and interesting manner. He takes the "Andromache," whose doom Dr. Munk pronounces in the words we have quoted, and shows that the play may be so interpreted as to evince the most perfect artifice and constructive faculty—in what manner, we cannot in this brief notice detail. At any rate, Dr. Verrall's explanation is very ingenious, very plausible; and the only wonder is that, if the explanation is right, we did not all see the situation at a glance, as the quick-witted Athenian audience are presumed to have done. The preface, which deserves to be read by other than ingenuous readers, seems to show that, with regard to the "Andromache," Dr. Munk was egregiously wrong. But at the close of his essay, Dr. Verrall once more consigns his tyro to the guidance which he has so vigorously discredited. "Dr. Munk," he says to the beginner, "presents a prevalent but mistaken view of Euripides. I leave you with him for the future, but I warn you to be on your guard"; and he accordingly enters certain brief caveats from time to time in the notes of the appendix.

Now, all this is interesting and stimulating, but it is not edifying. It is an infelicitous method for the beginner, who needs facts and information as a preliminary to discussion. The mature and careful reader, it is true, might discover, with a little reflection, that Dr. Munk, in his strictures, is sometimes weak and sometimes inconsistent, and sometimes, indeed, naïvely furnishes the material for his own refutation. We pass over instances of this in his remarks on the "Alcestis" and the "Electra," to cite the following remarkable objection: "His entire treatment of a story is often completely conditioned *by the narrow limits of common life.*" Fie on Euripides, we say, who so early fell into an error that has been repeated by Shakspere and many a modern playwright! Aristophanes long ago detected the innovation, and he might be excused for censuring it; but it has spread irrevocably, it has grown the height of fashion, and we simple-minded, retrospective classicists shall never be able to recall it. This one sentence, in fact, shows most clearly the hinge of Dr. Munk's misapprehension. He does not judge the art and creed of Euripides in the light of the historical evolution of the drama. Dr. Verrall's introduction and notes give occasional intimation of this fact, but they offer no comprehensive and positive outline; and hence we say that, for the benefit of the student, Dr. Verrall should himself have written the sketch of Euripides.

The chapters on Æschylus and Sophocles will serve their purpose sufficiently, though it is well to remember that Prof. Jebb's 'Primer of Sophocles' covers part of the ground in a masterly manner. The introductory chapter on the Greek theatre and the development of tragedy is, for its compass, one of the most useful in the book, and is made more useful by Dr. Verrall's corrections of certain antiquated errors. Among these corrections we observe no allusion to the statement (p. 21) that the dramatic prize was a tripod. It is now generally held that the tripod was awarded only to victors in the dithyrambic contests.

Dr. Marshall's sketch of Greek Philosophy is distinguished by an endeavor to treat the subject in a manner so free from technicalities that it may be grasped by any thoughtful reader, and yet so freshly drawn from original sources as to be serviceable to the student of the Greek. It follows generally the order of Ritter and Preller's 'Historia Philosophiæ Græcæ,' and the corresponding sections of that work are noted in the margin. The author in this way anchors himself fast to the original authorities, for which he provides a serviceable commentary, a skilful condensation, or an occasional literal translation of some interesting fragment. He tries to show how much reason lay at the bottom of the vague physics of Thales and Anaximenes; he parallels the melancholy of Heraclitus with that of Dante or of Carlyle, and supplies a corollary to the philosophy of Parmenides by a quotation from the "In Memoriam." This is interesting and legitimate illustration, but the habit shades off at rare intervals into an occasional page of reflection which borders on preaching—wholesome enough, it may be, and germane to the subject, but clearly superfluous and misplaced. There is something curious in praising (p. 65) the logical inconsistencies of great thinkers as if these somehow mirrored the truth of the universe instead of the imperfection of human faculties. The sketch of Socrates is slightly tinged with the same spirit, and the Socratic doctrine of the coincidence of virtue with knowledge assumes a transcendental meaning and color which Aristotle could not have contemplated in his criticism. The work closes with an account of the Stoics, omitting mention of the Pyrrhonists, the New Academy, and the Alexandrian School. In the main the work makes good the purpose expressed in the preface—it is at once lucid and sympathetic, interesting and authentic.

A new translation of Longinus is desirable and timely, because that author is no longer read in our schools and colleges, while his merits as a critic remain perennial. One of the earliest Greek books printed in this country was Zacharias Pearce's 'Longinus,' edited by Prof. Wilson of Columbia College; and this was probably read by many American boys who knew next to nothing of the great classic writers discussed in its pages. So great was the vogue of the critic that he had won precedence over his masters—a precedence which he himself would have utterly disapproved and laughed at. It was well enough to change this order of things; and the young student of Greek could afford to postpone indefinitely a writer who, whatever his other merits, was not a classic in style. For his style, though strong, vivacious, and characteristic, is, on the whole, difficult and strange, occasionally crabbed and obscure. It is dignified always and eloquent; but it lacks the grace and transparency of the classic period, which preceded it by many centuries. Longinus would never have dreamed of offering his periods as a substitute for those of Herodotus and Plato and Xenophon.

The reader who is not an expert may therefore well spare the original, particularly when he is served with so good a translation as that of Mr. Havell. It would be a great pity to put aside on the shelf a writer who has helped to lay the foundations of literary criticism, and who is just as sound by the canons of Sainte-Beuve and Matthew Arnold as he was in the eyes of Pope and Boileau. If reference to his authority would seem old-fashioned in the present day, we must remember that his principles have become absorbed into our highest literary creed and can never really be out of fashion. Sincerity, moderation, good sense, and the elevated tone which springs from lofty living and thinking were to him the essence of good style, as they must remain to us, so long as we accept the maxim, "Le style c'est l'homme même." The details of his criticism possess an interest that is not merely antiquarian. Quite modern in its manner is his ridicule of fine writing, bombast, and false sentiment. It is delightful to see how, with plain good sense, he pricks the bubble of Isocrates's rhetorical pretensions; and his observations on Sappho's famous ode contain the very gist and solution of the whole dispute between realism and idealism in literary art.

These enduring merits are presented clearly enough in Mr. Havell's translation, which is at once spirited, flowing, and readable, and shows, in passages, very dexterous handling of the Greek. For reasons we have glanced at, his task was by no means easy. A close rendering would have been unreadable—indeed, impossible; and if at times the translator takes more liberty than is necessary, with a result bordering on paraphrase, yet the condensed phrases and allusiveness of the original seem constantly to call for a certain amount of recasting and expansion. "The great Emathian Conqueror" (τοῦ Μακεδόνος) is felicitous; "the learned world of to-day" (οἱ νῦν) a little verbose, as is also the phrase "wishing to say something very fine about Alexander,"

where the original has simply ἐπαινῶν. Mr. Andrew Lang's easy and discursive prelude points the moral of the treatise with many modern instances.

The small volume entitled 'Talks with Athenian Youths' is the latest of a series which we have commended highly from time to time for the good taste, scholarship, and judgment with which it is edited. The present selections illustrate certain cardinal points of the Platonic philosophy, and are taken from the "Charmides," "Lysis," "Laches," "Euthydemus," and "Theætetus." The translation is a little closer than Prof. Jowett's, its flavor slightly less idiomatic. The preface and the notes skilfully place the reader *en rapport* with his author; it is, however, beyond the resources of the best skill and taste to dismember an artistic structure like the "Theætetus" and unite the fragments with perfect success. But Plato is a preacher as well as an artist and philosopher; he is a much greater lay-preacher than Mr. Huxley himself or the Duke of Argyll—and this quality does not vanish in an abridgment. The faithful reader who begins to grow tired of the sermons and arguments in the *Nineteenth Century* or the *Contemporary Review*, will find something surprisingly fresh and inspiring in these selections from an author whose spirit will never be antiquated.

Life of Archibald Campbell Tait, Archbishop of Canterbury. By Randall Thomas Davidson, D.D., Dean of Windsor, and William Benham, B.D., Hon. Canon of Canterbury. 2 vols. New York: Macmillan & Co.

THE interest of these volumes is much less in their individual subject than in the course of ecclesiastical events with which his life was mingled, and in which he took an active and an honorable part. The book is feeble in its presentation of the man in any of the more intimate aspects of his life. The most intimate of these were dwelt upon in the Archbishop's own memorials of his wife and son, who died in 1878. The Archbishop, who was born in 1811, died in 1882, on Advent Sunday, the same day on which his wife had died four years before. In their common life there was one awful tragedy—the death in March and April, 1856, of their five little girls. His nature was not weak upon the personal side. He was evidently a man of bright and strong affections, but they did not express themselves in letters to his family and friends. This was partly, no doubt, because of the magnitude of his official correspondence: his biographers mention 62,500 letters on his files. And it is true, as they contend, that his official correspondence had a more personal accent than is common with such writing. But we feel the lack of any friendly correspondence in these volumes. It looks as if the thing he greatly feared had come upon him—the withering of his friendships in the fierce light that beat upon his episcopal throne. There is a painful evidence of this in his letters to Temple about the 'Essays and Reviews.' He hoped that he could keep the ecclesiastic and the man apart. He could in his own feelings, but not in the judgments of his friends. His success was greater with Dean Stanley than with any one else. The appearance of Stanley in these pages is always like a flash of sunlight brightening a sombre day. The fragments of the Dean's correspondence and his speeches make us sure that, if his own life is written faithfully, it will be much more entertaining and inspiring than the one we have in hand. For Archbishop Tait, with many admirable qualities fitting him for the high positions that he held, had little marked or striking in his character. His mind, while calm and clear, was cold and colorless. His humor is reported, but the only argument for it in these pages is that of Douglas Jerrold: "He must have a great deal in him, he lets so little out." It is not claimed that he was a great preacher or scholar. He was a diligent reader of books sacred and profane, and he sets down the reading he has done in his journal with much satisfaction. It proves a marvellous diligence, especially in the two months before his last; but the comments on his reading, especially the more serious, are remarkable only for their banality. Yet they were too evidently written with a view to being drawn upon at some time for publication. The diarist "with this clause" is apt to make his drudgery quite other than divine.

For all these limitations, we rise from the perusal of these volumes feeling that the man's ecclesiastical advancement was no matter of mere favoritism, but was so justified by the event that those with bishoprics to give must have divined his quality as the reader cannot do from any matter furnished him. A crippled boyhood gave the inward turn which marked him for a theological career. Presbyterian birth and training made the evangelical bias of his churchmanship secure. Educated at Glasgow and Oxford, he became a fellow and tutor of Balliol. From 1842 to 1849 he was Head Master of Rugby. Nothing is more significant of something in him which his biographers do not and perhaps could not reveal—an impression of high character and force and dignity—than such an appointment at the age of thirty-one, and immediately following Arnold's death and his exaggerated fame. His was no slavish following of Arnold's methods. He doubted the wisdom of encouraging the seventh-form boys to feel that theirs was "the care of all the churches." But his headship of Rugby was a real success, and the dreadful illness which compelled him to give it up only deepened the affection in which he was held. Dean of Carlisle from 1849 to 1853, the position which seemed to mean retirement from all active labor was only a step to the bishopric of London, the largest in the world. Here was another testimony to some stuff in him which, in the book, is only afterwards declared; for in 1853 he had had no experience in ecclesiastical administration, and no one for 200 years had been made Bishop of London who had not been the Bishop of some other diocese. In 1868 he was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and held the Primacy until his death. Both as Bishop and Primate he was a great administrative officer, a liberal Evangelical; to Shaftesbury, the great evangelical "boss," at first only the least abominable of the Arnold set; strongly averse to ritualistic tendencies, but doing ample justice to the sincerity and devotion which often marked the Ritualist clergy, often bringing upon himself at once the wrath of the Evangelicals and the Ritualists, less often that of the Broad Churchmen; but, as presented here, with few exceptions carrying himself with eminent justice and fairness, holding his personal preferences subject to the law of the Church and Nation. Too much cannot be said in praise of the manner in which his biographers have dealt with him in the various controversial relations of his life. The other side has always been allowed to speak, and sometimes its speech is very rude and harsh. There is little advocacy of the Bishop's side, and no panegyric or eulogium in the book. One might go far to find a better field for the study of ecclesiastical politics. The Bishop of London's salary of £10,000, and the Primate's of £15,000, seem less exorbitant in the light of what is here rather revealed than stated nakedly. It was no bed of roses that the good man lay upon for thirty years.

These volumes are particularly interesting as a history of the controversial life of the Church of England for half a century. There was no controversy of this period in which Tait had not some part. That he was not carried away at Oxford by the Tractarians marks both his sober common-sense and the depth to which his Presbyterian roots went down. Yet Oakeley and Ward, who outdid Newman in their Romanizing bent, were his best friends at Balliol; Oakeley was his tutor, and Ward's fellowship was of the same year as his own. Of Newman he saw little, and never felt his spell. He was one of the four tutors whose protest against Tract 90 marked the beginning of the Tractarian collapse. In the famous Hampden controversy he stood manfully on Hampden's side. Temple and Stanley found it hard to reconcile his episcopal action against 'Essays and Reviews' with his private inability to find anything seriously wrong in Temple's, Jowett's, or Pattison's essays. But if at first he yielded something to the tide, he braced himself against it as it rose and swelled. He could not sympathize with Bishop Colenso, yet he succeeded in making himself anathema to Colenso's violent opponent, Bishop Gray of Cape Town, and to all the latter's friends. But the controversies concerning ritualism were those which taxed most heavily the Bishop's and the Primate's temper, time, and skill. If they did not present certain humorous aspects they would be very wearisome. Much as he would have liked to "put down ritualism," his treatment of it, if these pages do not greatly misrepresent him, was as generous as it was just. The lengths the Ritualists often went towards Rome will be surprising to the average reader. The controversy reaches the acme of absurdity in the fuss made about the carrying off of a consecrated wafer by a communicant of Bordesley that he might produce it in court against his vicar. When the Archbishop recovered it from its legal deposit and "reverently consumed it" there was great rejoicing in the Ritualist camp, while in Lord Shaftesbury's there was ineffable disgust. But the full account of these things must be read by those who crave for understanding. The two pictures of Tait, one taken at Rugby, the other in 1878, afford a painful illustration of his sorrowful and anxious life. But, if the development in the man is fairly exhibited by the pictures, the price he paid for it was not perhaps too great.

The Watering Places of the Vosges. By Henry W. Wolff. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE reader will find in this little book a serviceable account of the leading mineral springs which are classed as belonging to the Vosges, namely, Plombières, Contrexéville, Vittel, Martigny, Bourbonne-les-Bains, Luxeuil, Bains-les-Bains, Bussang; while the concluding chapter gives some account of the less-known but attractive spas of Alsace. The account of each resort includes a sketch of the history of the place, of its topography and geography, the chemical analysis of its leading waters, and an outline of the treatment employed. The book is well brought down to date, and contains all that is needed in a popular manual of the subject. When we add that it is written in a fluent and agreeable style, we fear that we shall have placed another temptation in the way of those who read and run—that is to say, of the very considerable number

of daring invalids who take the responsibility of choosing their spring for themselves. The right selection of a mineral water is quite as delicate and expert a choice as that which the physician makes between any other medicinal appliances; but it is one which the patient, eager to find himself at an attractive health-resort, too often makes to his injury.

The springs of the Vosges are no less than seventy-six in number, comprising every class of mineral waters, and among them are natural curiosities not dissimilar to some of those which we ourselves have noted heretofore in speaking of the mineral springs of Auvergne. Thus at Contrexéville, our author observes, "there are two totally different springs issuing from the ground, not a foot apart." France is richer than any adjoining country in mineral waters, and among its springs may be found the counterparts of Homburg, Baden-Baden, Ems, Püllna, Teplitz, Gastein, and Wildbad. In the Vosges the establishments have reached the greatest perfection and comfort, especially at Plombières and Contrexéville. Their recent development is due in large part to patriotic homekeeping since the Franco-German War; and from year to year increasingly large numbers repair to them. We may add that, among all the resorts of the Vosges, Bussang is the place of the most exquisite natural beauty. Situated almost in the heart of the mountains, and close upon the frontier line of France, its excellent hotel, two thousand feet and more above the sea, commands enchanting views; and the walks in the direction of Gérardmer, or to the neighboring Ballon d'Alsace, reveal some of the finest scenery in the Vosges. From the summit of the Ballon d'Alsace in particular, we have seen at sunrise nearly the whole range of mountain Switzerland—Savoy, Mont Blanc, Monte Rosa, the entire Bernese Oberland, and peaks far eastward of the Jungfrau; while the mountainous sweep of the Black Forest rose through the mists on the farther side of the valley of the Rhine. For a summer vacation in a watering-place of the more quiet order, with the noblest scenery at easy command, it would be hard to rival Bussang. As to the tonic waters, the physician must decide. The intending traveller to any of these resorts will find this book practically helpful as to details of travel and accommodation, while Mr. Wolff's comments upon the social atmosphere of the different resorts, as more or less retired, gay, serious, fashionable, invest it with a somewhat special interest.

The Wordsworth Dictionary of Persons and Places. By J. R. Tutin. Hull, Eng.: J. R. Tutin. 1891.

A PLURAL title would have been more truly indicative of the contents of this volume. The dictionary of persons is in four sections and alphabets; that of places, in ten. Add dictionaries of birds, and of trees, plants, and flowers. There is, besides, a selection of familiar quotations, with an index; a list of the best poems of Wordsworth, in the compiler's estimation; and a hitherto unpublished draft of the "Ode to Duty." With reasonable care in the preparation, therefore, it will be seen at a glance that this is a reference-book which every Wordsworthian would desire to have at hand; and, as a matter of fact, Mr. Tutin shows himself very painstaking and accurate.

Undeniably there is a gain resulting from his divisions, in the fact that they readily reveal the poet's larger tendencies and predilections. Take the persons "contemporary and historical" whom he mentions or alludes to—and this is one very useful side of Mr. Tutin's labors—and it appears that Dorothy Wordsworth among his kindred, and Sir George Beaumont among his friends, are most frequently commemorated. Coleridge follows close behind. On the other hand, Milton decidedly leads the historical group, with Shakspere for the nearest second, the twain being mentioned together in three instances. Pan, as might have been expected, is the favorite among the "mythical and legendary" personages. Among what are called "characters of fiction," Lucy, Matthew, and Emma are names which occur most often.

The gazetteer of places is really extensive, and we can but approve Mr. Tutin's putting the English Lake District ("Wordsworthshire") by itself, prefixing a good outline description of it, copied from a local guide. Grasmere here predominates, with the Rydals next in frequency, and Helvellyn and Skiddaw and the Derwent succeeding at a good interval. Of "other parts of England," London and the Thames take the lead; the River Cam and Coleorton exceeding what remains. Scotland far surpasses Wales; Wales, the Isle of Man; the Isle of Man, Ireland. On the Continent, the order is: Rome, the Rhine, Calais, the Alps, etc. America is mentioned chiefly in her rivers, and but seldom after all.

The text of the familiar quotations is that which received Wordsworth's latest revision. The arrangement is strictly chronological, with scrupulous record of the date of composition. Mr. Tutin gives notice that he has dropped some from Mr. John Bartlett's series, as not being "familiar" to English people, and has added a great many. His list numbers 305, with the close of "Scorn not the Sonnet" as 283 (*anno* 1827); the last twenty-three years of Wordsworth's life thus yielding but twenty-two quotations, and the years after 1845, nothing. Mr. Bartlett allows but seven to this barren period. If the sum of these quotations could be taken as an accurate measure of the worth of the whole of Wordsworth's poetry, then we should, perhaps, say that after 1814, the year of the "Laodamia," the production was relatively of no consequence. Mr. Tutin's calendar of "best poems" would then be judged too long, for he gives fifteen pages to the earlier and twelve to the later period.

Little need be said of the Wordsworthian birds, with the eagle at the fore, and with much evenness of attention to cuckoo, nightingale, owl, raven, redbreast, skylark, and thrush; or trees and flowers, led by the oak and the daisy respectively. The volume is handsomely made, with but few addenda and corrigenda. To the last we will contribute Brugès and Liege on p. 190; perhaps a printer's error in correction.

The Relation of Labor to the Law of To-day. By Lujo Brentano. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

PROF. BRENTANO is apparently so much captivated with his theories concerning the mediæval guilds, although their untrustworthiness has been made evident by competent authorities, that he has determined to apply them to the modern trade-unions. In his view, the wages paid to laborers are arbitrarily determined by employers. The laborer must be satisfied with any wages whatever, and submit to all conditions that the employer chooses to exact. The employer never has to seek for laborers. He establishes his business where he chooses, and the laborers have to come to him. The employer alone determines not only the price of labor, but also "whether the laborer shall receive this price in money or commodities, whether he shall spend it where he pleases or in the store or saloon of the employer; he determines how long a time the laborer shall work for this price, in what workshop, and by the side of what kind of companions."

But if trade-unions are formed, all this is changed. Although individual laborers have no accumulations upon which they can live when out of work, the unions have such accumulations. They keep wages up by limiting the number of apprentices, by refusing admission to those who are not capable workmen, and by turning out those who become incapacitated. Prof. Brentano neglects to add that this would have no result unless the unions were able to keep free workmen from getting employment. Where the unions are able to do this, of course they can get monopoly prices for themselves. As to the fate of those who are deprived of the means of existence by this trade-union policy, Prof. Brentano calmly tells us that they often sink into the class of criminals and furnish the contingent for mobs. There is no room for them in this world, according to his theories, and he does not even attempt to explain what is to become of them.

It would be a tedious undertaking to expose all the fallacies which are to be found in this treatise, and many of them are so puerile as to need no consideration. Not the slightest pretence of establishing the author's assertions by evidence is made, and the ambiguity of his terms indicates that the requirements of scientific proof would not be easily understood by him. The confusion of thought is aggravated by the obscurities of the translation. The book cannot be regarded as a serious contribution to our knowledge of the subject indicated by its title.

The Renaissance: the Revival of Learning and Art in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries. By Philip Schaff, D.D., LL.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

THIS "treatise" of Dr. Schaff was offered at the last year's meeting of the American Society of Church History, and printed in its report. It now appears in book form, and may, therefore, fairly be criticised as an independent work. It contains 132 pages, and is divided into thirty "chapters," some of which occupy only a page or two. The titles of these chapters, which might much more properly be called "paragraphs," are large enough to warrant something like a complete treatment. The name of the author and the acceptance of the paper as worthy of publication by a society of scholars would justify the expectation of some originality, at least, if not of completeness.

In a prefatory note the author says: "This treatise on one of the most interesting chapters in the history of the Middle Ages was prepared in Rome with the use of the libraries of the Vatican, of Victor Emmanuel, and of the German Archæological Institute on the Capitol, and in daily view of the immortal monuments in architecture, sculpture, and painting of the Renaissance." Surely one ought to find some trace of all these vast resources. In fact, the booklet is a meagre abridgment of Georg Voigt's 'Wiederbelebung des classischen Alterthums,' with occasional bits from two or three other well-known works, and a very small deposit from the author's general reading. The style is in great part that of a cyclopædia. To those who can use the books digested, this abridgment can have no value, and to one unfamiliar with them it

can convey very little idea of the subject whatever. The book is the more disappointing because there is room at present for an intelligent treatment, in comparatively brief compass, of the very interesting phases of the Renaissance movement. The great works of Voigt, Symmonds, and Burckhardt have never yet been exploited for this purpose as they might have been. They contain and refer to a mass of information upon which the right man may yet build up something which will deserve the name of "treatise." The elegance of its outward appearance and a few bibliographical references alone redeem this book from entire insignificance.

Austin Phelps: A Memoir. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THIS volume contains an autobiographic fragment forty pages long and about a hundred pages of Prof. Phelps's letters. They possess all that is of real value in the book. His daughter's chapters seem like the fulfilment of an unconscious prophecy of her father's.

"By the way," he wrote, "speaking of the honor paid to good men, is it not time to plead for a reform in the writing of biographies? Do you ever see one that seems to your sober sense strictly true? They are my favorite reading, yet I am amazed at their exaggerations. And those of good men, and written by good men, are among the most brilliantly fictitious."

Mrs. Ward's filial devotion to her father's memory unfits her for the patient and impartial analysis which alone could give his very complex nature an appearance of real life, while her exuberantly rhetorical style blurs even the inadequate outline she attempts to draw.

Prof. Phelps was a man of a marked literary gift and an introspective habit of mind. That there was in him a touch of that madness which is said to be near allied to great wits, we think there is general consent among his friends, though his daughter flies into a passion at the mere suggestion. He wielded a great influence as a trainer of preachers for many years. This fact lends additional suggestiveness to what he says in his autobiographical sketch of the great mistake made of putting men into the pulpit before they are intellectually mature: "My experience there is a very sad proof of the need of well-educated *mind* in the pulpit. Without some good degree of thorough education, which shall give a man confidence in his own mental operations, nothing but ignorance of himself and of his work can give him religious confidence." He also comments with great shrewdness in his letters upon some other aspects of ministerial life. Of the man himself we get no living and consistent image in the book.

Forty Years among the Zulus. By Rev. Josiah Tyler. Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society. 8vo, 300 pp.

THE most interesting chapters in this book are those in which Mr. Tyler gives an account of his work as a missionary to the Zulus. They are written in such a fresh, simple way as to make one regret that he has not given a continuous narrative of his life from the time he landed in Natal in 1849 till the day he left, forty years after. His description of his trip up country, the founding of his station, his early experiences with the people, his day's routine, bring the life of an African missionary very vividly before the reader. These chapters, unfortunately, are few in number, and the greater part of the book is taken up with accounts of the Zulus, their dress, manner of life, and superstitions, and with brief biographies of his fellow-missionaries. In addition, there are a few chapters descriptive of the country, together with a short and somewhat confused sketch of Zulu history from the time of Chaka to the downfall of Cetywayo. There is little that is fresh or original in this part of his work, Mr. Tyler evidently being entirely destitute of the scientific tastes which have led other missionaries to valuable ethnographical and geographical researches.

He writes very frankly and clearly in regard to his missionary work, and it is easy to see the difficulties under which he labored to make converts. The chief obstacles appear to have been polygamy, ancestral worship, and witchcraft. What he calls ancestral worship, it should be noted, differs materially from that of the Chinese. It consisted chiefly in sacrificing an ox to the newly dead to avert the evil which the dead, who were generally supposed to assume the form of a serpent, might bring upon them. This was done immediately after death and apparently not again. Mr. Tyler gives numerous instances of the conversion of natives, with sketches of the lives of several native preachers and teachers, and he writes confidently of the success of the Gospel among the Zulus; but the impression left by his book is, that the mission, in its outward aspects, has not been very successful. Progress at first was certainly slow, one missionary laboring "eleven years before he saw any fruit." Mr. Tyler's own experience does not appear to have differed greatly from this. We suspect that too much time and labor was given to preaching and teaching and the preparation of books in the Zulu language. Possibly there was lacking a judicious mixture with this of instruction at the various stations—not at the schools only—in agriculture and the industrial arts. Still, it should be said that Mr. Tyler dwells far more upon the scenes of his earliest labors than upon those of his latest days, and the unfavorable impression may be due to this fact. There are several interesting portraits of missionaries and converts, together with a few illustrations of the scenery of Natal.

Geodesy. By J. Howard Gore, Professor of Mathematics in Columbian University. [The Riverside Science Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

OF Prof. Gore's competence to treat of ancient geodesy, it is sufficient to say that he makes Sanskrit the scientific language of Chaldæa. But he is well informed in regard to the modern history of higher geodesy, and writes his own language with unusual grace and ease. A less promising subject for popularization than that which he has chosen could not be conceived; but in a space equal to ninety pages of *Harper's Magazine* he has contrived to sketch its history in a manner which will carry along any reader with a taste for questions of precision. He does scant justice to our Coast and Geodetic Survey, and to the manner in which it has been supported by our Congress. No man of sense or of conscience in the position of Bache, Peirce, Patterson, or Hilgard, could have asked the Government to measure an arc of the meridian from Canada to the Gulf. As much as it was right to ask was asked for and accorded; and the works of these geodesists will, when completed, constitute a great contribution to our knowledge of the figure of the earth. It is a problem which was steadily pursued by them, as it is by the present head of the Survey.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Chaplin, H. W. Cases on Criminal Law. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Charron, Pierre. A Treatise on Wisdom. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Cooley, T. M. The General Principles of Constitutional Law in the U. S. 2d ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cunningham, Rev. W. The Use and Abuse of Money. [University Extension Manuals.] Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Curry, Prof. S. S. The Province of Expression. Boston: Boston School of Expression.
Dodge, Mary M. Baby World. New ed. The Century Co. $1.
Drake, C. D. Law of Suits by Attachments. 7th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Eggleston, Edward. The Faith Doctor. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Ewell, M. D. Cases on Domestic Relations. Student's ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Fenn, G. M. A Golden Dream. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Fletcher, Lieut. R. H. Marjorie and her Papa. The Century Co. $1.
Gilder, R. W. Two Worlds, and Other Poems. The Century Co. $1.50.
Holmes, O. W. The One-Hoss Shay, How the Old Horse Won the Bet, and the Broomstick Train. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Irving, Washington. Rip Van Winkle, and Other American Essays from the Sketch Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Jamison, Mrs. C. V. Lady Jane. The Century Co. $1.50.
Johnston, Prof. H. P. The Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay. Vol. 3. 1782—1793. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Le Conte, Prof. J. Evolution: its Nature, its Evidences, and its Relation to Religious Thought. 2d ed. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Literary Gems. 3d series. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50.
Littell's Living Age. July—Sept., 1891. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lummis, Charles F. A New Mexico David, and Other Stories and Sketches of the Southwest. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Macdonald, Malcolm. Harmony of Ancient History, and Chronology of the Egyptians and Jews. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Mason, Mrs. A. M. The Women of the French Salons. The Century Co. $6.
Matthews, Brander. Sheridan's Comedies. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Meredith, George. Diana of the Cross-Ways. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Merrill, G. P. Stones for Building and Decoration. John Wiley & Sons. $5.
Merriman, Effie W. Socials. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. 50 cents.
Metcalfe, Capt. Henry. A Course of Instruction in Ordnance and Gunnery. John Wiley & Sons.
Miller, M. M. Parnassus by Rail. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Molesworth, Mrs. Nurse Heatherdale's Story. Macmillan & Co.
Munroe, Kirk. Prince Dusty. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Norris, Mary H. Sir Walter Scott's Marmion. New York: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Oliphant, Mrs. The Railway Man and his Children. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Peñeyro, Enrique. Manuel José Quintana. Madrid: Libreria Gutenberg; Paris: A. Briquet.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. Austin Phelps. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Pickel, P. R. Little Poems. New York: The Author.
Plympton, A. G. Betty, a Butterfly. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Pollock, Sir F. The Revised Reports. Vol. 1. London: Sweet & Maxwell; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Pomeroy, H. S. Is Man Too Prolific? Funk & Wagnalls. 35 cents.
Poor's Hand Book of Investment Securities. H. V. & H. W. Poor. $2.50.
Rae, John. Contemporary Socialism. 2d ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Reese, Lizette W. A Handful of Lavender. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Rives, Amélie. According to St. John. John W. Lovell Co. $1.25.
Rockhill, W. W. The Land of the Lamas. The Century Co. $3.50.
Sadtler, Prof. S. P. A Hand-Book of Industrial Organic Chemistry. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.
Schaff, Prof. Philip. The Renaissance. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Schuchhardt, C. Schliemann's Excavations. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Seawell, Miss Molly E. Midshipman Paulding. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Selections from the Dialogues of Plato. 4 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.
Sherard, R. H. By Right, Not Law. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Smart, Hawley. A Family Failing. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Smith, Mary P. W. Jolly Good Times at Hackmatack. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Snider, D. J. Delphic Days. St. Louis: Sigma Publishing Co.
Solms-Laubach, Count. Fossil Botany. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
St. Clair, George. Buried Cities and Bible Countries. Thomas Whittaker. $2.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives Relating to America. 1773—83. Vol. X. London: B. F. Stevens.
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Sydney, W. C. England and the English in the Eighteenth Century. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $5.

Sylva, Carmen. Edleen Vaughan, or Paths of Peril. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.
Tarbell, H. S. Lessons in Language. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
The Business of Life. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Theuriet, André. The Marriage of Gerard. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Thorne, R. T. Diphtheria: Its Natural History and Prevention. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Tinseau, Léon de. Jenny's Ordeal. Worthington Co. $1.
Tolman, Prof. H. C. A Grammar of the Old Persian Language. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Tolstoi, Leo. The Old Devil and the Three Little Devils, or Ivan the Fool. Charles L. Webster & Co. $1.
Trowbridge, J. T. Coupon Bonds, and Other Stories. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Trowbridge, Prof. J. The Electrical Boy. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Tufts, J. W. The Cecilian Series of Study and Song. Book IV.—for Mixed Voices. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Tutin, J. R. The Wordsworth Dictionary of Persons and Places. Hull, Eng.: J. R. Tutin.
Tyler, L. G. Parties and Patronage. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Tyler, Rev. Josiah. Forty Years among the Zulus. Congregational Publishing Society. $1.25.
Upham, Caroline E. Salem Witchcraft in Outline. 2d ed. Salem, Mass.: The Salem Press. $1.
Van Dyke, Rev. H. The Poetry of Tennyson. 2d ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 22, 1891.

The Week.

ANYBODY who attempts to verify Mr. Blaine's "facts" will find himself in difficulties. In his letter to the editor of the Bucyrus (Ohio) *Journal* the other day, Mr. Blaine said:

"Germany, without negotiating a formal treaty, has removed the prohibition on pork, and our Government, in consideration thereof, has left her sugar on the free list. This opens to us an entirely new market, and $15,000,000 to $20,000,000 of American pork will be consumed per annum, where not a pound has been taken for ten years."

We had the curiosity to look at the Commerce and Navigation Reports in order to see what our exports of pork to Germany were before the prohibition began. We found them as follows for the years 1880 and 1881:

Exported to Germany.	1880.	1881.
Bacon and hams.....	$1,786,494	$1,670,326
Pork.....	79,364	108,218
Total.....	$1,865,858	$1,778,544

If the prohibition had never existed, we should have exported to Germany in *ten* years about as much as Mr. Blaine says we shall export to her *each* year hereafter. This is about as near as Mr. Blaine ever comes to a fact that is in any way concerned with mathematics. It is a misrepresentation also to say that the removal of the prohibition by Germany had any connection whatever with the reciprocity clause of the McKinley tariff, or that it had any relation to any tariff. Germany is at liberty to put a duty of a dollar a pound on pork tomorrow if she chooses to do so. What we objected to, and the only thing we objected to, was the prohibition of our pork while other pork was admitted. Congress passed a law on this particular subject on the 30th of August, 1890, and it was in consequence of this law that the prohibition was removed. The McKinley Bill, either with or without reciprocity, had nothing to do with it.

Mr. Blaine attempts to spike the gun he himself loaded when he wrote his famous letter to Senator Frye about the McKinley Bill. He now says that his condemnation of it was written before the reciprocity clause was put in, and that that removed all his objections. But it is to be remembered that the reciprocity clause of the bill is notoriously not what Mr. Blaine wanted it to be and tried to make it. He wanted the duty on sugar left on, and one on hides put on, so that he could actually have some concessions to offer instead of, as now, only a threat to make. He also adds that "the reciprocity provision is proving very useful, especially in farm products, and more particularly in the case of the two articles mentioned in the paragraph quoted, pork and flour." In this he differs from the last campaign document put forth by the Bureau of Statistics, in which it is admitted that "it is not to be expected that the results of the treaty with Brazil will be very marked as yet." He differs still more from the *Dry Goods Economist*, which says in its issue of October 17: "In the face of a reciprocity treaty now in operation with Brazil, it will surprise most people to learn that exports of cotton cloth to that country have fallen off nearly 50 per cent. in value." And the reduction on flour in Cuba is not yet in effect, while not a pound of pork has yet been exported to Germany under the new inspection laws. But the letter will serve its main object, which undoubtedly was to show that Mr. Blaine does not propose to let the President steal his reciprocity thunder, and that he by no means wishes to be considered as a "neglectable quantity," politically. But what a strange state of things it is which makes it necessary for him to go into an elaborate argument to prove that he is "not opposed to the McKinley Bill," when that bill is about all there is to present-day Republicanism!

Such a gathering of representative Methodists as has been in session in Washington the past fortnight could not fail to bring out some of the typical characteristics of the denomination. We do not think it unfair to say that the intellectual note of Methodism was sounded in the opening address of Bishop Hurst, when he said: "Our Articles of Faith stand precisely to-day as in the last century, which makes us think that, like Minerva from the brain of Jupiter, they were born full-grown and heavily armed." It is to be hoped that it was not as characteristically revealed in the naïve acknowledgment of the author of the leading paper on "The Influence of Modern Scientific Progress on Religious Thought," that he "did not affect to have had any training either in science or theology." While by no means depreciating education, and possessing many excellent institutions of higher learning, Methodism has, after all, put more emphasis on feeling than knowledge, and has exalted practical results above other considerations. This has helped to develop a certain headlong exuberance which is popularly associated with the Methodist church. The intensely practical trend of the organization has led it to take a more open and active part in public affairs than any other denomination, unless it be the Catholic. In certain sections of the West, the political world used to be classified as Republicans, Democrats, and Methodists. The heated injection of English politics into one day's deliberations of the Conference showed that Great Britain knows something of this. Yet, with all this, there is ample justification for the pride with which Methodism points to its great growth and achievements in this country. With an ecclesiastical system excellently adapted for the purpose, it has gone into the waste places of the land and been always in the front ranks of the pioneers of the West, a conservative and civilizing force.

It was not, perhaps, to be expected that the foreign delegates to the Methodist Conference should have been accurately acquainted with the status of the Pan-American arbitration scheme. Hence it excites no great surprise to find that several of them made inexact statements about it on Saturday last. But what shall be said of the misleading remarks on the same subject made by President Harrison? He said: "In the recent conference of American States at Washington, the proposition was distinctly made and adopted by the representatives of all, or nearly all, of the Governments represented, that, as applied to this hemisphere, all international disputes should be settled by arbitration.' What are the facts? The Pan-American Congress had no power to establish such a "proposition" as the President referred to. What it did do was to agree to recommend to the several Governments the negotiation of a treaty for international arbitration. Ratifications of that treaty were to be exchanged at Washington by May 1, 1891; if they were not exchanged by that date, the whole project was to lapse. So far as our information goes, it has been agreed to only by Ecuador and Bolivia. It was not agreed to by the United States. It has therefore completely lapsed, and all comes back to the expression of the personal and unofficial views of the Pan-American delegates. Why complain of European Governments for having "shelved" the proposition when laid before them? It has been shelved all around, even in the country of its origin. President Harrison must have known all this, but it could never be gathered from his misleading language.

President Harrison went on to say that international arbitration was not availab'e in cases where a nation was imbued with an aggressive spirit and moved by a desire for aggrandizement. In such cases it was for a Christian sentiment to remove the causes of dispute, *i. e.*, the bad spirit, and when this was out of the way the principle of arbitration would find easy acceptance. He expressed the desire of America for peace with the whole world, and concluded with the elevated conception that

"There is a unity of the Church and of humanity, and the lines of progress are the same. It is by this great Christian sentiment, characterized not only by a high sense of justice, but by a spirit of love and forbearance, mastering the civil institutions and gov-

ernments of the world, that we shall approach universal peace and adopt arbitration methods of settling disputes."

Although these remarks were received with applause by the assembly, the clergy could not have been much edified by being told that arbitration is only for the good, and that war, as a means of settling international disputes, will be abolished as soon as nations are peacefully inclined. If, instead of these stupidities, he had said, "I promise to use my best endeavors to bring to peaceful arbitration every dispute that now exists, or may exist during my term of office, between this country and any other on either hemisphere," he would have uttered words that would have resounded around the world. Such words would have left him ample margin for difficulties foreseen or unforeseen, and would have committed him no further than he is already committed by our part in the Pan-American Congress. But as the pledge of a particular man always goes further and awakens more echoes than the same man's share in a joint resolution—especially when he is President of the United States—we can but regret that Mr. Harrison neglected so grand an opportunity to pledge himself personally to follow the Christian precepts which he found so admirable for mankind in the aggregate.

The Keystone Bank mystery has had another phase added to it by the dismissal of the Government experts who were examining its books. It was announced on September 10 that the work of these experts had been brought to a standstill at its most interesting point because of failure of the Government's appropriation for such service. The Committee of Fifty of Philadelphia citizens at once offered to pay the salaries of the experts until their work was completed, and Secretary Foster accepted the offer and told the experts to go ahead. It was said that they had just got in sight of most interesting revelations when they stopped work. They were supposed to have begun again at this interesting point when they resumed their labors on September 15, a month ago. Now comes the news that they have been dismissed because they have failed to keep their agreement to make weekly reports of their discoveries to Secretary Foster, having, in fact, made no report since August 9, sending the Secretary since that time nothing whatever except a statement of their salaries and expenses. There are many queer things about this. If their last weekly report was made on August 9, there were four other weekly reports due when they were stopped by the Government on September 10, yet failure to make these reports was not the excuse given at that time for stopping the work. Possibly it is made the excuse now because they have failed for four weeks longer. It is complained also of them that they had too much other work on hand and were not attending as they should to this. Mr. Reeves, the Chairman of the Committee of Fifty, says of the experts: "Their duty was to endeavor to ascertain if any criminal act had been committed, and as soon as they found this they were to notify the Department. This is what the present men are looking after in the books, and if any one has committed a crime, I have no doubt that the evidence will be brought out against him." By present men we presume Mr. Reeves refers to the experts employed by the local authorities. We trust his hopes will be realized as to the discovery of the criminals, but the chances are against it, for a paralysis of one kind or another has fallen upon every investigator just as he was on the point of making this discovery.

A meeting of the signers of the address against Quay methods in Pennsylvania was held in Philadelphia on Wednesday week, and a permanent organization was effected with Herbert Welsh as President, Henry C. Lea and Justus C. Strawbridge, Vice-Presidents, Charles Richardson, Secretary, and an Executive Committee of twenty eminent Republicans. It was decided to call the organization the "Reform Republican League of Pennsylvania," and to declare its object to be "to break up boss rule and dishonorable political methods in Pennsylvania, and to restore to the people the control of their public affairs." The Executive Committee was directed to continue the work of organization, and to establish branches in all parts of the State. Although the members of this organization have declared repeatedly that their movement had nothing to do with the present campaign, being aimed solely at the proposed reëlection of Senator Quay, that persistent defender of Republican rascality, the Philadelphia *Press*, declares: "The agitation against Mr. Quay at this particular time has the suspicious look of a movement against the Republican party much more than against the junior Senator." Would it be possible, O sixty-per-cent. friend of Bardsley, to find any "particular time" for starting an agitation against Quay which you would not at once deprecate as a movement against the Republican party? Are not Republican rascalities and the Republican party synonymous terms with you? What "particular time" and what "particular measure" with a reformatory object have ever suited you and your kind?

The *Times* makes a strong point against Mr. Fassett's sincerity in his promise to give the State pure government, and, indeed, his perception of what honest government really is, when it recalls the fact that, as Secretary of the Republican National Committee, he reported the sickening resolutions of endorsement and eulogy for Quay and Dudley when those worthies retired from the Committee last July. A man who believes that the robber of the Pennsylvania State Treasury has "placed the cause of good government under deep obligation," and who considers the "blocks-of-five" business a proof of "manliness of purpose and patriotism as a citizen," thereby "gives himself away" as one who does not understand what good government and patriotism mean. If the question in the pending canvass were between the endorser of Quay and Dudley and a Democrat who had distinguished himself by fighting the Quay and Dudley tendencies in his own party, there would be no room for doubt as to the duty of the independent voter. As it is, Mr. Fassett will have only himself to blame if he finds that this unconscious revelation of his character costs him enough votes to lose him the election.

The result of the municipal election in Indianapolis on October 6 is cause for rejoicing to all who believe in independent voting and the application of business methods to public affairs. The contest was between a representative of the Republican Machine and the Democratic incumbent, who, during his first term, had shown that he was nobody's man. The vote was remarkably large—25 868, against only 21,074 in the preceding city election—and Mayor Sullivan was reëlected by a majority of 2,728, against 1,791 in 1889. Mr. Sullivan ran far ahead of his ticket by reason of the fact that many Republicans supported him in preference to an unfit candidate of their own party. The *News*, the Independent journal of the city, which supported Harrison for President in 1888, was an earnest advocate of Mayor Sullivan's reëlection.

The meeting of the American Board last week signalized the complete disappearance of the so-called "Andover question." It appears not to have made so much as a ripple on the surface this year. The result marks the entire victory of the liberals. In the election of corporate members they were given the fullest recognition. Without any need of debating or struggling, they have come quietly into the rights for which they were vainly battling five years ago. This, of course, was inevitable from the start, given the conditions of the case. There was a palpable absurdity in the setting up by an instrument of the church of a more rigid standard of orthodoxy than that enforced by the church itself. This abnormal and intolerable condition of affairs has now been brought to an end, and, whatever one's views about the theological questions involved, he must concede that it is a good thing to have the denomination put in a straightforward and consistent position all around. To Dr. Storrs, and the liberal policy which he has enforced as President of the Board, belongs a great deal of the credit for bringing about this quiet revolution.

The prediction made by our London correspondent a fortnight ago that Mr. Balfour would succeed Mr. W. H. Smith as leader of the House of Commons, is already ful-

filled by official announcement. Mr Goschen intimated as much in his speech at Cambridge last Thursday. The place ought in the natural course of things to have fallen to Mr. Goschen himself, who is an older man and a far more experienced politician than Mr. Balfour, and has for three years filled the most important office the Ministry has at its disposal in the lower house. But he was disqualified by the fact of being one of the Liberal Unionists, to whose possession of good offices the rank and file of the Tories have never been reconciled, and by the not less important fact that as a fighting man he cannot compare to Balfour. When thoroughly roused, he goes to pieces, says what he ought not to say, and leaves unsaid what he ought to have said. For this reason Sir William Harcourt delights in stirring him up. His worst failure came on him at the hands of "Tim" Healy, the Home-Ruler, who pointed out, with the utmost politeness, at the last moment, that Mr. Goschen was cut off from making a certain disposition of money he had raised by a liquor tax, by a previous bill of his own passed early in the session. The expression of Mr. Goschen's countenance when the Speaker ruled that "Tim's" point was well taken, is said to have been a wonderful study in facial indication of the emotions.

The renewal of strikes among the London dockers, this summer and fall, shows how futile was the interference of Cardinal Manning and the other philanthropists at the time of the great strike two years ago. The Labor Commission created by Parliament has taken considerable testimony on the subject of the present condition of the 'longshoremen, especially of the casual laborers employed on the docks. Mr. Ben Tillett, the General Secretary of the Dockers' Unions, told the Commission that "things were worse for the casual worker since the strike," and he was corroborated on this point by other witnesses. The great investigator of London poverty, Mr. Charles Booth, is of the same opinion, and so expresses himself in his last volume. One cause of this result is the action of the dock proprietors in increasing the number of their permanent hands and in classifying the rest in three divisions. Those in the first division have the first chance at any extra work, and those in the last are called upon only after the offer has been made to all the others. In this way the great overcrowding of the business was made palpable to all, and the obvious absurdity shown of expecting the dock companies to employ more men than they needed, or to pay higher wages than the business would admit, even when there were thousands of men eager to take the lower wages. The affair of 1889 was hailed at the time as a great triumph of the forces of philanthropy over the laws of trade; but, as is the case with all such triumphs, the real victory was on the other side.

A remarkable incident in the Baring liquidation has just been made public. Among the assets of the firm were $10,000,000 in 6 per cent. bonds of Uruguay, which the Barings had taken from the Government of that country, but had never marketed. They seemed to the liquidators little better than waste paper, in view of Uruguay's critical financial situation and threatened default on her other outstanding bonds. Still, the bonds were estimated at one-half their face value, and the attempt was made to market them. But they would not go by themselves, and so a scheme was devised to dovetail them in with Uruguayan securities already on the market. The thing was finally done as follows: It was proposed to Uruguay that the interest on her entire foreign debt should be scaled down from 5 to 3½ per cent., on condition that these Baring bonds should be "unified" with the new consolidated issue. The proposition is still pending, but is almost certain to be accepted. The financial objections to it are almost as strong as the moral, and it can be justified only on the plea of the necessity of putting the Barings on their feet again. But if it succeeds, it will be at the expense of innocent and helpless holders of Uruguayan bonds, and will be but one more proof of the loss brought by the Barings on thousands of English investors in South American securities. Besides, the precedent would be a terribly dangerous one, and would be almost sure to be followed by other distressed republics in Spanish America. We are glad to be able to add that the Barings protested against this reduction of interest on their property, which was assented to by the banks which held as collateral the bonds in question.

When the last military bill was passed in France, there was a loud cry from the clergy and the clerical newspapers that a new outrage had been perpetrated upon the Church. The law provided that the theological students in the French seminaries should be enrolled, and that they should be held to a certain amount of military service with the colors. This, in the eyes of ecclesiastics, exposed them to grave dangers of insult from their godless companions, and of loss of faith or of moral tone from garrison life. The first year of service for the seminarists has just come to an end, and none of these direful results seem to have been realized. The seminarists have lived in camp or in barracks as undisturbed as if they had been so many atheists. Their religion has been respected, and their faith and morals appear to be as sound as ever. Some go back to be ordained; others take their old places at St. Sulpice and elsewhere. It is hardly possible that they will not be all the better priests from this brief experience of the world and of the life of men of their own generation. They will have learned many lessons from the tolerance and respect that they have received from companions who neither knew anything nor cared anything for the special studies in which good seminarists are absorbed, and who did not agree in the least with their religious opinions. They can hardly fail to be better patriots after serving under the flag, and perhaps also better republicans. And they will have had the great gain of a breath of fresh air. This was much needed, for the students in the French seminaries are cribbed and confined on every side by a set of minute rules and regulations such as are quite unknown anywhere else in the world, save, perhaps, in some boarding-schools for young ladies.

Russia's financial agents have announced, with a flourish of trumpets, that their new $100,000,000 loan has been satisfactorily placed. They have further embellished their report by the announcement, which was duly cabled over the world in the press despatches, that the loan has been subscribed for seven times over. This assertion is, of course, absurd, especially in view of the fact that, two days before it was made, subscriptions had been so scanty as to render necessary an extension of the advertised time limit. In fact, the Parisian bankers through whom the new loan was offered, have been busily engaged all the week in offering the bonds on the Bourse at a discount—a policy scarcely compatible with an over-subscription of any magnitude. The truth of the matter seems to be that Russia has followed the recent example of borrowing-corporations the world over in paying to bankers a handsome bonus for "underwriting" the loan — that is to say, for assuming it on their own account, with the purpose of selling it out, from time to time, either "over the counter" to actual investors, or through brokers on the Bourse. It is therefore at least doubtful whether the Russian Government will be able for some time yet to control its full $100,000,000. But as Russia habitually borrows three or four times the amount of its immediate needs, it is not likely to be embarrassed by this consideration. A London correspondent informs us that $40,000,000 have come to hand in bona-fide private subscriptions; itself a highly remarkable achievement, all things considered.

Meantime it may well be asked what is to be the end of all this astonishing financiering on the part of the Czar's Ministers. The present year had already been signalized, before the present loan was advertised, by the calling in of nearly $100,000 000 credited to Russia in the various European banks. This enormous sum was an unused surplus left over from previous loans, and its recall was the immediate occasion of the urgent demand for our gold by the bankers of London and Paris. Yet, scarcely has the gold all been gathered in at St. Petersburg when another equal sum is asked for. It is always a conceivable explanation that Russia is making final preparation for a European war; but it is more likely that she is preparing for a large deficit of revenue consequent upon the failure of the present harvest.

PREPARATION FOR 1892.

ONE of the most surprising things in the present political canvass in this State is the indifference of the Democrats to ballot reform, as displayed in the open repudiation of the blanket ballot in the platform. It is the more surprising because it is displayed by men who try to persuade us that the coming State election is chiefly important on account of the influence it will have on the Presidential conflict in 1892, and who say they wish to win now in order to show the doubters and trimmers that they can win in the larger field one year hence.

This election can be made, or could have been made, a real preparation for the Presidential contest in one way, and in one way only—that is, by forcing the Legislature to amend the Ballot Act so as to provide the blanket ballot this coming winter. This would be worth more than the "prestige" of a dozen State victories; and the failure to see its importance on the part of leading State Democrats outside Tammany is something very odd.

The explanation of this importance is very easy. The chief issue of the coming Presidential campaign, it is now admitted on all hands, will be the tariff. The silver craze is rapidly subsiding, and will probably have been killed—as it was essentially a debtors' and speculators' craze—by the good harvest and resulting sense of prosperity long before the conventions meet. Now the chief supporters of the tariff are the great employers of labor, who have money invested in it, and who treat this legislative power of taxing their neighbors in order to swell their own profits as property to be defended, like any other property, by any weapons which the occasion may make necessary. They profess to believe, and probably in many cases do believe, that those who seek to lower the tariff are really robbers, who are trying to despoil them of their lawful possessions, besides plunging the country into misery. They have, therefore, ever since the tariff became a political issue, poured money into the hands of the Republican managers, in enormous sums, and asked no account of the disposition made of it. In addition to this, they have intimidated all their employees or dependents into voting the Republican ticket by such means as seemed best suited to the purpose. The Norwich manufacturer who frankly said that "he would mortgage his mill," if necessary, to prevent the return of David A. Wells to Congress, revealed both the state of mind and the *modus operandi* of the whole class.

The effectiveness of these methods was fully exemplified in the election of 1888. No intelligent Democrat, we are sure, and very few intelligent Republicans, doubt that the defeat of Mr. Cleveland was achieved, under the direction of Quay and Wanamaker, by corruption on a tremendous scale, backed up by the covert and open intimidation of the working class by the manufacturers and their customers. Nor is there the smallest sign that these methods have been abandoned, or that any of those who used them or profited by them are ashamed of them, or will hesitate to resort to them again in 1892. The fulsome eulogies heaped on Quay and Dudley by the Republican National Committee when those worthies became too notorious to be allowed to act as Chairman and Treasurer of the Committee any longer, show that the confidence of their party in their system still remains unshaken.

Now with these facts before their eyes, it is surely the first duty of the Democrats to procure before 1892, if possible, the passage of a genuinely secret ballot law, such as the Australian ballot is, in every State in the Union. This duty has been fully recognized by the Democrats in many other States. In nine States Democratic Legislatures have passed ballot laws with the blanket ballot; and in two others strongly Democratic, Texas and Kentucky, Constitutional amendments have been adopted directing the Legislatures to frame such laws. In Vermont, Maine, Pennsylvania, and Illinois the united stand of the Democrats in favor of such laws forced the Republican Legislatures to enact them.

The opposition of the Republicans in all these States and also in Indiana and Ohio showed clearly what effect they expected it to have on their political fortunes. The corruptionists and intimidators, in fact, understand the measure thoroughly, and the trial of it, wherever it has been made, has fully justified their apprehensions. It has raised the Massachusetts Democrats, for instance, out of the slough of despond, and is giving them a strong hope of carrying the State in 1892. It gave Indianapolis, the very fountain-head of Republican corruption, to the Democrats a few days ago by the largest majority they ever polled.

Under these circumstances, it is Flower and not Fassett who ought to stand for the blanket ballot in this State. It is the Democratic, and not the Republican platform which ought to call for it with vehemence, and the loudest-mouthed supporters of it should be those who think the State election a sort of preliminary ballot for the Presidency of the United States This, and not vague blather about "prestige" and "influence" and "first guns" and "forerunners," would be real preparation for the fray of one year hence. The emancipation of the wage-earning class is, in fact, the first and great condition of Democratic success in the Federal field. The Republicans have, through the tariff, an immense corruption fund to fall back on, and great power over the lives of an immense body of voters, and there is no way under heaven of destroying this fell influence but the provision for the poor and the humble of an absolutely free and untrammelled ballot.

To what do we owe this extraordinary failure of the Democratic party, in this great State, to perform the very first duty of the crisis? Simply to a desire to "placate" Tammany. To this organization, which, as Mr. Curtis truly said in his recent letter, is "a national disgrace," as well as a disgrace to the city and State, we owe the absurd spectacle of a Democratic hostility to a secret ballot, and Democratic support of a system which enables bribers and employers to follow their slaves to the polls, and see that they fulfil their contracts and do their bidding when they cast their votes. It is Tammany, and not the party, which profits by the "paster ballot." Without some means of following the voter and seeing that he obeys his orders and carries out "deals," the Society could not long survive even in this city. So that, as a matter of fact, we are actually witnessing the sacrifice, as far as this State is concerned, of State and national interests of the highest importance to enable a parcel of worthless adventurers and criminals to live on the city taxes. That so many Democrats of light and leading should connive at concessions so shameful and disastrous, is the great puzzle of the day.

HISTORY OF THE PRESENT SILVER LAW.

As the late Secretary Windom came to his death while making a speech at a public dinner against the free coinage of silver, he has been in some sort canonized among the apostles of sound money. And such he was undoubtedly at heart. Nevertheless he was, if not the father, certainly the grandfather, of the present silver law, of July 14, 1890 He was also the undoubted father of the present Republican conceit that the Government ought to buy the entire product of *American* silver mines. The Republican politicians and newspapers are saying that their party was constrained to pass the present law in order to head off free coinage. What are the facts? What is the history of that law?

In 1878 a silver agitation, headed by Mr. Bland, culminated in the passage of a free bimetallic coinage bill in the House, for which even Mr. McKinley voted. It was rejected in the Senate. The outcome of the conflict between the two houses was the illogical compromise of 1878, which Mr. Allison proposed, and which became a law over the veto of President Hayes. That enactment has been the prolific parent of our subsequent silver anxieties. It initiated the compulsory purchasing and coining of fractional silver by the Treasury, with a limited legal-tender faculty that was devised for minor coins in 1853. The law of 1878 was that of 1853 with the legal-tender restriction removed. Silver had fallen from $1 30 in 1873 to $1 20 an ounce in 1878. The law of 1878 compelled the Treasury to purchase and coin not less than two and not more than four million dollars' worth of silver bullion per month. Every Secretary stood on the minimum quantity, but, nevertheless, when Mr. Cleveland was inaugurated, over 250 millions of silver dollars had been coined. On February 27, 1885, President-elect Cleveland wrote to Mr. Warner of the peril of the continued purchasing and coining of silver, and urged a repeal of the law of 1878. He said:

"These being the facts of our present condition, our danger and our duty to avert that danger would seem to be plain. I hope that

you concur with me, and with the great majority of our fellow-citizens, in deeming it most desirable at the present juncture to maintain and continue in use the mass of our gold coin, as well as the mass of silver already coined. This is possible by a present suspension of the purchase and coinage of silver. I am not aware that by any other method it is possible. It is of momentous importance to prevent the two metals from parting company; to prevent the increasing displacement of gold by the increasing coinage of silver; to prevent the disuse of gold in the custom-houses of the United States in the daily business of the people; to prevent the ultimate expulsion of gold by silver."

Congress would not stop the purchasing. To avert the then impending crisis, the Associated Banks of New York loaned the Treasury (July 30, 1885) ten millions of gold, on the collateral security of fractional silver coins, and the crisis was averted. Secretary Manning in two annual reports urged the next Congress to stop the silver-purchasing and coining. He urged it to prevent the hoarding, hiding, and deporting of gold coins, and also to promote international bimetallism. Congress turned a deaf ear, and silver-buying and coining went on at two millions a month till Mr. Harrison was inaugurated On November 1, 1889, we had bought some 300,000,000 ounces of silver and coined therefrom 343,638,001 silver dollars. In 1878 fine silver was $1 20 an ounce, but in 1889 it was only 93 cents, a fall of over 20 per cent.

When Mr. Harrison and Mr. Windom came into power, there was no real demand for an increase of Government purchases of silver. On the contrary, sound business men, coinage experts, and currency reformers asked that no more Treasury purchases be made. But what did the new Administration do? Secretary Windom gave up one-quarter of his annual report of December, 1889, to the silver question, which was not then at all "in the air" or a burning question. What did he say? He condemned compulsory purchasing *and coining*, as Cleveland and Manning had done, but upheld purchasing. He showed how futile it had been to arrest the fall of silver. He advocated the use of both metals as full legal-tender money, and declared the problem to be the attainment of such use. He went over six plans and condemned each and all. He said that "public sentiment" moved in favor of international bimetallism, but "some of the most powerful nations are not yet ready to act." He declared that nobody approved of the present policy of purchasing and coining only twenty-four millions a year. He opposed the purchasing and coinage of forty-eight millions a year, under the law of 1878, but only because he had a better plan. He denied that there was any contraction of the currency, and showed that it had increased by six hundred millions of dollars since 1878. He opposed free coinage; he opposed a heavier silver dollar as impracticable, and the issuing of certificates to depositors of silver bullion because that would be in effect free coinage for depositors. What did he propose as a solution of the silver problem? The proposition he urged was this:

"To open the mints of the United States to the *free deposit of silver*, the market value of the same (not to exceed $1 for 412.5 grains of standard silver) at the time of deposit to be paid in Treasury notes; said notes to be redeemable in the quantity of silver which could be purchased by the number of dollars expressed on the face of the notes at the time presented for payment, or in gold, at the option of the Government, and to be receivable for customs, taxes, and all public dues; and when so received they may be reissued; and such notes, when held by any national-banking association, shall be counted as part of its lawful reserve."

He advised that the *notes* be full legal tenders. The Republican House adopted that plan, but the Republican Senate substituted for it a free-coinage measure, and the law of 1890 emerged out of the conflict beween the two houses. There is little substantial difference between the faults of Windom's plan and the faults of the law of 1890.

GOVERNMENT RAIN-MAKING.

THE more fully the history of the Government rain-making expedition to Texas develops itself, the more ridiculous does it become. Now that the inner facts have leaked out, our readers can draw instruction, reproof, or amusement from the spectacle, as they deem meet. The project of sending a special expedition all the way to Texas to go through an ordinary Fourth of July celebration, for the sole purpose of bringing down rain upon the parched fields of that State, looks theatrical enough in itself. Taken in connection with the fact that a few hours' examination by a competent person would have shown that great battles had been without influence on the weather, vague surmises to the contrary notwithstanding, it becomes ludicrous.

To show how groundless is the notion that there is any relation between cannonading and rain, one need hardly go further than the little book in which Mr. Edward Powers tried to prove the contrary. By painstaking research he showed that during our civil war a great many "battles," "artillery fires," "gunboat firings," "attacks," and "naval actions," one-tenth of the whole number, perhaps, were followed by more or less rain, either next day, or in two, three, or four days. A farmer who should go out and blow his horn every Monday morning for a year would make a better showing than this, for his tooting would surely be followed by rain in two or three days oftener than one time in ten. Considering that we commonly have May showers through the whole early summer, and that actions of the kind which Mr. Powers most largely brings in were going on every week, not to say every day, coincidences of rain and battles were hardly possible to avoid. Every one who has given attention to meteorology knows that the atmospheric currents which bring rain are in almost constant motion, generally from west to east, at the speed of a railway train. The great mass of air which was over the heads of the combatants during a battle would, next day, be hundreds of miles away, to be replaced by another mass from an equal distance. If a cannonade brought rain at all, it would do it in a few minutes; if we wait hours, we have a new mass of air coming from a distance of hundreds of miles.

We have asked a mathematical expert to calculate for us the probable weight and force of an aerial current such as the explosions of a few balloons were expected to start or guide. He says, in substance, that the weight of the air is such as to press upon every square inch with a force of about fourteen pounds. This makes a weight of a little less than a ton to every square foot, and about 25,000,000 tons to every square mile. Multiplying by the area of Texas, we find that the aerial current over that State weighs more than five millions of millions of tons. The effect of the jump of one vigorous flea upon a thousand-ton steamship, running at a speed of twenty knots, would be vastly greater than that of the explosion of a ten-foot balloon upon this current. Indeed, the flea project would be the more sensible of the two, because the force of an explosion in the air goes out equally in every direction, and so would neutralize itself, whereas if the flea was made to jump off from the stern of the ship, the reaction of his feet would really push the ship along.

An appropriation for rain-making was inserted in the agricultural bill by the last Congress in connection with the Forestry Division of the Department of Agriculture. Several months passed away without either the Forestry Division or the Weather Bureau showing any sign of a desire to avail itself of the chance of immortality so temptingly held out. Indeed, we suspect that the chiefs were chuckling over the embarrassment of the honored head of their department in deciding what to do with the money. Then Senator Farwell, the putative father of the whole scheme, suggested the employment of a Washington attorney named Dyrenforth to take charge of the business. This gentleman had the indisputable qualification of absence of bias, being quite innocent of meteorology or of any other branch of science outside of his profession, and was therefore willing to take hold of the business seriously, instead of laughing at it, as all the scientists of the poor Secretary were suspected to be doing. How good a man he was from this point of view is evinced by the fact that, although he was going to make rain, he did not take a rain-gauge with him to measure it. Whether this was because he had never heard of such an instrument, or because such unpoetic conceptions as inches and hundredths would spoil the artistic beauty of his report, we do not know.

The expedition set out with many good words from the newspapers, who sought to add éclat to it by dubbing its chief "General," although this campaign against the sky was his maiden effort in the military line. It arrived on August 5, with the car-load of materials for the manufacture of dynamite and explosive gases so graphically described by the "General" in the *North American Review*. At first the weather was dry, but on the 10th there was a shower—how much of a shower no one

can tell, as the estimates vary from a few hundredths of an inch, hardly enough to wet the ground, all the way up to two inches, which is the General's own estimate. To have a rain come on its own account when his preparations for compelling it were not half made, would have been rather annoying had he not remembered that he had been trying his dynamite the day before, and had made quite a number of explosions. The cause of the rain was evident to the General, who would have been much surprised by the information that the air from which the rain fell was hundreds of miles away at the time of his explosions. The first telegraphic report ran: "Preliminary explosions made yesterday; raining to-day." In the *North American Review* it is expanded into a brilliant success, with nearly two inches of rain.

The preparations went on apace, but in a few days it became evident that a rainy season was setting in. Although the mornings were clear, the afternoons were cloudy, and the clouds were blacker and more threatening every day. Everything was ready for a regular battle on August 17, and next day the ground batteries roared almost constantly for twelve hours, while the explosion of oxyhydrogen balloons added terror to the scene. Just how much attention should be given to the assertions of an official of the Weather Bureau that a rain area covering 800,000 square miles was formed to the north of Texas before the roar of the batteries began, we leave to the judgment of the reader. The admitted fact is that rain commenced before night. One reporter says it was a light shower, but the General says "a drenching rain, which fell in torrents for two and a half hours" over several counties, and flooded the roads under four to forty inches of water.

Another brilliant success was scored on the 25th of August, when the weather-maps showed a repetition of the wide area of rain. Simultaneously with the formation of this area, the General began to discharge his batteries, and next day another brilliant success was scored. The chief had to leave for home after this triumph, but his lieutenants were still operating at the last accounts, so far as weather would permit them. They have found that in the absence of their General the clouds do not heed their artillery except "under favorable conditions," which persistently refuse to occur. In dry weather it is no use to bombard, because the weather keeps dry, as they have at last found by experience; and when a rainy spell sets in, what is still the use? It is evident that they lack the practical skill of their chief, who, as he himself says under his own signature, had a special line of explosives "to keep the weather in an unsettled condition."

All this may seem very funny, but it has more than one serious side. The unsophisticated farmers of Texas cannot imagine that the Government of the United States would spend thousands of dollars in sending a party two thousand miles away to indulge in the silliest performance that human ingenuity could devise; and they are contributing freely of their hard-earned money to supplement the work of the Government. What will they think when they find out "the true inwardness" of the affair? And, if our Government can be conceived to have a soul, should it not be ashamed of allowing such a deception to be practised upon its citizens? The least it should in honor do is to appropriate a fund for reimbursing the farmers.

Then, what possibilities are opened up in the event of a foreign war! If the Government can publicly organize and send out such an expedition as we have described, with the approval of its scientific authorities, what shall we say of the kind of men it enlists in its service? If, as we have every reason to believe, these authorities disapproved of the project from the beginning, and refused to take any part in it, and yet the project went on, what limit can we set to the possible absurdity of its operations against a public enemy? If Mr. Secretary Tracy should send out the North Atlantic Squadron to melt the icebergs on the Banks by bombarding the Gulf Stream off New York, his act would not be a whit more absurd than that of his colleague in sending his rain-making expedition to Texas.

THE POPULATION OF THE GLOBE.

To estimate the population of the globe at any given period with any approach to accuracy is a difficult, not to say an impossible, task. Only about one-half of the human race has been made the subject of systematic enumerations; the dates of the most recent enumerations in different countries are six years apart; and even then the official statistics are not always calculated to inspire unlimited confidence. A striking case in point is offered by our own census of 1890, which, although taken at the lavish outlay of more than eight millions of dollars, and with the aid of a vast army of enumerators and other officials, bristles with errors of which it is safe to say that more and more will come to light as its results are submitted to a more rigorous scientific analysis. If results obtained by such elaborate and expensive machinery are open to so many grave suspicions, it is by no means surprising that in the case of countries whose population can only be estimated, or, in plainer language, more or less plausibly guessed at, there should be the widest discrepancies between the various estimators or guessers. An extreme example is presented by the Chinese Empire, for which the estimates of reputable statisticians vary from 250,000,000 to 430,000,000. The difficulties of the task, however, have not deterred the experts in statistics from attempting its solution; and, by a patient and detailed examination and elimination of the manifold sources of error, figures have been arrived at which can lay claim to at least a temporary validity, and may be safely used for practical purposes.

Among the most highly esteemed and most trustworthy of such compilations have been the tables of population of Behm and Wagner, of which seven successive editions appeared between 1872 and 1882, when they were interrupted by Behm's death. After an interval of nine years this useful publication is now resumed, under the editorship of Hermann Wagner and Alexander Supan, in a quarto volume of 271 pages of statistics brought down to August, 1891, and including the British census of April 6 of this year. It bears the imprint of Perthes in Gotha and Westermann in New York. Other recent similar works are those of Émile Levasseur (1886-'87) and Hübner-Juraschek (1889).

The extant statistical material concerning the area and population of the habitable globe is submitted by Profs. Wagner and Supan to a minute and highly intelligent criticism, and their conclusions are in every case supported by reasons which are weighty and convincing. They estimate the total population of the globe at 1,480 millions, of which Europe has 357, Asia 826, Africa 164, America 122, Australia 3, the Oceanic Islands 7½. More than one-fourth of the human race is found in China and Japan, the former counting 350,000,000 and the latter 40,000,000; more than one-fifth is in India, 324,000,000, of which 286,000,000 belong to British India. Comparing the chief European States with ours, the only one that exceeds our 63,000,000 is Russia, 93,000,000. The others range as follows: the German Empire 49,000,000, Austria-Hungary 41,000,000, France 38,000,000, Great Britain and Ireland 38,000,000, Italy 30,000,000, and Spain 17,000,000.

The density of population is greatest in Europe, which averages thirty-seven inhabitants to the square kilometre, against nineteen in Asia, five in Africa, and three in America (2,823 square kilometres = 1,090 square miles). It will thus be seen that if the American and the Asian continents were as densely populated as Europe, the former would hold nearly the whole of the present population of the globe, and the latter a far greater population. The comparative densities of the principal countries, beginning with the most thickly populated, are as follows: Belgium 207 to the square kilometre, the Kingdom of the Netherlands 138, Great Britain and Ireland 124, Italy 105, Japan 105, the German Empire 91, China 90, British India 76, Switzerland 72, France 71, Austria 66, Denmark 57, Portugal 48, Spain 35, West Indies 22, United States 7. The order of precedence is somewhat changed if Germany and Great Britain are viewed, not as entities, but as composite States, and the States composing them are taken separately. In that case the kingdom of Saxony appears as the most densely populated country in the world, having 233 inhabitants to each square kilometre; and next comes England, with 209, and after that Belgium as above. If we take the separate States of our Union, we find at the top Rhode Island with 106, and Massachusetts with 104, ranging about even with Italy and Japan; next is New Jersey, 71, the same as France and Switzerland; Connecticut 57, the same as Denmark; New York 47, and Pennsylvania 45, a little less than Portugal.

An endless series of interesting comparisons suggests itself, but we will here confine ourselves to a few selections which may afford crumbs of comfort to the despondent publicists who view with so much alarm the increasing army of immigrants. The area of the United States is very nearly equal to that of all Europe, which has a population of 357,000,000; the State of Texas alone has a greater area than either Germany or Austria, whose populations are respectively forty-nine and forty-one millions. If that State were as densely settled as Massachusetts, it would hold nearly seventy millions—as much as France and Great Britain together. The area of the Middle Atlantic States is a little in excess of that of Italy, and, with a population as dense as that of Massachusetts, could find room for all the Italian people. In order not to go to extremes, we refrain from deducing the startling results that could be obtained by using the population of England or of Belgium as a basis, although there is no good reason why considerable portions of our country should not maintain as thickly settled a population. The very moderate assumptions made above are sufficient to show how little we are in danger of being crowded out of house and home, even if one entire half of all Europe and of all China were to be dumped upon our shores as fast as the steam fleet of the world could bring them here.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF PAUL DUDLEY WITH THE ROYAL SOCIETY.

As the son of one Governor of Massachusetts, and the grandson of another Governor of that Province, the Hon. Paul Dudley was born with such advantages as attach to social standing in a colony. He was himself Attorney-General of the Province from 1702 to 1718; then a judge, becoming Chief Justice in 1745. It is in his character as a savant in the early years of the last century that we must concern ourselves with this old worthy of New England, whose name is commemorated in the Dudleian lecture of Harvard University.

The early papers of the Royal Society of England not only have been preserved, but are very accessible by means of a printed Index. If the Index had been brought down to a later date, it is quite possible that something fresh might be gleaned from the correspondence of Franklin with the Royal Society. The letters from which the subjoined extracts have been made were written by Dudley to the Secretary for the time being of the Society, and, of course, do not appear in the published Transactions of that body.

Writing from Boston on the 20th of June, 1719, Dudley says, referring to maple sugar, he cannot renew his correspondence with John Chamberlayne "on a sweeter subject (pardoning the pun)." To his chapter upon maple sugar he has nothing to add but that "our Physitians look upon it not onely as good for the common use as the West Indie sugar, but to exceed all other for its medicinal virtue." If his first essay prove acceptable, he may proceed further, and he says, "in particular I believe I could furnish you with some curiositys with respect to locusts (I mean the Insect) which would surprise you." Stepping aside from scientific subjects, Dudley touches upon matters of general interest. "We are just now rejoicing to hear of the defeat of the Spanish Invasion." . . . "On the other hand, I am greatly distressed to hear that Arrianisme (however it may be softened or disguised) prevails so much in the Nation, and especially among the Clergy of the Dissenters. The Church had need to pray now more than ever that He who walks in the midst of the golden candlesticks would hold the Starrs in his own right hand." Chamberlayne is requested to favor him with a particular account of that affair, and with "the true state of the controversy, and what means are taken to prevent the spreading of the Infection." Dudley mentions that his father "grows an old man apace."

On the 15th of March, 1720, he writes that the "Journall of Mr. Kellogg's Trading voyage from Canada to Missasipi is what I took from his own mouth and then digested into the method you see." Dudley says he has sometimes thought it might not be improper to communicate Kellogg's "corrections and observations to Mr. Hammond, sometime of the Navy, to whom Mr. Senex's map of North America is dedicated, or to Mr. Halley of the Royal Society, to whom that of South America is addressed, and who, indeed, corrected it." He makes a present to the Royal Society of a moose, "as being a Royal beast." Should it be in his power, he will send a live moose. He would have sent some further curiosities from New England, along with the moose, but that he was afraid of falling under the censure of Chamberlayne and Dr. Mather for sending them "by Douzens." Then he adds, "I hope my poyson wood tree came safe to your hands without harm."

Bearing Paul Dudley's signature, but without the date of transmission, there is "An Account of the Cataract or Falls of Niagara, taken at Albany, October the 10th, 1721, by P. Dudley from Monsieur Borassaw, a French native of Canada."

In a letter dated at Roxbury on the 14th of April, 1722, Dudley sends an account of a new island that rose up among the Azores in November, 1720, with Capt. Robertson's observations and draughts, also "a small piece of the cynders or pumice stone." He desires that Chamberlayne should offer the draught to Mr. Professor Halley, "who is the father of all charts or Mapps of the sea."

On the 2d of November, 1721, Paul Dudley was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. Writing from Roxbury on the 3d of November, 1722, to the Secretary of the Society, the new Fellow says: "It is with great sincerity I acknowledge my unworthiness of the great honour the Society have done me, as in admitting me one of themselves so in accepting any of my performance, and to use the Poet's words:

"'Haud equidem tali me dignor honore.'

The diligent and ingenious Mr. More has lost no time in his searches after the productions of nature in this country since his arrival, and it has been a great pleasure to me to have given him some assistance therein." Our New England scientist then proceeds to make full acknowledgment of an awkward mistake he had made: "I cannot finish this letter without making a public acknowledgment of a great mistake I committed in my account of the poison wood tree, when I acquainted the Society that it bore no berries, for I now find it to be beauteous, and have sent some of the very berries. This last summer I sent a box of that poyson wood by one Capt. Cutler, who left it, as he tells me, with a brother-in-law of his in London, Mr. Callowell, who may be heard of at the Exchange in London."

Writing on the 6th of July, 1723, to Dr. Jurin, the Secretary of the Royal Society, Dudley says: "The miscarriage of my poyson wood by Mr. Callowell was some little mortification to me, because, as I remember, I put into his box a Draught of the late new Island that rose out of the sea near the island of Fayal, which, if the Society have not yet seen, I can recover, for I kept an exact copy of what the shipmaster presented to me, who, indeed, was the first Englishman that discovered it. Our friend Mr. More is gone to the neighbouring Colony's with all the recommendations we could possibly give him from hence."

On the 3d of October, 1724, he writes from Roxbury: "I have now presumed to send you a few observations on the plants of New England, as a gleaning after Mr. More's greater harvest, which I hope he has long since spread before the Society. I am endeavouring after a short natural history of our Whales, which I hope to send you some time this winter, with a box of some few curiosities to amuse you with. I did myself the honour some months since of sending you the relation of an extraordinary cure by sweating in Turf, but do not yet know whether it ever arrived."

On the 10th of October, 1724, he says: "This is my second and short letter, by the King's ship, and serves only to tell you that I have done myself the honour to present the Society, by Capt. Darell's hands, with a cane made out of the jawbone of a spermacoeti whale, and also a tooth taken out of the same fish, of which creature I hope in my next to give the Society a very particular account."

From Boston he writes, on the 11th of December, 1724, that he hopes in the spring to send a further account of some remarkable cures by a new way of sweating "practised by some of our physitians." He has observed among the English prints an advertisement of a new treatise of philosophy in opposition to Sir Isaac Newton, and wishes for the opinion of the secretary of the Royal Society upon the book, and whether it be worth sending for.

A letter of the 19th of December, 1724, is by way of introducing Dr. Zab. Boylston, as regards whom he writes: "I dare not pretend to be a judge in his profession, but he is in high esteem in his own country, for his great skill, long experience, and happy success in surgery, and I know him to be an ingenious and worthy man; and God made him a singular blessing in our late terrible small pox. While some hundreds died in the natural way, he was the happy instrument of saving many scores of lives by the new method of Inoculation." . . . "I understand his design in his present voyage is to improve himself yet further in the new and happy way of cutting for the stone."

On the 2d of April, 1725, he writes from Roxbury: "I beg the favour that nothing may be published as from the Royal Society about Ambergreese till you receive my account of that secret, for I have taken no small pains to be a master of that matter, and the Society may depend upon the account I shall send them, having got it from the most capable persons in this Country." From Roxbury, on the 5th of April, 1725, Dudley forwarded 'An essay upon the Natural History of Whales, with a particular account of the Ambergreese found in the Sperma Coeti Whale. In a letter to y^e^ Publisher by y^e^ Honourable Paul Dudley, F.R.S.' "I have been much assisted herein," he says, "by the Rev. Mr. Greenleafe of Yarmouth, near Cape Cod, and Mr. J. Coffin, sometime of the island of Nantucket, both of them places famous for the Whale Fishery." In this paper Dudley first published the conclusion at which the Ameri-

can fishermen had arrived, that ambergris was produced in whales by disease. In a patriotic spirit he wrote: "I hope the Society will accept of this first Essay, and allow my poor country the honour of discovering, or at least ascertaining, the origin and nature of ambergreese." After mentioning that he was enjoying "a little ease from his gravely pains," he proceeds: "I observe the Cambridge Dictionary spells Sperma Coeti, Parmacity. If you judge it best to write the word so, I must pray you to see it altered where it occurs."

From Roxbury, on the 7th of November, 1725, he writes: "I should be glad to tell you that I had undertaken, according to your desire, observations on the weather. I have yet no Barometre, but expect one in the Spring, and when it comes I am afraid my riding the Circuit, and frequent absence from home, will render it impracticable for me to be constant in my remarks." . . . "Mr. Roby (?), sometime a fellow of our college at Cambridge, tells me that he has lately sent over to the Royal Society three or four years observations on the wind and weather."

On January the 21st, 1726, he writes from Roxbury: "Mr. Greenwood, one of this Country, who has spent some years in London under Dr. Disaguliers, is lately returned to us, and I hope will make and transmit such observations in Natural Philosophy and occurrences of that nature as may deserve the Society's acceptance."

The sage of Roxbury sent quite a budget of contributions to the Royal Society, on the 21st of January, 1726. There is "A remarkable cure of a person sweating in malt in New England, October, 1724." The heroic cure described by Dudley was applied to Thankful Fisb, a young woman of Falmouth in New England, who was subject to faintings. Next is a cure of severe rheumatism by "Sweating in Rum," effected in the person of the wife of Mr. Richard Dummer of Newbury. Then comes "An Account of a stone taken out of a horse, at Boston, in the year 1724." The stone weighed 5⅛ lbs., and measured 17 inches one way, and 17¾ inches another way. After this is "A relation of a man's ear, remarkably Fly-blown, and cured, 1724." Mr. Jeremiah Fuller of Newton, near Boston, a farmer of good credit, was the subject of this experience. To this follows "A short account of the Aurora Borealis that appeared on the 27th day of March, 1726, at night in Roxbury, and many other places in New England." Two other papers complete the contribution. These are "A surprising instance of the nature and effect of Lightning, June 24th, 1724," and, "Salt Water, or the Spray of the sea, carried many miles into the Country," etc.

On the 13th of November, 1727, Dudley communicated an "Account of the several earthquakes which have happened in New England, since the first settlement of the English in that Country, especially the last which happened on Oct. 29, 1727."

The last letter was written at Roxbury on the 12th April, 1733, and is addressed to Dr. Mortimer. In it Dudley writes: "I have endeavoured after my poor fashion to observe the seasons and have now sent them. Mr. Greenwood, our mathematical professor, who lives but five miles from me, acquaints me that he likewise does the same."

Besides his contributions already referred to, Paul Dudley furnished the Royal Society with papers upon the following subjects: "A description of the Moose deer in America," "A method lately found out in New England for discovering where the Bees hive in the Woods in order to get their honey," "Of a new sort of Molosses made of apples," "Of the degenerating of smelts," "Account of the rattle snake."

When that disreputable self-dubbed Knight, Sir James Hill, after failing to get admission to the Royal Society, wrote his abusive 'Review of the Works of the Royal Society of London,' he did not fail to attempt to throw ridicule upon Dudley. Referring to Dudley's contribution respecting ambergris, the self-styled Sir James characterized the New England observer as "the ignorant introducer of an ignorant paper of somebody's else, to a society who were ignorant enough to do both of them honour for it." This was not bad by way of abuse; but, the disappointed medico notwithstanding, Dudley's explanation of the origin of ambergris is that which holds good to-day. Hill's venom had need to vent itself still further upon our early New England scientists, and hence the following biting snarl: "The third [paper] is by the Honourable Paul Dudley of credulous memory, a gentleman damned to fame by many a well-intended but ill executed paper: one of the first encouragers and supporters of this now immortal Society, and who seems to have had a very great share in the establishing, by example, the principle since so happily introduced into the Body—that it is not necessary for a Member of the Royal Society to understand the subject he writes about."

PAUL BOURGET IN ITALY.

PARIS, September 30, 1891.

ONE of my friends, who is somewhat paradoxical, said to me some time ago: "I have a great admiration for Pierre Loti, and, besides, I am extremely grateful to him." "Why?" asked I. "He has killed the *genre descriptif*, of which I am heartily sick. This profuse, minute, elaborate, photographic, continuous description of things big or small, important or unimportant, becomes in the end very fatiguing. Now Loti has pushed the art of description as far as it can go. He has been a painter in words more than anybody. Who can think of describing the sea after the 'Pêcheur d'Islande'? Who will dare paint Japanese flowers, the chrysanthemums, after him? I think the French Academy would do well to offer a prize, and a very large one, to any one who can write a volume of three hundred pages without using a single adjective or adverb." It is quite true that the art of description has been carried very far in our time. There is a realistic school in literature as well as in painting, and I am sometimes amazed on reading, in some of the light papers which are open to literature, articles which display a curious and almost morbid talent for description.

I made these reflections before opening a new book by Paul Bourget, which bears the singularly characteristic title of 'Sensations of Italy.' Mark the word sensations—not impressions. It is all the more characteristic of the time in that Bourget is not, like Guy de Maupassant, a materialist: he is essentially a spiritualist; he delights in analyzing the most delicate shades of thought, of passion; he lives, so to speak, in the human heart, especially in the feminine heart. But even he must sacrifice to the gods of the hour. In the novels which have made his reputation, and which are striking and sometimes very deep studies of the weaknesses, the failings, the complexities of the human heart, he must here and there indulge in elaborate descriptions of furniture, of dresses; the thinkers must make room for the *tapissier* and the *couturier* (for there is now such a word in our tongue). To be sure, even these materialistic and to my mind somewhat vulgar descriptions of the surroundings of his heroes and heroines have an object—the influence of the *milieu* must be felt. A poor and weak man, suddenly thrown among all the luxuries of our millionaires, and among the women who are the costly flowers of our Parisian parterre, is a curious object of study. Still, Bourget sometimes goes too far, and he gives the painful impression of caring too much for wealth and the surroundings of wealth himself. A man of the world ought never to care for his clothes, to give a thought to them: when they are new, they must be worn as if they were old. Balzac has long, very long, descriptions, but they always prepare you for the drama; they are intensely suggestive. The descriptions in Bourget's novels have too much sameness. One fine drawing-room must resemble another fine drawing-room; and the description of them seems very dull to those who are accustomed to live in fine drawing-rooms. The play of passion, the dialogue, ought to fill almost completely the modern novel.

My criticism, of course, cannot apply to a book of travels. A traveller must perforce be descriptive, and therein lies the great difficulty in writing a good book of travels. This difficulty increases tenfold when you have to write on Italy, a country which more than any other has been visited and described; and Bourget felt it when he began his work with these words: "Reader, have you preserved, notwithstanding the present political misunderstandings, a passionate fondness for Italy, and in Italy for the corners which are more refractory to our levelling cosmopolitism? Once across the Alps, have you, in consulting your guide-book, thought of those little towns which have only two or three pictures, but divine pictures, whose legendary name evokes some great historical memory?" And so he goes on, and almost begs pardon for giving us his notes of a journey undertaken in the autumn of 1890, across Tuscany, Umbria, the Marches, Otranto, and Calabria, outside of the great classical centres.

I am so fond of Italy, and have spent so many happy hours in that country, that I have read every line of these 'Sensations.' The circumstances in which the journey took place (Paul Bourget was married last year, and took his wife with him on his journey) contributed to increase the natural sensibility of the author; he becomes in some pages almost a poet. But, strange to say, his usual sadness does not seem to be relieved—for Bourget is essentially sad; the comic vein is entirely wanting in him; he has no humor; he is always depressed, and his novels are pervaded with an almost painful melancholy.

His 'Sensations' begin at Volterra, and from Volterra we are taken to Colle, Siena, Monte Oliveto, Pienza, Montepulciano, Chiusi, Città della Pieve, Orvieto, Perugia, Assisi, Ancona, Foggia, Lucera, Bari, Brindisi, Lecce, Taranto, Cotrone, and Reggio—not a banal itinerary, as you see; a ramble through parts not in the ordinary current of tourists. Bourget makes no pretension to be an archæologist or even an art critic. His notes are condensed. I quite approve of his method of not trying to *do* everything, and to remain always under a powerful and strong impression left by some great work of art. It is so pleasant to leave an Italian city, and to say to one's self, "I will come again," though perhaps we never shall come again. But notes taken in this spirit are apt to become mere pretexts for fine writing. Bourget's 'Sensations' generally end in some

psychological meditations and analyses; his mind is bent in this direction, and, as Milton has said, "the mind is its own place."

Bourget expresses some opinions which deserve to be noticed. At Orvieto he criticises the mania for restoration which has seized upon the architects of all countries, especially in Italy. There is now in Italy, as there has been in France for a long time, a "Commission on Historical Monuments." This Commission propose to make such changes in the Duomo as will completely reëstablish the plans of the primitive style:

"O the barbarism of the archæologists, who do not understand that the sort of vegetation added by centuries to the first lines of a building gives it the charm of a living thing! Men have lived here since the architect built the house. They have prayed here. They have touched this building with their pious hands. . . . What people call a restoration only introduces the coldness of death, since in the place where life was palpitating, life which is always complex, incoherent, and too full, but which is life, . . . Will there ever be a time when the truth of the ironical words of Goethe will be admitted: 'The spirit of history, why, it is the spirit of these gentlemen'? Then it will be forbidden modern painters to give youth to a picture or to a frieze, as they have done in the Campo Santo of Pisa, to the irreparable damage of Orcagna and of Gozzoli: the old pictures of these noble masters have become *peinturlurages* of a horrible brilliancy. Then it will be forbidden the archæologists to clean a ruin."

Bourget goes, perhaps, too far: some restorations of monuments, discreetly made, have been very successful; but it is quite true that many others have been very unfortunate. It is equally true that it is childish to suppress in a church, for instance, where the primitive design is kept in the monument itself, pictures, altars, bronzes which have been added by each generation, and which form a sort of transition between the present and the past. To imagine that a church built in the Roman style must have nothing in it which is not Roman, has always seemed to me a mistake.

The pages written on the old Convent of Monte Oliveto are among the best in the book. The old abbey is preserved from complete ruin only by a decoration of Signorelli and of Sodoma which has given it the deserved honor of being classed among the national monuments. Only a few monks remain in it since the secularization of church property in Italy. Bourget found in the library a big folio, the treatise of Saint Irenæus against the Gnostics:

"Ah!" says he, "the marvellous psychology of the work, and how it throws in the shade all our poor essays. The pride of the mind, rising to the most sterile dilettanteism or to the most desperate revolt, the pride of life punished by the follies of sensualism—these are the two great maladies of the modern soul, its two great sins. Nihilism is the end of it now as it was then. This old convent, red among its black cypresses, which has lasted for several centuries, teaches us a possible remedy for these miseries, if it were only by telling us who they were that have inhabited it. The inscriptions which we read, here and there, on these walls tell us to believe first—that is to say, to humble ourselves before the unknowable Cause of the world, to accept the mystery which surrounds us as a mystery, to take as incomprehensible what is incomprehensible; but with the confidence that some day this sorrowful darkness will be lighted. Resignation with hope—'s not this, amid all the contradictions of creeds and dogmas, the common ground of all piety?"

Here we have the true Bourget, the man who carries in his heart a deep wound, and who goes through life, looking at pictures, at palaces, at churches, as if all these were immaterial things, mere symbols, mere expressions of some inner thought. The traveller is as sad as the novelist; the novelist sees deceit at the bottom of every passion, and remorse and sorrow; the traveller looks with a weary eye on the world as if it were but "a fleeting show."

These 'Sensations' would have been better named 'Impressions,' because the whole tone of the author's reflections is idealistic. It is pessimistic also; and if a man is a pessimist in Italy, what will he be under our northern skies? On the whole, you leave this little volume with a curious mixture of pleasure and pain. The writer has won your pity more than your admiration; but is not "la pitié suprême" the end of all our philosophy?

Correspondence.

STATE AND NATIONAL POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your interesting article with the above title has furnished food for thought. Why is it that State politics have lost their interest and become absorbed in national? In the history of European countries, the hardest thing has been to get the people to give up their local prejudices and interests in favor of the central Government. Before the war, State politics had their full share of interest, while, as you point out, the State Governments are really of much more importance to the people than the Federal. I find the explanation in the completely colorless character of State politics as at present organized. All those things which deprive national politics of any real interest—the committee system, with its secrecy and want of responsibility; the absence of personal leadership; the scramble of private and local interests; and the rule of the lobby—are repeated with perfect exactitude in all the forty-odd States. But there is a further evil. In nearly, if not quite, every State the chief executive officials are elected separately from the Governor, which is fatal to anything like efficient administration. In some States, as in Massachusetts, this has resulted in setting up a number of commissions to do the work which properly belongs to the executive. In others it has produced pretty nearly an administrative deadlock. The result in either case is that the people know nothing about State affairs, or who is responsible for anything.

In the Federal Government, on the other hand, there is a chain of subordination from the President down to the day-laborer, with one man for each place. Not only, therefore, is the Federal Administration thereby rendered infinitely better than that of any State, but it appeals more powerfully to the imagination. Besides that, the President occupies one of the most conspicuous positions in the world; he is regarded as the personal head of this enormous machinery. For many years the possession of the offices was almost the sole basis of the Republican and Democratic parties, while now that this has been weakened by civil-service reform, and the names have little or no meaning, the most frantic efforts are put forth by politicians to keep the parties together, and especially by striving to drag the States at the tail of the national cart.

But just as the defects of government are really more dangerous in the States than at Washington, it is just in State politics that attempts at reform are also most needed. I have always maintained that the rule of the lobby is to be overcome at Washington by giving the Cabinet officers seats in Congress. Exactly the same thing for the same purpose is wanted in the State legislatures. But for this purpose also another thing must be brought about which already exists at Washington, and that is that the Governor should have the power of appointment of his "cabinet" instead of their being elected separately from him. The effect of this would be to do away with the government by commissions, just as there have been none, at least till very recently, under the Federal Government.

There is no hope in this direction from the State legislatures any more than from Congress, but I have for many years believed that a strong man who, as Governor, should go straight to the people, explain the difficulty, point out the remedy, and ask for their support, would receive it to an extent which would compel the Legislature to yield. Hence the intense interest which I feel in the present election. Gov. Russell, in his inaugural message, urged upon the Legislature action both as to the lobby and the commissions. That body has opposed him as far as it could, and paid no attention to him for the rest. I do not think he is as clearly convinced as myself as to the character of the necessary remedies, but at any rate he has shown the point of attack, and is following it up gallantly in the campaign. If he should run much ahead of his ticket, he will be almost compelled to move onward.

Meantime, the Republicans have imported numbers of the leading national politicians as speakers, have set up a candidate for Governor who will be as wax in their hands, and are making desperate efforts, in this purely local election, to swamp the State with the McKinley and Silver Bills. Massachusetts is, I believe, the first State which, by an investigating committee of the Legislature and by a message of the Governor, has attempted a formal resistance to the lobby, and—by the action of the Governor at least—to the government of the State by executive commissions. Therefore it is that I say deliberately that not only to this State, but to every State in the Union, it is of more importance who is elected Governor of Massachusetts this year than who is next year elected President of the United States. Gamaliel Bradford.

Boston, October 17, 1891.

THE LAW OF "VIS VIVA."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Herbert Spencer's 'Essays: Scientific, Political, and Speculative,' occurs the following sentence:

"Besides, the law of *vis viva* is plainly violated in the phenomena of growth, since this is not a reversible process."

The words "law of *vis viva*" seem from the context to be used as synonymous with "law of the conservation of energy." Does your reviewer really mean to assert that in the phenomena of growth we are presented with a *plain* violation of the law of the conservation of energy? Such an assertion would be so astonishing that I cannot refrain from asking for further explanation. L. M. Hoskins.

Madison, Wis., October 12, 1891.

[It ought not to be necessary to remind a professor of mechanics in a reputable university that the law of *vis viva* was familiar to mathematicians for much more than a century before the law of the conservation of energy was heard of. The one is a principle of molar mechanics, the other of general physics. The kinetical theory of mat-

ter, which is intimately associated with, but is not involved in, the law of the conservation of energy, supposes that when the motions of molecules are taken account of, the law of *vis viva* is not violated in the action of viscosity, etc., where, considered as relating to *molar* motions, it is violated. As we referred to this, there is little excuse for saying that our context seems to confuse the two propositions. But since our correspondent is astonished at our saying that growth is an irreversible process, and therefore plainly violates the law of *vis viva*, and since, as professor of mechanics, he is familiar with the theorem that every action under a conservative system of forces is reversible, it appears that he would say that growth (including reproduction and the evolution of new species) is a reversible process in the sense in which the actions of viscosity, etc., are not reversible.

We said nothing about the law of the conservation of energy, which is the grandest discovery of science. Still, as a scientific generalization, it can only be a probable approximate statement, open to future possible correction. In its application to the ordinary transformations of forces, it has been pretty exactly verified. But as to what takes place within organized bodies, the positive evidence is unsatisfactory, and, in connection with the question of the will, we cannot feel sure the principle holds good without assuming a partisan position which would be unwise and unscientific. In an age when the axioms of geometry are put in doubt, it would not be astonishing to hear any physical principle challenged; but we repeat that our remark looked only to explaining the irreversibility of growth, in the same way in which inorganic irreversible processes are explained, by the application of probabilities and high numbers.—Ed. Nation.]

AN ISRAELITE ON THE GRIEVANCES OF ISRAEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the London *Anti Jacobin* there is a paper—the second, I believe, of a series—by "An Israelitish Wanderer," on "The Grievances of the Jews in Russia," which I would commend to those who are willing to see the truth about the Jewish question. According to this Israelite, the grievances consist much more in the vexatious action of certain local officials than in the iniquity of the laws. However, he concludes thus:

"It is deplorable that public opinion in Russia should so largely approve of the expulsion of the Jews, even when it is done under cover of ordinances doubtfully applicable. But who can honestly say that it is unnatural? Beyond all doubt, economic causes, trade rivalry, business competition, are at the bottom of much of the hostility against the Hebrew. If a dozen Jewish traders settle in a town where a dozen Christians have been carrying on business, the whole trade will be transferred to the Jews within a measurable period of time. It may be argued that this is done to the advantage of the community at large; but yet it is not easy to persuade the worked-out Christians of that, or their neighbors of their own race and country. It takes a deal of delight in political economy to make up to a man for the loss of his bread; and we who are Jews should be the last to decry the sympathies of race or to deny that blood is thicker than water."

The whole paper confirms the view that this is a social and economic question, not a case of religious persecution, to which not the slightest allusion is made.—Yours faithfully,

Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, October 16, 1891.

JOHN ROGERS OF PURLEIGH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Whitmore's letter, published in the *Nation* of October 8, led me to inquire of the New York libraries for any of John Rogers's works, and I was rewarded by finding a copy in the library of the Union Theological Seminary, in the keeping of Mr. Gillette, who courteously permitted me to use it. The copy is, unfortunately, somewhat imperfect, the title and eight leaves being wanting; but the former owner had supplied them in manuscript. I was surprised to find that the titles given in Drake's Catalogue and in Lowndes's 'Manual' were different from the title as copied into this volume—*Ohel* or *Beth shemesh* being the heading to one of the divisions of the work. The true title is:

Dod or Chartran
The Beloved; or
The *Bridegroom* goeth forth for his *Bride*.
And looking out for his Japhejaphita, his
Faire One, or his *Church* adorned with
double
Beauty and Excellence,
viz.: *Spirit* and *Truth* in these *latter days*—

and much more to the same effect.

The work, a quarto of 596 pages, is in fact nothing more than a "red-hot" Puritan diatribe, masquerading as a manual of church discipline; and its dedication to Cromwell and the epistle to the Commissioners of Parliament in Ireland prove the writer to have been a politician of no mean pretensions. Its composition was begun in Ireland about 1652, and completed in London, the second Epistle being dated from "My study, Thomas Apostles, 17th day of Zin, 2nd month of 1653." The style is that of a bitterly partisan pamphleteer, employing the well-nigh unintelligible jargon of the Puritans of that age of controversies, and crowded with puns and italics, metaphors, Biblical quotations, and references to all manner of things. "When you can take a turn or two in this Treatise," he wrote to Cromwell, "among such trees of Righteousness as are of the Lord's own planting (in his gardens) which will lead you with delight (if the Lord give but light) to James's (the Apostle) yea, beyond; till you come to make Sion-house for your Excellencies' habitation," etc. He must have thought it necessary to lighten the reading a bit, and so inserted some execrable poems by ministers in praise of the author and his treatise, calling them "some amber of Ingenuity dropping out in the following verses," etc. Even then Cromwell, if he "took a turn or two," must have been peculiarly constituted not to have been led astray; and at this very time was more anxious to reach Parliament House than Sion-house. This copy lacks the portrait that is mentioned by Lowndes.

It is in the autobiographical items that the book becomes of interest to us, but the language in which the writer relates his "experience" should be read, to appreciate the man's earnestness and uncouth expressions. He was a school-boy at Malden, in Essex, when he was first "rouzed" by the teaching of Fenner and Marshall. When aged ten, he slept in church, and was awakened by the minister's awful pictures of hell and its torments, and this produced a great effect upon his mind, incidentally leading him to evolve a recipe for keeping awake in church, which is duly recorded. His father, Nehemiah Rogers, who wrote on the parables, had some influence upon him, and he preached in Huntingtonshire when he was eighteen or nineteen. It was at this period that he seriously takes up Puritanism, disgusts his relatives and friends by his preciseness, is turned out of doors, with about three shillings and sixpence in his pocket, to "wander up and down a strange country"; applies to several colleges for admission as a poor scholar but is refused; is subject to dreams and has them carefully interpreted; is twice saved, of course by some special providence, from "self-murther"; drifts to Brudenel's house in Huntingtonshire, where he teaches school, as he also does in the free school at St. Neotts; and is sent for and settles in Essex. This is a bald account of what occupies many pages in his quarto, loaded with much that is odd and characteristic. The entire absence of dates makes it difficult to follow his narrative, especially as his "experience" ends with his call to Essex. We must depend upon other parts of the book for further information.

He went to Ireland, and was involved in some bitter controversies there. He appears to have made some enemies, one in particular, against whom he harbors a malignant spirit. He says, in metaphor, he embarked in a vessel (the church) with others, and hoisted the sail in a fair wind. But a storm arose, and "one vessel which was in our ship was full of stinking liquor, and yielded an ill savor"; and he wished they had thrown it overboard, but the storm hindered. The storm referred to the religious controversy of the time, in which the author took an active part, and, as a reward, was slandered in England and Ireland, but was countenanced by the commissioners sent out by Parliament. We give his own account as a sample of what the 596 pages are largely made up of:

"It is time to rescue my name and reputation from those *Bum-baylies* that have arrested, and roughly handled it, at the *Devil's suit* out of *malice* (which was like *rennet*, the *older*, the *stronger*). I have met with men like *Colledge Butlers*, who have set up a pace upon *honest* men's names, and charged them to the *full* (with full maliced and foul-mouthed aspersions) which they will never wipe *off* again without I pay them (soundly) for it (which in time I may doe more fully, before good witness too). . . . So did one in Dublin, aspersing my person, and traducing the truth, possessing some people with *strange opinions* of me, as if I held many errors, who therefore looked upon me as an outlandish man, made up of strange fashions. . . . But one great one amongst them, that had this spleen in his soul so passionately, that the smelling of it made his other parts to languish lamentably and apparently in the eyes of all; and to break out ulcerously in his language against me and others, with noisome words, which were of the worst savour."

So it may be concluded that Rogers did not lack the excitement of persecution: refusing to "dance after the pipes and adore the pride" of some great man—perhaps the same represented as the vessel—he was called a "poore, empty, silly fellow." Evidently Ireland became too hot for him, and he found a resting-place in London. As he states that he began the Treatise "about a yeare ago," *i. e.*, say in 1652, his Irish career must have been short, for it was in August, 1649, that he was directed to pay to Mrs. Washington a part of the Purleigh tithes. This may account for his mention of the "oppression of that Babylonian brazen yoke of tythes, which ought to be removed." The only mention of Purleigh I found was an "experience of John Osborne, of the Church at Purleigh."

Worthington C. Ford.

Notes.

PART vi. of the 'New English Dictionary' has been ready for some months and will soon be here. We are informed that it will contain matter especially interesting to Americans under *Congregational, Congress, Conepatl, Colin, Cockle, etc.*

Additional announcements of Macmillan & Co.'s fall publications are 'The Last of the Giant-Killers,' by the Rev. J. C. Atkinson; 'Some Aspects of the Greek Genius,' by Prof. S. H. Butcher; 'The Inferno of Dante,' translated by A. J. Butler, and completing his version of the 'Divine Comedy'; 'English Literature at the Universities,' by J. Churton Collins; 'A History of Early English Literature,' by the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke; Historical and Miscellaneous Essays, in two volumes, by Prof. E. A. Freeman; 'The Present State of the Fine Arts in France,' by P. G. Hamerton; 'The New Calendar of Great Men,' edited by Frederic Harrison; 'Battles, Bivouacs and Barracks,' by Archibald Forbes; 'The Government of Victoria (Australia),' by Prof. Edward Jenks; 'The Pioneers of Science,' by Oliver J. Lodge, with portrait and other illustrations; 'British Seas,' by W. Clark Russell; 'Historical Outlines of English Syntax,' by the Rev. R. Morris and Dr. L. Kellner; 'England and the English in the 18th Century,' by William Connor Sydney; 'Mahdiism and the Sudan,' by Major F. R. Wingate; and the novels of Thomas Love Peacock, edited in nine volumes by Richard Garnett.

The Duchess d'Uzès, whose devotion to the Orleanist cause made her the easy dupe of Boulanger, and also brought upon her a good deal of what must have been very annoying publicity, belongs to the class of noble dames who, like the Queen of Rumania, seek for occupation, or for fame, in the following of art. Such women are often clever; but they are far more apt to do "a little something" in several arts than something in any art. The Duchess d'Uzès paints, and composes music, and works in sculpture, quite to the satisfaction of her many friends. She "writes, too," under the pseudonym of "Manuela," and the new novel, 'Julien Masly,' which Ollendorff has just published, is from her pen. She wrote it (as she says in an interview) because she "wanted to try." Whatever the literary quality of the book may be, it will be sure to have in Paris a success of curiosity and of esteem.

A book which will be of a certain interest to readers in general, and of a special interest to some, has just appeared in M. L. Baudry de Saunier's 'Histoire générale de la Vélocipédie.' The author shows a good deal of research in his treatise, which conducts the reader from the rudimentary vehicle of Ozanam in the seventeenth century through the *célérifère* of the Revolution, and the *draisienne* of the Restoration, and the inventions of the Second Empire to the bicycle of to-day. The book contains many illustrations, reproduced from old engravings, both serious and jocose.

The correspondence of Eduard Mörike and Theodor Storm, edited by J. Baechtold, is announced by the publishing house of Göschen in Stuttgart.

The discussion of the authorship of the 'Imitation of Christ' seems to be as lively now as when it began, two hundred years ago. The latest English addition to the already enormous literature of the subject is Mr. Leonard A. Wheatley's 'Story of the Imitatio Christi,' one of the volumes of the "Book-Lovers' Library" (A. C. Armstrong & Son). The author, who is a staunch maintainer of the claims of Thomas à Kempis, here gives an expansion of the matter contained in his article "Kempis" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The question is now so far narrowed down that, though the hypotheses are numerous, the only important claimants of the authorship of the 'Imitation' are Thomas and the Chancellor Gerson. The arguments on both sides are fairly given in this beautifully printed little volume, in which we have also a list of the manuscripts of the 'Imitatio,' and a chrestomathy from the other works of Thomas, the resemblances pointed out being held to be an important factor in the critical problem. The theory supported by Michelet and others, that the 'Imitation' is an impersonal work, a collection of reflections composed by various writers, is not considered by Mr. Wheatley; it seems, however, to be worthy of examination so long as the absence of all distinct historical statements makes the reference of the book to any particular man difficult, if not impossible. As a popular introduction to the critical study of the 'Imitatio,' Mr. Wheatley's book is admirable.

A critical history of the canonical Hebrew literature from the modern scientific point of view has long been a desideratum. Kuenen has done the work admirably for the Hexateuch, but a general survey of the field has been lacking. This has now been accomplished by the Oxford professor, Canon S. R. Driver, in his 'Introduction to the Literature of the Old Testament' (Charles Scribner's Sons), which forms the first volume of the "International Theological Library," edited by Professors Briggs and Salmond. Prof. Driver's critical position is that of the modern school (represented by Kuenen and Wellhausen), and he holds that critical conclusions do not touch either the authority or the inspiration of the Old Testament. His collection of materials is full enough to enable the reader to form a judgment for himself; and his method of presentation is so cautious and fair that one must respect his argument even when one cannot accept his result. His book should supersede all others in this field. The mechanical execution of the American edition is not good; the binding is inconvenient, and the English small print is not clear. The Hebrew print is excellent.

We have had occasion, within the past few months, to note the appearance of several manuals designed for use in the moral education of children, at home or in school, and now comes another, in many respects the best of them all, Prof. C. C. Everett's 'Ethics for Young People' (Ginn & Co.). With very little of formal division, the author devotes the best part of his forty-six chapters to the treatment of the smaller moralities, as they are called, remembering (what many writers forget) that these are of much greater concern to a child and his teacher than more generalized and abstract conceptions of duty. The first ten chapters are expository and historical, and of most value, perhaps, for the older heads, but what follows could be put with great advantage in the hands of children at the beginning of the reading habit. This does not mean that the style is lowered for the supposed needs of childish minds; it is throughout dignified and serious, while simple, and no more cast in the hortatory vein than was, perhaps, inevitable. Such chapter-headings as "Ambition," "Self-Respect," "Usefulness," "Good Temper," "Fun," "Kindness to Animals," "Industry," and "Temptations" (this last peculiarly excellent), will indicate the "lowliest duties" dwelt upon. The whole makes a book deserving of praise and use.

Mr. Henry Adams's position as an historian is so well established that the collection of his fugitive writings, 'Historical Essays' (Charles Scribners' Sons), is certain to be read with interest. They are nine in number, and appeared at intervals in various periodicals. Perhaps the one on the New York Gold Conspiracy attracted most attention at the time of its appearance, but there are others of more permanent importance. The essay on "Primitive Rights of Women" contains some suggestions of interest both to anthropologists and to social reformers; and that in which Mr. Adams attempts to trace the connection between the tortuous diplomacy of Lord John Russell at the outbreak of our civil war, the Declaration of Paris, and the formerly strong leaning of England to belligerent as against neutral rights, is very curious.

Mr. Theodore Child's papers on South America are too fresh in the minds of readers of *Harper's Monthly* to require detailed notice now that they have been collected into a sightly volume, 'The Spanish-American Republics' (Harpers). They are able to bear the test of consecutive reading, and show that, for the territory covered, Mr. Child is the most competent and keen-eyed observer we have had of late years. If they are deficient on any side, it is on that of the literary aspirations of the people, kept up in reverence of the old traditions, and the elaboration of social ceremonial common to Spanish-speaking races. Both of these matters, however, Mr. Child expressly and judiciously disclaims authority to speak upon, rightly saying that insight into them can be gained only by prolonged residence. In view of the fact that he visited only five or six of the Spanish-American republics, the title of his book could have been made more exact; as it is, some may possibly be misled by it.

'The Fine Arts,' by G. Baldwin Brown, Professor of Art in the University of Edinburgh (Charles Scribner's Sons), is one of the University Extension Manuals, and may be recommended as an eminently clear and sound brief statement of the aims and conditions of art, especially in the three forms of architecture, sculpture, and painting. It is likely to be really valuable to that large number of people who, while unable to give much time to the study of art, are yet interested in the subject and would like some guide to the better understanding of the artist's aims and ways of feeling, and some explanation of the main conventions of art. It is necessarily brief and not carried far in detail, but is admirable as far as it goes. Particularly good are chapter ii. of part ii., on "The Work of Art as Significant," in which the ultra theories of the apostles of art for art's sake are discussed, and chapter i. of part iii., on "Architectural Beauty in Relation to Construction." On both of these points the author's views seem to us to be exceedingly moderate and just.

A second, enlarged edition has just appeared of a work useful both from a literary and from a linguistic point of view, viz., Prof. Augusto Romizi's 'Paralleli Letterari tra Poeti Greci, Latini e Italiani' (Leghorn). It is in thirty-seven chapters.

The British Museum reports particularly rich acquisitions of Bibles during 1890. Among them was a Frankfort Bible of 1534, containing the woodcuts of which those in the Coverdale Bible of 1535 were an imitation. Notable also was a Madagascar Bible, printed in Malagasy in 1830–35 at Antananarivo. The rarity of perfect copies of this Bible arises from the fact that the impression was destroyed in the persecution, while the few copies which survived were mostly cut into small portions for the sake of concealment. Another treasure added during the same year is the "Sex quam

elegantissimæ epistolæ," letters which passed between Pope Sixtus IV. and the Republic of Venice in 1482-83. Edited in England by an Italian priest, they were printed by Caxton in 1483. By this acquisition "the number of Caxton's known publications not to be found in his own country has been reduced to two."

There has recently been an interesting find of Luther MSS. in the town library of Zwickau, Saxony. Among them are numerous sermons preached as early as 1512 and reported by his friends. This was when his views upon justification by faith were beginning to take shape, and they are said to show very vividly the workings of his mind and conscience at that time. Earlier than these are notes in Luther's own handwriting on Augustine, Peter Lombard, and Tauler. There are also notes of a course of lectures delivered at Wittenberg in 1516 on the Book of Judges. Some of these documents have already been published.

From an article in the Milan *Perseveranza* of Sept. 26 it appears that the introduction of compulsory gymnastics in the secondary schools has not been attended with success, and that medical certificates of disability are readily obtained in too great numbers. It occurs to the editor that the element of amusement and recreation must be sought after, and he holds up the English games and sports for emulation, just as the French reformers are now doing. He would thus supplement the gymnastics, not abolish them.

It is significant of the professional recognition which women physicians have attained to in Great Britain, that, for the first time since its inception in 1874, an account of the London School of Medicine for Women appears in the student's number of the *Lancet*, for the current season of 1891-92. This leading but conservative medical journal describes this admirable school for women in its list of "those metropolitan schools that have a complete curriculum, and give a medical education capable of enabling their students to present themselves to all the examining boards that give licenses to practise medicine and surgery."

Another magazine is, together with the *Overland Monthly*, to afford expression to the writers of the Pacific Coast. The *Californian Illustrated Magazine* is published in Los Angeles. For its illustrations it depends wholly (so far) on "process" cuts. The most readable article is that on the Mount Wilson Railroad, a very great enterprise by which the astronomer and the tourist will both profit. Dr. Walter Lindley begins a series of articles on the climatic conditions of the Pacific Coast. We must also mention, for text and illustrations, the paper on the Desert Sea—the Salton Sea in the Colorado Desert—which was the sensation of the day a few months ago. A map and photographic views greatly aid the narrative.

—The current issue of the *American Journal of Science* contains in full the highly suggestive Presidential address delivered before the American Association, in August last, by Dr. George L. Goodale of Harvard, on "Some of the Possibilities of Economic Botany." Dr. Goodale had lately returned from the meeting of the Australian Association for the Advancement of Science at Christchurch, New Zealand, at which he represented the American body, and his preliminary remarks dealt with this interesting gathering. He next compared the total number of species of plants known to botanical science or probably existing—upwards of 110,000—with that of plants and trees either cultivated for their multifarious properties or utilized in their wild state; the latter being less than one per cent. of the former. The question arises whether there is any probability of important additions to our short list of vegetables, fruits, cereals, fibres, dyes, flavors, drugs. Prof. Goodale traced the history of our present cereals, and estimated that if a universal blight should overtake them, and them alone, our experiment stations could, from those left untouched, develop equivalents in half a century; and he named the wild rice of the lakes and some seashore grains as already worthy of experiment. Taking up vegetables, he enumerated the clearly distinguishable varieties of our commonest, which are surprisingly many, and quoted from Vilmorin a most striking illustration, in the case of the cabbage, of the range of variation and obscurity of indications as to the available possibilities of the wild plant. The progress of the tomato from the highlands of Peru furnished another instance. From Japan Prof. Goodale thinks we may borrow certain beans and roots and salads. What he had to say as to fruits was most captivating in the hope held out of eventually raising seedless berries and grapes, coreless apples and pears, stoneless cherries and plums, propagated by bud division as in the case of bananas and pineapples. In this department, too, Japan will help us out. The address closed with an indication of the way in which promising plants should be systematically investigated under exhaustive conditions, in the interest of commercial botany. Dr. Goodale bespeaks the communication of "any facts of interest regarding the local or exceptional uses of any plants, especially of those wild plants which have not yet found a place in the economic lists."

—The interest in Celtic folk-lore seems to be on the increase, and, thanks to the researches of H. Zimmer, a firm footing has been gained for the study of certain cycles. One of these is the Finn cycle, and a number of interesting tales clustering around it have recently been published in the third volume of the Argyllshire Series of 'Waifs and Strays of Celtic Tradition,' edited by Lord Archibald Campbell (London: David Nutt). The first volume of the series contained 'Craignish Tales,' by the same collector, and the second was 'Folk and Hero Tales,' by the Rev. D. MacInness (one of the publications of the English Folk-Lore Society). In these volumes the original Gaelic text is given with a translation and notes by Mr. Alfred Nutt. The stories themselves are extremely interesting, and those relating to Finn have a certain epic grandeur. As we have already remarked apropos of Celtic popular tales, they afford the usual themes found in the tales of other countries, but the connection is so loose and irregular that few close parallels can be given. An interesting example is found in the present collection, p. 145: "A Tale of the Son of the King of Ireland and the Daughter of the King of the Red Cap." The theme is the quest of the Swan-Maiden Bride, with which is combined the kiss taboo, etc., but the arrangement of the episodes makes it impossible to cite any close parallel. So also with (p. 222) "A Tale of the Son of the Knight of the Green Vesture," in which occurs the theme of the Grimm story of "Donkey Cabbages." Mr. Nutt's introduction is a sensible view of the various theories of folk-lore, and the collector has appended many valuable notes.

—The results of recent researches in Bible lands are so widely scattered in books and periodicals, and so often inaccessible to the general reader, that Mr. George St. Clair must be considered to have done the public a great service in collecting them in his 'Buried Cities and Bible Countries' (Thomas Whittaker). As lecturer for the Palestine Exploration Fund, he has had special opportunity and occasion to get correct information, and his book has the great recommendation of being trustworthy in its statements of recent discoveries. The greater part of his space is devoted to Palestine, though he has much to say of Egypt and Mesopotamia. The reader will here find a good account of the extraordinary discovery of mummies in 1881, of the excavations of Mr. Petrie and M. Naville, of the astonishing revelation made by the El-Amarna cuneiform tablets found in 1887, of the work done in Jerusalem by Warren and his assistants, of the geographical surveys of Conder, Merrill, and others, of Mr. Petrie's investigation of the site of ancient Lachish (1890), and of the explorations in Babylonia and Assyria. This last is the least satisfactory portion of the book, omitting, for example, the mention of the Cyrus tablets, which throw such a flood of light on the character and policy of that monarch. Mr. St. Clair holds to the literal historical accuracy of the narratives in Genesis and Exodus, and assumes a good deal that the historical facts do not warrant; his main interest in the discoveries he details is based on the illustrations they give of the Bible history, and these illustrations he is everywhere concerned to bring out. He assumes Joseph's Egyptian career and the realness of the oppression, but he gives no Egyptian evidence in their favor. This feature of the book does not, however, diminish the value of its archæological information; it is undoubtedly one of the most interesting and useful of recent publications in this field. It may be mentioned that the author holds that Amenhotep IV., the last king of the eighteenth dynasty (who is supposed to have been under Semitic influence), was the last favorer of the Hebrews, and that the "new King who knew not Joseph" was Ramses I., the first king of the nineteenth dynasty. Good lists of authorities are appended to the various sections, and the printing (done in Edinburgh) is excellent.

—It is very good news that M. Alphonse Daudet, whose ill-health during the last few years has given his friends cause for grave apprehensions, has come back to Paris after a long season in the country, full of literary activity. He is busy in finishing two plays, the title of one of which, 'Soutien de Famille,' gives a clear glimpse at its character. The other is a pastoral, of the sort of 'L'Arlésienne,' "sans farandoles, mais toute de fièvre," and, as Daudet says, "en demi-larmes." The pastoral will be given at the Odéon. As to the other play, the only thing settled about it is that it will not be offered to the Comédie Française, nor played there. Since 'L'Arlésienne' was refused at that theatre, Daudet has sworn that no other of his pieces shall ever be represented there, and he has taken toward the Rue Richelieu the same attitude that he maintains toward the French Academy. Besides these plays, he has just finished a short novel, of a couple of hundred pages only, the theme of which, "enfants dans le divorce," seems to forebode more heart-wringing of the sort that was accomplished by 'Jack.' There is also another novel nearly done, 'La Caravane,' a long work, which is said to have given Daudet much trouble in the making. Still another book, which was announced several years ago under the title of 'Mes Douleurs,' is yet upon the stocks with its name changed to 'La Doulou.' Daudet says that he works upon this every day, since he suffers every day, but that he probably will never publish

it. Perhaps it is better that the world shall miss the poignant spectacle of the sufferings of a keen mind and a good heart.

—The controversy excited some ten years ago by the publication of Prof. Bugge's studies on the origin of the Norse sagas shows no signs of abatement. Most of the older Germanists still reject the views of the Norwegian professor, and the venerable but fiery Dr. Sepp of Munich does not hesitate to denounce this attack on the genuineness and integrity of the Edda as "an outrage on the national religion," and a sacrilege sufficient to kindle the wrath of the manes of Jacob Grimm. The younger generation of Germanists discuss the difficult questions involved more calmly and dispassionately, and are inclined, for the most part, to accept Bugge's conclusions. At any rate, they have the immense advantage of perceiving that scientific problems cannot be solved, but are rather obscured, by vituperation. Among the latest and most important contributions to the subject are Dr. Mogk's 'Abriss der deutschen Mythologie,' a portion of which has already appeared in Paul's 'Grundriss der germanischen Philologie' (vol. i., pp. 982, sqq.), and E. H. Meyer's 'Völuspá' (Berlin: Meyer & Müller, 1889, pp. 298), and 'Die eddische Kosmogonie' (Freiburg i. B.: Mohr, 1891, pp. 118). Meyer maintains that the 'Völuspá' is of foreign origin, and paraphrases in the popular style of the sagas the theological notions current in the Middle Ages concerning the genesis of things, and that it was written by the Icelander Sæmund early in the twelfth century. Of course he does not affirm that these ideas concerning the creation of the world and its final destruction are originally and exclusively Christian: they are common to the traditions and speculations of all the nations of antiquity, and can be traced back to the Assyro-Babylonian cosmogony as their primitive source. All that he asserts is, that they came into Iceland as the result of the Christianization of that country through the school at Oddi, of which Sæmund was the head and through which Snorri Sturluson borrowed the cosmogonic and mythological conceptions embodied in the so-called Snorra Edda. Thus, for example, he regards the Norse trinity of Odhin, Vili, and Vé as an imitation of the Christian Trinity of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, and thinks that this is evident from the etymology of the names and the mutual relations of the three persons.

MACHIAVELLI'S PRINCE.

Il Principe. By Niccolò Machiavelli. Edited by L. Arthur Burd, with an introduction by Lord Acton. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891. Pp. xl, 403.

It is with equal pleasure and surprise that we welcome this admirable edition of a great Italian classic from the hands of an Englishman hitherto unknown to us; for English scholars are still somewhat negligent of Continental masterpieces, often devoting their critical talents to the study of a third-rate Latin or Greek author rather than to a first-rate modern. But Mr. Burd's edition of 'The Prince' is not only remarkable as being the work of an Englishman, but as being the edition for which the world has been looking for three hundred and fifty years. He has at last made it possible for any reader to form an unprejudiced opinion of the meaning of Machiavelli's famous treatise. With all the patience, industry, and research of a German, he has collected his materials, and he has set them forth with a clearness and terseness to which but few Germans attain. The service which he has thus rendered must be as permanent as is the interest of 'The Prince' itself, for he has at last moored to the solid rock of fact that work which has, during ten generations, been drifting to and fro on the conflicting tides of opinion. How important this achievement is hardly needs to be explained here, because every one who knows anything about Machiavelli knows that, as the ablest exponent of one of the great theories of political authority and ethics, he has not been and cannot be superseded. Machiavellianism is an element which human society has not eliminated, a force whose working can be as clearly traced to-day as in the days of the Borgias.

Regarded as an artistic creation, Machiavelli's Prince has had no peer in modern literature except Goethe's Mephistopheles; the former is the personification of the selfishness of a State, as the latter is of the selfishness of the individual who denies all obligations to God or man, and seeks only to gratify his passions, whatever may be the injury he inflicts on his fellows. But Machiavelli had no poet's creation in view when he drew his portrait of the Prince; his aim was intensely practical, and he trusted to observation, to facts, not to sentiment or imagination, for the substance of his work. Seeing Italy harassed by a multitude of petty tyrants, and constantly overrun by foreign invaders, he believed that her only hope lay in the expulsion of the "barbarians," and in the gradual consolidation of her distracted provinces under the sway of one ruler. But what sort of a man must such a ruler be? What are the means by which princes acquire and hold States? These are the questions Machiavelli asks himself, and to find answers to them he examines the actual methods and characteristics of the princes of his own and former ages. He discovers that not devotion to the common weal, but to self-interest, not justice but success, not right but might, are the great forces and considerations which determine the actions of monarchs. Therefore, a prince who would succeed must excel his rivals in the employment of craft or cruelty; morals no more concern him than they concern a general in battle; his one duty is to conquer, and, if he conquer, victory excuses all his crimes. Indeed, the Prince (or State) cannot truly be said to commit crimes, being a law unto himself. "I do not describe what ought to be, but what is," Machiavelli would retort to his critics. "You may prefer a world which you would call more moral, but this is the world in which we are placed, these are the tricks and forces which dominate it. It is as idle to complain that a monster like Alexander VI. occupies the chair of St. Peter, or that ruffians like the Sforza lord it over Lombardy, as that water runs down hill. The facts are as I have stated them: strength prevails over weakness though the strong man be wicked and the weak be virtuous; shrewdness and guile impose upon simplicity; it is not a question as to which is ideally worthier, but as to which succeeds."

The best proof of the accuracy of Machiavelli's portrait is the storm of abuse that it provoked. He had blabbed an open secret, and from both princes and peoples came an indignant denial. The former protested that they were not the villains, the latter that they were not the fools, he painted them. They branded him as a blasphemer of human nature, as a cynic and reprobate who imputed to mankind the basest motives. His enemies, not content with assailing his maxims, loaded his memory with evil insinuations that he was personally a depraved man—as if to imply that his horrid opinions were the natural outcome of his life. Even his apologists dared not defend the literal interpretation of his treatise, but they insisted that it had a hidden meaning which justified it and exonerated its author. Cardinal Pole, one of the earliest and most virulent of Machiavelli's critics, states that when he attacked 'The Prince' before Machiavelli's fellow-citizens, they always replied,

"as they said M. himself did, . . . that in the book he had regard not only to his own feeling, but also to that of the man to whom he was writing. Now this man [Lorenzo di Piero de' Medici] he knew for a tyrant by nature, and so he put in things which could not fail to please such a nature exceedingly. Still he, like every other writer on the education of a king or prince, was of opinion, and experience verifies it, that these very things would, if carried out in practice, make the tyrant's reign a short one. Now this was exactly what he desired, for his heart was all afire with hatred of the Prince to whom he wrote, and he had no other object in the book except this—by writing to a tyrant things which a tyrant loves, to hurl him, if possible, headlong to self-destruction."

Another school of defenders maintained that Machiavelli did not so much aim at hastening the downfall of princes by instigating them, by his disingenuous counsel, to commit fatal blunders, as to put in the minds of the people a knowledge of the cunning by which they had been duped, in order that they might thenceforth be duped no more. This latter, which we may call the "antidote theory," since, according to its advocates, Machiavelli, in describing the effects of political poisons, suggested their remedy, has been, on the whole, the most popular of all the various apologies; and it is worth recording that the Italians, during their long struggle to oust the Austrian "barbarian" and to shake off their native despots during the present century, quoted, after Dante, none of their bygone great men more often than Machiavelli. But, on the other hand, the army of his enemies, large from the first, have kept up a persistent fire down to the present time, varying their points of attack and adopting different weapons, but holding fast to their detestation of "Old Nick." To abominate him and his doctrines has long been an easy way to win reputation for superior virtue; but might it not be cited as evidence of the skill with which Machiavelli dissected human nature? It is significant that the Company of Jesus, which has persistently followed the teachings of 'The Prince,' and that Frederick the Great, a Machiavellian monarch if ever there was one, have been among the loudest to denounce and deny their master. The attitude of the world towards Machiavelli reminds us of that of a camp meeting at which the revivalist preacher requests those of his hearers who hate the devil to stand up—and all rise.

But this is not the place in which to record and examine the great mass of prejudices and opinions which have, for three centuries and a half, prevented 'The Prince' from being dispassionately viewed; merely to indicate them will suffice for our present purpose, which is to express deep satisfaction that, with the publication of Mr. Burd's book, any excuse for misconceptions in the future is removed. He indulges in no empty or Pharisaical abuse, he does not hold up his hands in holy horror, nor believe that by declaring that he detests lying and killing he has "answered" Machiavelli. Wisely leaving the Ten Commandments to defend themselves, he aims simply at giving the reader every possible help to understand exactly what Machiavelli meant, and he does this by furnishing ample historical information about the period in which the Florentine

Secretary lived, and by elucidating 'The Prince' with quotations from Machiavelli's other works. Thus we are able to see how much of Machiavelli's doctrine was common to his time, and how much was peculiar to himself, and to estimate his work as a whole, instead of in fragments. Hitherto, it has been too much the habit of critics to pick out a few obnoxious sentences and to direct their whole attention to them; Mr. Burd makes it possible for any one to know which opinions Machiavelli elsewhere qualified, which he abandoned, and which he held to the end of his life.

Instead of writing a formal biographical and critical introduction, Mr. Burd limits himself to a brief statement of the purpose of 'The Prince,' of the conditions under which it was produced, and of the attitude of early critics towards it; then, in a copious Historical Abstract, he sets down year by year the principal events in Italian politics and in Machiavelli's personal fortunes, between 1469 and 1527. By this last plan the reader can turn quickly from any passage in 'The Prince,' in which contemporary affairs are alluded to, and find a succinct narrative of them; this is all the more important because Machiavelli draws from the current affairs of his day most of the illustrations for his doctrines. Mr. Burd's knowledge of the history of Medicean Italy will best be appreciated by those who have themselves studied the Renaissance most thoroughly. It is rare indeed to come upon so comprehensive a summary of any epoch as that on pp. 23-26, in which the condition of decaying Italy is described with great force and compactness; and many of the notes, as, for instance, the short prefaces to chaps. 3 and 18, and the note on Cæsar Borgia (pp. 214-217), are models of what the best editorial work should be.

The key to Mr. Burd's own attitude towards 'The Prince,' and, as we firmly believe, the true one, is contained in the following passage (p. 16):

"In modern times hardly any science of which the subject-matter is man, viewed under one aspect singled out from many others, has been brave enough to neglect the other points of view from which man may be regarded. Political Economy is the classical exception; and it is characteristic of modern feeling that there should be so much opposition to those who choose to regard men solely as creatures under the laws of supply and demand; and the belief that to disregard moral causes which influence even commercial action vitiates the conclusions of political economists, is in a measure justified. The same holds good of political science: any attempt to reckon without the sentiments and permanent moral convictions of men is doomed beforehand to failure. But there may be a moral interest in eliminating one side of human nature, the most capricious and the least subject to law, in order to trace the operations of cause and effect, assuming that no disturbing agencies will be present.

"Machiavelli, in 'The Prince,' has eliminated sentiment and morality, though the interest to him was not merely scientific, but practical also; he did so partly deliberately and partly without any distinct consciousness that he was mutilating human nature. But whatever considerations determined the method he employed, he followed it without swerving, consistently and logically. . . . Whether by thus considering only one aspect of human nature at a time he has vitiated his own conclusions, or whether this is rather the condition upon which alone he could solve the problem which he set himself, may be doubted; but it would be unfair in any case to argue from his silence and his omissions that he had lost the consciousness that man might be regarded as a moral being; he merely declined to allow moral considerations to interfere, as he believed they did, with the logical discussion of the subject in hand."

Readers who are acquainted with Lord Acton's great erudition and ability, and who have cause to regret that he so seldom displays them in print, will turn at once to his Introduction, and will probably be disappointed by it, at least at first. For instead of its being a criticism by Lord Acton upon so remarkable a personage as Machiavelli, it is rather a collection, gathered from the most various and recondite sources, of the opinions which philosophers, politicians, and theologians have expressed on Machiavelli and Machiavellianism during the past three hundred years. Only the cement in which these mosaic-bits are embedded is Lord Acton's own, but from the design he has wrought, and from his brief comments, we can infer what his own views are. He would maintain that Machiavelli's account of the practice of rulers and states is in the main correct; that, whatever may be the talk about moral considerations, self-interest really determines international policy, and that the cases in which an unselfish motive has prevailed are few compared with the habitual employment of Machiavellian principles.

On the surface we are easy-going optimists, whatever may be our inmost genuine convictions, and either we strive not to see the evil forces by which we are hemmed in, or we call them by pleasant names. We assume that many of the enormities which shock us as we look back upon the past, perished with the past. But it is better to know the truth than to dream in a Fool's Paradise, for, until we have measured an abuse, we cannot successfully combat it. And Machiavelli's 'Prince' is one of the books which should be read and pondered by every man who would see some of the aims and methods that have characterized the dealings of states and rulers since the beginning of history. The form which Machiavellianism assumes may vary, but its essence remains fixed. Europe to-day is as much under the sway of selfish principles as Italy was at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The belief that might makes right, that there is no appeal from brute force, that the State can do no wrong, that success justifies all measures, and that weakness is the only failure, the only unpardonable sin—these are so easily deducible from the current practice of European nations that we need do no more than mention them; and these are true Machiavellian doctrines. We are shocked at the name, but not at the thing. Metternich, Louis Napoleon, Bismarck, Beaconsfield—be the result of their policy good or bad—were all practical disciples of the Florentine master of statecraft; and as evidence that under a republican form of government human nature does not change, we need only cite the success of such vulgar and clumsy Machiavellians as Butler, Blaine, and Quay. Their success is the best evidence that our public would be benefited by reading 'The Prince,' in which are set down, as in a scientific treatise, the signs by which the political charlatan can be detected and so guarded against. Of course, Machiavelli no more invented the traits which are called by his name than Goethe invented those traits in human nature which he personified in Mephistopheles; to have analyzed and described them as he has done assures for him and his book the permanent attention of students of politics and ethics. "Religion, progressive enlightenment, the perpetual vigilance of public opinion, have not," says Lord Acton, "reduced his empire, or disproved the justice of his conception of mankind. He obtains a new lease of authority from causes that are still prevailing, and from doctrines that are apparent in politics, philosophy, and science. Without sparing censure or employing for comparison the grosser symptoms of the age, we find him near our common level, and perceive that he is not a vanishing type, but a constant and contemporary influence."

ROBINSON'S CAST CATALOGUE.

Boston Museum of Fine Arts. Catalogue of Casts. Part III. Greek and Roman Sculpture. By Edward Robinson, Curator of Classical Antiquities. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

Among the many advantages which large collections of casts afford to the study of ancient art, one of the most conspicuous is the opportunity they offer for the compilation of scientific catalogues, embodying in chronological sequence the principal monuments of Oriental, Greek, and Greco-Roman sculpture. Such books or manuals are superior to systematic histories of art in one particular, namely: they deal almost exclusively with facts and leave very little room for theories. When antiquated, they require supplements, but do not need to be completely rewritten, as should be, for instance, Overbeck's 'Geschichte der Plastik,' the third edition of which (1881) is now so strikingly out of date. Archæological literature already possesses several good catalogues of that kind by Friederichs, Hettner, Kekulé, Blümner, Michaelis, and others; the first and the last, describing the large collections at Berlin and at Strassburg, are certainly the most useful and most widely known. Friederichs's great work, first issued in 1868, was reedited in 1885 by Wolters; the main defect of this new edition is lack of condensation, due to a somewhat superstitious regard for the original. The catalogue we owe to Prof. Michaelis (1887) is much shorter, but superior to the Berlin one by reason of the judicious selection of monuments all of real importance to the antiquarian; while the Berlin collection, like that in the École des Beaux-Arts at Paris, contains many casts which chance alone has brought together.

It is, indeed, an advantage for such collections to have been formed at a recent date, under the direction of an experienced archæologist; so in this particular the Boston Museum of Arts, begun in 1876, is inferior to none excepting the museums of Berlin, Paris, Strassburg, and perhaps Dresden. It now, moreover, enjoys the benefit of having a catalogue perfectly adequate to the requirements of modern science, more detailed than Michaelis's 'Verzeichniss,' less encumbered than Friederichs's 'Gypsabgüsse,' and as readable as it is reliable. The first edition, published in 1887, contained 414 numbers, the present one describes no less than 800, against 2,270 in Berlin, and 1,470 in Strassburg. Mr. Robinson, the curator of classical antiquities, has done his work very thoroughly; his descriptions of the most important items, such as the Lycian marbles, the sculptures from Olympia and the Parthenon, the Niobides, the Laocoön, etc., are written in a quiet and sober tone, without the least touch of that unscientific *pathos* which Friederichs sometimes, and more recent archæologists too often, indulge in. The various information relating to each object is given in a most practical way—to begin with, the subject treated and the place where the original is preserved; then, in smaller type, the material (bronze, marble, etc.), the history of the work and mention of the collections it has belonged to, the restorations, and, finally, the publications, including only the more important references to archæological literature.

As the Boston collection is expected to increase very rapidly, the Catalogue will have to be reissued more than once. We hope that the following observations may prove of some use both to the Catalogue and to the Museum.

To begin with the Museum. The study of ancient Attic art is now based principally on the statues, in marble and in calcareous stone, which have lately come to light on the Acropolis. Casts of these statues do not exist, nor will the Greek Ephoria ever allow any to be taken, for fear of injuring the delicate coloring which adds so much to their value. But, on the other hand, a collection of casts cannot fairly represent the state of our knowledge without these most important relics of the old Attic and insular schools. The problem can be solved only by securing good copies of the statues which it is not possible to mould. Such copies, made under the superintendence of archæologists, would be quite the equivalents of casts, and far superior for study to any photographs, colored or not. It would be well worthy of the Boston Museum and of its generous supporters to take the initiative in having them made in Athens, while the members of the American School would certainly be glad to superintend and to control the work.

The second desideratum we should indicate refers to the sarcophagi. All collections of casts, not excepting that at Berlin, contain but very few samples of these sculptures, the high value of which is only just being recognized in the light of the admirable reliefs discovered at Sidon. These, of course, with their charming polychromy, cannot be cast, but must be copied—a task which a most distinguished sculptor would not find unworthy of his talent. But there are at least one hundred sarcophagi which can be cast without any inconvenience and at a comparatively small cost; a collection of them would be of the greatest interest and would form a prominent feature in a museum.

One more series would be, in our opinion, very profitable to students and to the art-loving public in general. It should comprise the minor bronze statues, which have not as yet received due attention in any museum. The identification and classification of such statuettes is now very difficult, owing to the small number of them which have been published and brought together. A set of two or three hundred casts, painted in dark green or blue, as they are in the Musée de Saint-Germain-en-Laye, could easily be collected in Paris, Berlin, and Naples; it would be the first step towards a much required *corpus*. Unfortunately, the British Museum allows no casts of its bronzes to be taken, but the day is certainly not far distant when that most absurd prohibition will be removed. A collection such as could be made within a few years would be quite unique, and, when published with the proper care, might illustrate many a dark corner in the history of ancient sculpture.

With regard to Mr. Robinson's Catalogue, our chief criticisms must bear on the references given at the beginning of every article. These references are introduced by the word *published*, which is used in a too broad sense. To have a monument engraved is one thing, and to describe or mention it is another, and these two kinds of "publications" should never be confused. Take, for instance, No. 540, the statuette of Aphrodite in the Museum at Argos. No engraving or photograph of it exists, so far as we know, but you nevertheless read in the Catalogue: "*Published*: Conze, in the *Arch. Anz.*; Milchhoefer, in the *Mitth. des Inst.*," etc., passages which, when examined, are found to contain only brief descriptions of the work. Thus a statue may very well be inedited and deserving publication (*stricto sensu*) without the reader of Mr. Robinson's Catalogue being able to ascertain that fact.

The reference should always be divided under two heads—(1) Engr (avings) and (2) Descr (iptions) or ment (ions). Again, we think that the corresponding numbers of the Friederichs-Wolters 'Gypsabgüsse' ought not to be indicated, as they are, at the end of the reference, but at the beginning, not *in extenso*, but in an abridged form, such as "F. W. No. 191" The 'Gypsabgüsse' giving the literature up to 1885 with sufficient completeness, the author of a more recent catalogue can, while referring to the German work, dispense with restating the greater number of old quotations, and lay more stress on recent publications which have appeared since 1885. Making a choice among many references is a difficult task, and requires much personal knowledge of antiquarian literature. Mr. Robinson has often done this very well, but in a few instances we cannot find that he has made the better choice. Whenever a photograph has been published in book form, it must be quoted preferably to all engravings. For instance, in the case of the Apollo of the Belvedere (No. 652), we should have referred to *Bollettino Commiss. Municipale di Roma*, 1889, plates xiii.-xiv., and not to Visconti, Müller-Wieseler, or Mitchell. Again, the only heliograph of the Melian Venus in conformity with its present appearance has been published in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, May 1, 1890, and should have been quoted under No. 539. In the same paragraph, Mr. Robinson refers to Goeler's book on the Venus, wherein he does rightly, but he should not have mentioned Ravaisson's pamphlet (1871), which has no permanent value, and contains many errors now acknowledged by the author himself. Haeberlin's 'Studien zur Aphrodite von Melos' (Goettingen, 1889) might have been quoted instead as a résumé of recent work on the subject. The references given to the Hermes of Olympia (No. 516) are now antiquated, all previous publications having been superseded by the splendid folio dedicated to Mr. Gladstone by Rhomaïdes (Athens, 1890), and we should have expected to find the title of one at least of the recent papers relating to the replica of the Hermes.

As a rule, it should be borne in mind that the true object of a reference is to refer the reader to a book or periodical where the questions bearing on some work of art are discussed at full length; therefore we think it proper to avoid quoting second and third-hand manuals, which can give but a few lines to the study of a single statue, and to mention instead original papers in magazines or special monographs. *A fortiori*, it is worse than useless to quote bad or rare works such as the 'Galleria Giustiniana' (No. 173), Laborde's 'Athènes' (No. 24), Knight's 'Arch of Titus' (No. 727), when plenty of other and better references are at hand. An archæologist, before quoting a book or an engraving, ought always to reflect if he would himself think of taking them up in case he needed further information. It is from this point of view that Mr. Robinson's references seem sometimes open to criticism.

Minor shortcomings in the Catalogue are very scarce. On p. 48, the lion gate of Mycenæ is said to be derived from a Phrygian model; the reverse is infinitely more probable. On p. 118, we should have called in question the genuineness of the Talleyrand Jupiter, or at least indicated that it has been largely remodelled. On p. 303, we remark that Mr. Robinson repeats the statement according to which the Apollo of the Belvedere was discovered at Antium, which has lately been proved to be erroneous. Pp. 324–327, the terracottas "formerly in the Campana collection" are now in the Louvre. On p. 50 and elsewhere, the periodical issued by the French School at Athens is styled 'Bulletin de *la* Correspondance Hellénique.' All these defects are very slight and easy to correct; they by no means impair the merit and usefulness of a work which will be gratefully received by all archæologists, by whom trustworthy books of reference are greatly needed.

Charles Grandison Finney. By G. Frederick Wright, D.D., LL.D., Professor in Oberlin Theological Seminary, Ohio. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

It means either a wide inclusion or a scarcity of good material, when a man of Finney's limited influence and imperfect character and training is one of those selected to figure in a series of American religious leaders. There could be no better evidence of his secular antecedents than his name, Charles Grandison. Pious Christian parents in Connecticut in 1792 would never have named a child after the hero of Richardson's novel. The story of his conversion is quite as remarkable as that of any of the more famous saints, and has much psychological interest, the visions that were palpable to him as things of touch being non-existent for others present. It is an interesting and instructive feature of Prof. Wright's treatment of Finney's conversion that he is disposed to minimize its supernatural character, of which Finney, in his autobiographical 'Memoirs,' made all he could. In several instances Prof. Wright finds himself obliged to check these 'Memoirs,' finding in them a good deal of reflection backward from the opinions of Finney's later life. He was already twenty-nine at the time of his conversion, and, though a leader of the choir, was thought to be past praying for by the minister. The morning after his conversion he turned away a client whose cause he had agreed to maintain in court, saying that "he had a retainer from the Lord Jesus to plead his cause" instead; but this bad beginning was not significant of any general lack of moral earnestness in his subsequent career.

His first successes as a revivalist were remarkable, and the account of them will have in it a surprise for many in the amount of opposition they aroused. Particulars of his method, which are now generally supposed to have descended from an immemorial antiquity, were regarded as startling innovations. Out of the criticism and opposition there came a convention at New Lebanon, N. Y., Prof. Wright's account of which is the most entertaining chapter in his book. There was sharp practice on both sides. Lyman Beecher, who came from Boston, breathing out threatenings and slaughter against Finney and his friends, allowed that they were full-grown men and not a company of boys. It being moved that females were not to pray in public meetings, Finney proposed the question whether a woman ought ever to pray in the presence of a man. A motion that the calling of persons by name in prayer should be avoided was successfully amended by making it read "public prayer," and the incorrigibles who had suffered under the former dispensation must have been relieved. "Audible groaning in prayer" was voted objectionable "on all ordinary occasions." The qualifying adjective was all

the party favorable to audible groaning could desire. The Convention was successful as a trial of wits, in which Finney's party came off more than conquerors in the main. At the next General Assembly the contestants signed a paper agreeing to speak and write no more about the matter.

The sphere of Finney's labors as a revivalist was much widened from this time (1828) until his removal to Oberlin in 1835. Prof. Wright gives a good account of Oberlin College, pathetic in its suggestions of the day of small things. The early direction of the movement depended more on Arthur Tappan than on any other person, and some pages are devoted to an account of his career and his relation to the anti-slavery cause. Although the beginnings of Oberlin were directly associated with the recreancy of Lyman Beecher and the anti-slavery revolt of his students from Lane Theological Seminary, it was apparently Finney's theological ability and not his anti-slavery sentiments that led to his Oberlin appointment. His anti-slavery sentiments were always subordinate to his theological spirit. He shared the fear of Tappan and the abolitionists of the new organization generally that abolitionism might work the disadvantage of their ecclesiastical system. It was, nevertheless, a brave thing, in 1834, to start a college giving men and women, white and black, an equal opportunity, though it is noticeable that the money for the start could not be got if negroes were excluded. This argument was very powerful with the Colonizationists, who were at first in the majority. It is difficult at this remove to see what should have suggested Finney as a fit person to fill the chair of theology. Of early education he had had but little; of special training in theology, next to none; and there is no evidence that his work at Oberlin had any scholarly quality. His early legal practice served him well, and he could argue effectively his theological tenets, and manipulate Bible texts to suit his purposes, much as he had his legal texts before. It was well for his peace of mind that he did not abandon his revivalist work. That was his joy and crown.

Prof. Wright gives a full account of his theological opinions, deriving them from the revised Calvinism of Dr. N. W. Taylor; but they had a good deal of personal accentuation. They were substantially the opinions of the New School Presbyterians, and Prof. Wright's volume derives not a little of its interest from the comparison which it continually suggests between the differences of Old School and New fifty years ago, and those which are now agitating the bosom of the Presbyterian Church. The reader finds himself wondering that the differences then could stir up so much feeling and produce a schism in the body.

It remains to hint the cardinal defect of Prof. Wright's book, viz., that it conveys to us no adequate sense of Finney's personality. There is much about the revivalist and theologian; little about the man. We are constrained to fear the man was buried out of sight under the revivalist and theologian; that he had little or no humanity to attract the pen of his biographer.

Across Russia from the Baltic to the Danube. By Charles Augustus Stoddard. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THE honor of contributing the latest volume to the library of what may be termed "Cook's tourist literature" belongs to Mr. Stoddard. Were it not for the infinite possibilities contained in this sort of composition, one might pronounce at once that this specimen will never be excelled. For the present, at least, it stands at the head of the mosaic department.

The author begins his Russian trip with descriptions of Sweden, but it is not necessary to note his utterances until he touches what is, nominally, Russian soil, in Finland. As the national name for that country is totally different, it is etymologically interesting to read that it is derived from "Fenland," the land of lakes and marshes, in English. Why not make a bold dash and say that it comes from *finik*, the Russian for a date tree, because dates may have thrived there when the mammoth roamed the Siberian wilds? However, we may accept the author's dictum on that subject as readily as on the next few points: that the Finnish language is different from all others in Europe, that *vodki* is a Finnish word, or that the legend which he quotes from a Russian book of the peewit, with its purely Russian cry of *peet*, is distinctively Finnish.

Mr. Stoddard's plan has the merit of simplicity. He has read Rambaud's 'History of Russia,' the ordinary guide-books, and whatever published works have come to hand, and has copied them verbatim, in fragments, often very roughly welded, and intermixed with superficial observations of his own. In many instances he acknowledges his authorities. In others he does not, and copies inaccurately. The trail of the guide-book is over it all, including the style. It is hardly necessary to state that the author could not make many original, accurate, or valuable personal surveys in the ten days or fortnight which he seems to have devoted to the vast empire, where he was dependent upon the information vouchsafed by foreign guides, who must have been nearly as ignorant of the language as himself, judging from the results.

It is impossible to enter into minute detail as to all the errors, but a few may be indicated, chiefly by negatives. A change of rooms in the hotel does *not* require a fresh visé on the passport. Servants do not have to pay six rubles for passports. Cronstadt houses are not all of one story. The apothecary never has a painting of pills on his sign. The droshky has a defence against the mud and dirt, and the driver's coat has not gathers at the neck. The Winter Palace does not curve around an immense open space. The imperial lackeys did not take the hats and coats of the travellers for the sake of increasing the fee—it was in compliance with the comfortable and healthy Russian custom of removing all outdoor garments in the house—and the guide probably pocketed what he pretended to give to the librarian at the Imperial Library. The gold and silver dishes in the Winter Palace ball-room were not presented by the towns and cities of Europe. Each step of the porticos at St. Isaac's Cathedral is not made of a single block of granite. The omophorion is not a robe. The paragraph on page 85, in regard to the dearth of books and periodicals, and the small stock of the book shops in St. Petersburg, betrays lack of the most ordinary observation. The remarks on beds might have been omitted, since the writer evidently never entered a Russian house, and was obliged to quote a person equally ignorant. Again, any one in the least acquainted with the baptismal service in the Russian Church would have perceived the absurdity of the statement that infants are baptised in the frozen Neva in the middle of January. But if people will persist in writing books about the manners and customs of the Russians in winter, and the habits of the upper classes, whom they see in summer trips no more than foreigners see wealthy Americans in New York in August, they must endure the consequences of their folly. The Nikolai bridge is not the only permanent bridge over the Neva. *Kvas* is not made of barley meal, salt, and honey, any more than cabbage soup (*shtshee*) is made according to the receipt furnished. *Botvinya*, also, is not a "fish salad." The upper story of the St. Petersburg Bazaar is not devoted to wholesale, and the merchants do not tend shop in winter clad in wolf-skin and bear-skin coats. The author assuredly never saw feather beds at any season or fur coats in summer on the platforms of the railway stations, and when he compares the brass basin and pitcher ablutions (to be found only on one route) with the "generous bath-tub of England or America," it is not out of place to inquire where bath-tubs are provided for the traveller in the countries named, except in private cars? The picture of the Archbishop walking round the church on his knees, on Easter night, is as curious as the title of "The Virgin's Rest" for the Assumption Cathedral in the Moscow Kremlin, the idea that Sophia Palæologus brought the ceremonials of the Greek Church to Moscow when she married Ivan III., and that the Tzesarevitch Dmitry (who was murdered in Uglitch, as the weakest historical student is aware) was thrown down the Red Staircase of the Kremlin Palace by his assassins. The assumption that Russian women of the present day are strictly secluded in Eastern fashion, simply because the traveller did not see many in the Moscow streets at the dead season of the year, is as gratuitous as that the nurses of the Foundling Asylum were ranged in order to receive the tourists.

There are plenty of other similar misstatements, which it is not worth while to chronicle here. One of the puzzles of the book is why the author has not described in his own words the things which struck him forcibly, instead of quoting Théophile Gautier and various travellers as hasty as himself. In fact, the book might have been much more cheaply pieced together in the author's study, so far as any value of personal experience or judgment is concerned, with one or two trivial exceptions. Yet personal observation and experience furnish the excuse for this wonderful piece of patchwork by a hand which is unskilled in literary work. The historical parts, again, which chance to be correct, are so ill-arranged that the uninitiated reader, for whom the book is prepared, must frequently feel himself at a loss to discover the connection and sequence of events. The same is true of the arrangement of the other statements, which traverse vast distances with seven-league boots, and flit about erratically without the slightest indication of locality, so that the result is not only confusing, but productive of false deductions.

The journey to Warsaw and as far as Buda-Pesth is narrated in the same objectionable form. People who desire knowledge on the subject of Russia will do well to abstain from this volume and betake themselves to Rambaud, and Haxthausen, and the guide-books (with all their imperfections) direct. The task will be longer, but there will be some solid outcome of the labor, which cannot be urged in favor of this superfluous production.

Fossil Botany: Being an Introduction to Palæophytology from the standpoint of the botanist. By H. Graf zu Solms-Laubach, Professor in the University of Göttingen. The authorized English Translation, by Henry E. F. Garnsley, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. Revised by

Isaac Bayley Balfour, M.A., M.D., F.R.S., Queen's Botanist in Scotland, etc., etc. With forty-nine illustrations. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xii, 401.

UNTIL within a few years, Palæophytology as a science has been in a far more unsatisfactory and rudimentary condition than its companion science of Palæontology. The most evident reasons for this comparative inferiority are, first, that vegetable tissues are far more perishable than the shells of molluscs and crustaceans and the bones of vertebrate animals, and consequently such remains of the vegetation of the Devonian and Carboniferous ages as have been found do not at first sight reveal the nature of the plant as clearly as shells and bones reveal the animal; and, in the next place, as we have but slowly learned, these ancient plants must have differed from recent vegetation far more, on the average, than palæozoic animals differed from animals now living. It is true that if angiosperms were lacking in the primeval ages, not less were mammalia not yet produced; but the coal-plants certainly were less like modern gymnosperms and acrogens than were the ancient radiates and molluscs like those of the present age. Consequently, as botanists had enough to do with present vegetation, they gave generally but little attention to the vegetation of the coal measures, and those who, like Brongniart, actually undertook their study, found that only their most general conclusions were acceptable to the students of living plants. In later years, thanks especially to the newer processes of microscopic lithoscopy, the real structure of ancient plants has become far better understood, and the true character of carboniferous Ferns, Lepidodendreæ, Sigillarieæ, etc., is now becoming daily better known.

While the distinguished author of the present work modestly calls it an Introduction to Palæophytology, it is really a well-digested and condensed summary of what is now known of this science. The work deals only with the Gymnosperms and plants below them in rank, the Angiosperms not being taken up, apparently for the very good reason that as they first appeared during the Cretaceous period, they do not come within the view of palæophytology as it is limited in the present work. Count Solms-Laubach has long been acknowledged as very high authority in this department of learning; and it is a fortunate thing for English readers that his investigations and conclusions are now put fairly within their reach.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Agnew, Cora. Peerless Cathleen. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Akers, Elizabeth. The High-Top Sweeting, and Other Poems. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Allen, Grant. Dumaresq's Daughter. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Barnes, Mary S. Studies in American History. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Barrett, Frank. Olga's Crime. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Balmaseda, Francisco J. El Libro de los Labradores. Havana: Imprenta Nacional y Extrangera.
Baynes, Herbert. Dante and his Ideal. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Berdoe, Edward. Browning's Message to his Time. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Bergen, Fanny D. Glimpses at the Plant World. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75 cents.
Bigelow, M. M. Elements of the Law of Torts. 4th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
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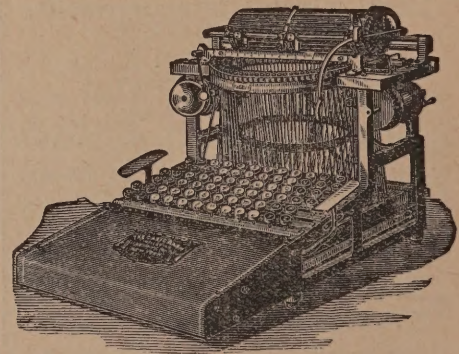

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 29, 1891.

The Week.

So many people are making figures over the coming election in this State that a recurrence to facts may be useful, and may save some over-confident persons their money. In 1883 all of the Democratic State ticket was elected by about 16,000 plurality, except the Secretary of State. For this office Carr (Rep.) was elected by 18,583 plurality. In 1884 Cleveland (Dem) received the electoral vote of the State by 1,047 plurality, and in 1888 Harrison (Rep) received it by 14,373 plurality. The elections other than Presidential since 1883 have all been carried by the Democrats, and by the following pluralities:

	Dem. Plurality.
1885—Governor	11,134
1886—Court of Appeals	7,797
1887—Secretary of State	17,077
1888—Governor	20,527
1889—Secretary of State	19,171
1890—Congress	75,646

The very large Democratic majority last year was due to the McKinley Bill. There is no evidence that that bill is a whit more acceptable to the people now than it was then. But, on the other hand, it is less conspicuous as an issue now. How much influence it will exercise on the present election it would be unsafe to predict, but it will be something, and it will be adverse to the Republicans. Probably the silver question will count for more than the tariff question in so far as national issues go; and here, too, Mr. Flower represents the better side, and will get most votes, his party having committed itself against all silver dollars that are not of the same intrinsic value as gold dollars. On the other side, Mr. Fassett has the advantage of the ballot-reform issue, and this might have given him enough votes to offset Mr. Flower's advantages on national issues if he had not presented himself in shirt-sleeves at the German meeting in the Bowery—not that this was anything bad in itself, but it was one of those small things that enable the public to "size up" a candidate.

It is difficult to see how Mr. Flower's carefully deliberated letter on the blanket-ballot issue has bettered his position. He was asked to say directly whether or not he was in favor of a blanket-ballot amendment. He declines to answer directly, taking refuge in the statement that "if the public sentiment of our State shall favor any proper extension or amendment of the Ballot Law, I shall, if elected Governor, feel bound to support it." This is the kind of answer known in political literature as a "dodge" or "straddle." It means nothing whatever as to Mr. Flower's course, were he to be elected Governor; and were a blanket-ballot amendment to be sent to him by the Legislature for approval, he could say that he did not consider that a "proper" amendment, and his pledge would not be broken. It was perfectly easy for him to answer the Municipal League question in unmistakable language. Mr. Fassett's response shows this plainly enough. He says: "I am not only now in favor of a genuine Australian blanket ballot, such as you describe, in its essential features, but I was so at the time 51,000 citizens petitioned our Legislature for such a reform; and I shall continue to favor the same whether elected or not." There is no doubt whatever about what that means.

We feel quite sure that Mr. Andrew D. White could show the Republicans that he is not disgruntled because he was not nominated for Governor of New York, with far less outlay than he is now making. In his speech on Saturday night, in the Cooper Institute, he might, without the slightest risk, have spared himself the following bit of dithyramb:

"As regards the foreign policy of this Administration there is no thinking man who will deny, no pessimist so cynical, no alarmist so severe, who has not in his heart to acknowledge that the foreign interests of the United States on every sea and on every shore are safe in the hands of our Republican Secretary of State, James G. Blaine."

As Mr. White is known to be an educated man and ex-diplomat and ex-College President, a large number of the "thinking men," as well as the cynics and pessimists and alarmists, will, we fear, think "in their hearts" that he either did not believe this or did not know exactly what he meant when he said it. The trouble with nearly all our "scholars and gentlemen" who have set out to be "good Republicans" is, that, to use a commercial simile, they never get in on the ground floor. They are always admitted in the fifth story, where they pay the top of the market for their stock, and it is generally common stock at that.

The campaign in Massachusetts is fought on national issues mainly, and of these the silver question appears to be the most prominent. It is argued by the supporters of Gov. Russell that if Massachusetts is lost to the Democrats this year, the result will give the free-coinage party in other sections of the country a great impetus, and probably enable them to pass a free-coinage bill this winter, whereas, if Gov. Russell is re-elected on the anti-silver platform, the result will be an equally decisive set-back to the silver-men, and will prevent any bad legislation by the new Congress. The platform on which Gov. Russell was nominated declares that all dollars coined by the United States should be of equal intrinsic value, and that the present law increasing the Government purchases of silver two and one-half times the former amount, and compelling the Government to buy seven tons of silver bullion every working day in the year, "is a menace to the maintenance of a sound and stable currency, and threatens, if not repealed, to derange values, impair the obligation of contracts, and to bring the currency of the country to a silver basis." This platform has put all the Republican politicians to their trumps to uphold the present law. Senator Hoar is, of course, strong for it, because it is a party measure. This is as it should be. The party passed the bill in order to hold the newly created States in the Republican column, and it must stick to the bill for the same reason.

The feature of the Iowa campaign is the announcement by many men of both the great national parties that they propose to vote against the candidates of their own party in the pending election, on the ground that this is a State contest, the chief issue in which—prohibition—has nothing to do with Federal politics. The Republican papers mention name after name of men who voted the Democratic ticket in the last Presidential election and expect to vote the same ticket in 1892, but who believe in the prohibitory law as the best method of dealing with the liquor problem, and will support the Republican candidates for Governor and members of the Legislature, because they are committed to the support of that law. On the other hand, many life-long Republicans will vote for the re-election of Gov. Boies and for Democratic candidates for the Legislature, because they are disgusted with the farce of prohibition and desire to see a local-option system substituted in its place. Among the latter class is James G. Day, who has been Chief Justice of the highest court and is one of the most influential men in the State.

Secretary Foster said in a very sober way in his speech at Findlay, Ohio, that he "had caused a search to be made of all manufactured articles upon which the duties had been increased by the McKinley Bill, and had found *only two articles* that have increased in price, and these were pearl buttons and corsets." One dry-goods store in Boston furnished Gov. Russell a list of 112 such articles on its own shelves and counters, showing that Secretary Foster's search was by no means exhaustive. On the subject of corsets, the Secretary waxed facetious, saying:

"I am grieved over the corset business because the increased price is objectionable to the ladies, causing them all to feel unkindly towards the gallant Maj. McKinley, but I can assure them that if they will possess their souls in patience, it will not be long till *Yankee ingenuity* will find a way to cheapen them, provided, always, that a substitute can be found for whalebone."

That "Yankee ingenuity" found a way to *increase* the price of corsets will be apparent to anybody who puts the old tariff and the McKinley tariff side by side. The old law ran in this way:

"324. Cotton cords, braids, gimps, galloons,

webbing, goring, suspenders, braces, and all manufactures of cotton not specially enumerated or provided for in this act, *and corsets of whatever material composed*, 35 per centum ad valorem."

In the McKinley tariff the words in italics were simply dropped out. The effect is to make corsets dutiable according to the material of which they are composed; that is, if they are of linen, they are taxed 55 per cent., of silk, 60 per cent., of cotton, 40 per cent. The Yankee who accomplished all this without debate, by simply crossing out a line, was certainly ingenious, but hardly more so than Mr. Foster himself, who could search the whole list of manufactures and find only two things that had advanced in price.

Secretary Foster's attempt in Ohio last week to show that the Treasury is perfectly overflowing with money was so surprisingly vague and evasive as really to confirm the suspicions on that subject, instead of allaying them. He again denied that he had issued orders to hold back payments on appropriations; yet he said nothing to explain the fact, as shown by the record of actual operations in the Treasury, that the payments for the first quarter of the current fiscal year were at least $40,000,000 less than the liability for that period on account of appropriations—the latter calling for $125,000,000 quarterly, while but $84,471,733 was actually paid out. Unless he is misreported in the *Tribune*, he made a bad blunder, or worse, in one statement. He said the Treasury paid $26,000,000 in pensions last June "without any inconvenience whatever." As a matter of fact, the Treasury paid out in June on account of pensions the sum of $18,721,585. We believe he told the truth in saying that about $26 000,000 were due on pensions; but the fact that about $7,250,000 had to go unpaid for lack of funds, would seem to prove that there was "inconvenience" somewhere.

The Georgia Legislature, which has just adjourned, was controlled absolutely by the Farmers' Alliance, and was elected upon the most profuse pledges of economy and retrenchment. Instead of carrying out these pledges, it has spent more money than any Legislature in the history of the State, with the result that the tax-rate is the highest ever known. This is of a piece with the performances of Alliance law-makers in Kansas and Nebraska. There has been much speculation as to the permanence of the Alliance movement. It is a waste of time to discuss the question. No party can long survive such a record as the Alliance has made wherever it has come into power.

Nobody will be surprised at the news that Quay's name has been connected by documentary evidence with that of Bardsley in the Keystone Bank rascalities. The evidence was produced in Harrisburg on Tuesday by the Attorney-General of Pennsylvania, who tried in vain to have it brought before the Senate. It consists of a Keystone National Bank certificate for $8,877, deposited by John Bardsley, November 29, 1889, payable to the order of himself, and signed by G. W. Marsh, cashier. It is endorsed: "Pay to order of M. S. Quay, John Bardsley," and under this endorsement appear Quay's signature and other endorsements, showing that Quay had the certificate cashed at his bank in Beaver, Penn., after which it travelled back through the Clearing-house to the Keystone Bank. Marsh, who signed the certificate as cashier, was afterwards the President of the Keystone Bank. As cashier and President he concealed the theft of Lucas, the former President, of $997,000 of the bank's funds. When the Keystone Bank investigation began, Marsh fled, forfeiting the $25,000 bail bond which John Wanamaker's brother had signed for him. The inference which is drawn from the certificate is, that the $8,877 which Bardsley thus handed to Quay was taken by the latter from the State money which he had on deposit in the Keystone Bank and given to Quay for use in politics. Over a million dollars of State money was at that time on deposit by Bardsley in the Keystone Bank, and no trace of what became of it has been found either in the bank's accounts or in Bardsley's. It has been generally suspected that a good deal of it went "into politics," and it is natural, therefore, that this suspicious certificate should be taken as strong evidence of such disposition. The explanation which Quay's friends now put forward strengthens this view. According to the Harrisburg correspondent of the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, it is that Quay contributed $10,000 for campaign purposes in 1889, of which he paid $1,000 in cash; that he gave his note for $9,000 to David Martin, who had it discounted by Bardsley, receiving from the latter this certificate which was for $9,000 less the interest for three months; that when the note became due Quay took it up. If this be a truthful statement, and if satisfactory proof of its truthfulness shall be adduced, it will still stand confessed that Bardsley and Quay were using public money for campaign purposes, and that the money thus used was, apparently, a part of the million or more which the State lost in the Keystone Bank through Bardsley's rascalities. It is said that the books of the Keystone Bank contain no record of the deposit by Bardsley upon which the certificate was issued.

In addition to the weakness of the above explanation, the conduct of the Republican majority in the Senate this week furnishes strong corroborative evidence against the alleged innocent character of the transactions. They have resisted by all possible parliamentary expedients the efforts of the Attorney-General and the Democratic Senators to get this certificate in evidence before them. They take the position that it is not relevant to their inquiry; but if it were entirely innocent, and proof of its innocence were possible, is it reasonable to suppose that they would be so anxious to exclude it? In fact, its admission as evidence would make it necessary for them to summon Quay as a witness, to give, under oath, rather than through the newspapers, his explanation of the transaction, and that would certainly be the most satisfactory way for him to meet the charge. This is the crucial point in the matter. Quay will never allow himself, if he can help it, to be put under oath and subjected to examination on this or any other point connected with his dealings with State money. He had the Legislative inquiry, which came to so impotent a conclusion a few weeks ago, restricted to the present State Treasurer in order that he might escape the danger of being put on the witness stand—a danger which caused him to flee the State as soon as it was threatened. He has compelled the Senate to exclude this certificate for the same reason. We presume that there is not an intelligent person in Pennsylvania who has any reasonable doubt that the certificate is evidence of guilty partnership between Quay and Bardsley for the use of public money for campaign purposes. It is interesting to observe that the go-between in the Bardsley-Quay transaction, "Dave" Martin, is the man whom the State Auditor, McCamant, mentioned in his incriminating "burn this letter" to Bardsley as a useful man to have put on the watch against persons who were suspected of an intention to make unpleasant exposures. That makes the ring of Keystone Bank, Bardsley, McCamant, and Quay rounded and complete.

The oppressions visited upon the importers of worsted clothing by the Government during recent years have been peculiarly heavy, and they have been lately renewed with extreme violence. We are not now speaking of the increased duty imposed by the tariff, but of the practices under it. Two years ago the manufacturers of worsteds, by dint of begging and lying, prevailed upon the Secretary of the Treasury to rule that worsteds were woollens, in the teeth of history, of the law, and of judicial decisions then in force. The object of this was to increase the duty on worsteds without an act of Congress to that effect. As soon as the new ruling could be brought before the courts, it was overruled. In fact, the very men who procured it predicted that it would not stand in the judicial tribunals, and for this reason they asked Congress to pass a special law in their favor, without waiting for the regular Tariff Bill. This was virtually a request that Congress should give all hands a bill of indemnity for violating a pre-existing law. This request was actually complied with, or rather was sought to be complied with, but in such a headlong fashion that the special bill itself was wrongly worded, and turned out to be a nullity. In due time the regular McKinley Bill came along, which screwed up the duties on worsted cloths valued at sixty to eighty cents per pound from 24 cents per pound and 35 per cent. to 44 cents per pound and 50 per cent. But even this proceeding did not satisfy the manufacturers. So they took into their employ a special Treasury agent to instruct

Appraiser Cooper in his duties, and they so far succeeded as to induce Mr. Cooper to seize worsteds arriving at this port, on the ground of undervaluation. On Thursday the most respectable merchants in New York, some of them Republicans whose names are always on the campaign subscription lists, went before the Board of General Appraisers and testified that the special agent and Mr. Cooper were wrong. A letter from the United States Consul at Bradford, England, was also read to the same purport. All that the special agent could say was, that the manufacturers were convinced that the goods were undervalued, and that somebody in Philadelphia who had once made goods in Bradford had told him so. Of course, all people who have lived in Bradford and are now making worsteds here will tell the truth.

The contemptuous remark of ex-Speaker Reed about reciprocity as "commerce on paper" finds apt illustration in the statistics of our exports of manufactured cotton during the first eight months of this year. For five of those eight months we have been in the enjoyment of reciprocity with Brazil, under an arrangement which accorded particular favor to our cotton goods. It is therefore something of an eye-opener to find that our exports of cotton manufactures to Brazil for the period in question this year amounted to but $310,216, as compared with $522,420 in the corresponding part of 1890. If this is the effect of reciprocity, our exporters might say, give us no more of it, or we shall lose the rest of our trade. In fact, one might infer that it had been a very disastrous eight months all around for our foreign trade in cotton goods. But that would be a great mistake: our exports of cottons show a surprising gain. The total foots up $9,855,783 for the first eight months of 1891, as against but $6,631,428 for the same period last year. Where did the gain come in? Has there been some important treaty of reciprocity that Mr. Blaine has secretly negotiated and forgotten to mention? Alas, no! the gain all came in our exports to China. That country took of us $1,230,042 worth of cotton goods in the first eight months of 1890, and no less than $4,600,276 in the same part of the present year. Of course, this is somehow due to reciprocity and the Administration, though what the latter has done to China except to threaten her with Blair and gunboats, we do not know. But we have an unfaltering faith that Private-Secretary Halford, or some attaché of the State Department, or the Bureau of Statistics, or the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent, will, now that we call their attention to the matter, hasten to maintain that anyhow it proves we ought to vote the Republican ticket. The idea that our exporters had quietly gone ahead and developed a foreign trade without any whooping or electioneering or subsidy-seeking, must, of course, be dismissed as too unpatriotic and un-American a course to be thought of.

The recent Church Congress in England gave up a good part of one day's discussions (October 7) to the consideration of church work in the poorest quarters of the cities and in industrial and mining regions. The address of the Bishop of Bedford, who is Bishop-Suffragan for North and East London, set forth some of the mistakes which had been made in that work, mentioning among them the subdivision of parishes, with the establishment of great numbers of uninviting chapels to which the people would not go, the employment of too many intellectual or physical weaklings among the clergy, under the mistaken idea that work among the poor was easy, and the attempt "to reach the masses by mission-halls, services in lodging-house kitchens, and under railway arches." He declared that the church could not too soon eradicate the idea that she was an institution "with deferred annuities alone to bestow," and that her clergy were only a sort of special "relieving-officers." The church had a great work of charity to do, he admitted, but he said that "charity is a science," with "well-defined principles and rules which it is a sin to disregard." He would have thrift inculcated as "nothing short of a Christian virtue," while, at the same time, he would "help the people to secure time for recreation, and then teach and assist them to spend it profitably." "The art of rational recreation is . . . not foreign to the work of the church." It is gratifying to have the word of a man of such good sense that "there is no part of the East End that can truly be called 'outcast London,' and there is more of sensationalism than of truth in what is implied in the title, 'Darkest England.'"

Now that the English Liberals have committed themselves to the disestablishment of the Church in Wales, the Anglican ecclesiastics are renewing their efforts to show that the claims of the Dissenters are unfounded. The Bishop of St. Asaph has circulated a pamphlet, entitled "The Truth about the Church in Wales," in which he undertook to show that the reported numbers and importance of the Dissenting sects had been greatly exaggerated. This has brought out a reply from the Welsh Calvinistic Methodists, who show that the Bishop, at least in what he had to say about their denomination, had succumbed to the usual temptation of political stump-speakers in matters of statistics. He had asserted, for example, that "the number of communicants had steadily decreased." Pressed for figures, he had to admit that he had considered the case of but a single county, where a general depression in manufactures and trade had led to large migrations of the inhabitants, and where, very naturally, the adherents of the churches had diminished with the rest of the people. When the Bishop was taxed with this unfairness, he replied that he had not been able to find any full statistics since 1887. But the Methodists retort that he could not have searched very diligently, as such statistics had been regularly published, and showed a steady growth in the denomination, both in numbers and contributions, for the past twenty-three years. This is all the more remarkable in view of the fact that in the rural districts, where this branch of Methodism has its strongest hold, the population as a whole had actually decreased during the same period.

The plan of Uruguayan debt conversion, upon which we lately commented, has been accepted by the Congress of Uruguay in its main features. In one respect the project is better than we had supposed, since it makes a present of $2,866,953 in the new consolidated bonds to the holders of some $28,600,000 of the 6 per cent. bonds, as a partial acknowledgment of the injustice of cutting down their interest to 3½ per cent. But the Congress declined to accede to the proposal of the London bankers that 45 per cent. of the Custom-house receipts should be made the security for the interest on the consolidated debt. As this was regarded as a vital feature of the scheme, the result may be the upsetting of the whole of it, in its present shape at least. But the most remarkable thing in the entire affair is the revelation made by the President of Uruguay, in his message to Congress, of the monstrous commissions paid for the floating of former loans. The costs and commissions for negotiating the present consolidation are put in the bill at $2,519,646, and the total amount of bonds in the contemplated issue is $96,350,000. This seems high enough, but is really very cheap, as President Herrera says, in view of what Uruguay has paid on foregoing loans. The loan in 1872 of $16,450,000, emitted through Thomson, Bonar & Co., cost $1,170,425, or 10.70 per cent. of the total amount realized. The $20,000,000 conversion loan of 1888, negotiated through the Barings, cost 8 per cent. What the Barings got, or were to get, for their unmarketed $10,000,000 of last year does not appear; but the Antwerp Committee of Uruguayan bondholders allege that those bankers had themselves paid all the interest on the 1888 loan, so as to keep the nation's credit up, and that they were to have all they wanted of the 1890 issue.

However that may be, these transactions certainly cast a flood of light upon the whole wild-cat system of South American finance. No wonder that the frequent loans disappear like so much spilled water, when the borrowing countries get only nine-tenths of the face value of their bonds from the bankers, and then have to pay 6 per cent. interest on securities that sell from 20 to 30 below par. And how the bankers who were on the inside, and knew the rottenness of the whole system, could ask innocent investors to embark their savings as they did, is a question for the moralist rather than the financier.

A WORD FOR THE POOR STATE.

THERE is one serious omission, both in this State and in Pennsylvania, in all the Republican and Democratic addresses, speeches, and manifestoes which call for a State victory this year in order to help the party ticket at the Presidential election next year. It occurs in nearly all the Flower articles in the New York *Times*, and in the address of the Democrats and Independents urging Mr. Flower's election for the sake of national issues. We need hardly say, too, that it occurs in the comments on the coming election which appear in nearly all the Republican papers in Pennsylvania, and in such "talks" as the Republican managers in that State venture to indulge in. We mean the failure to indicate the time and manner in which State or municipal abuses can be, without danger to larger interests, attacked at the polls. The utterances of the signers of the address to the Democratic and Independent voters of the State of New York, printed on Monday, were on this point absolutely hopeless, and yet among these signers were such thoughtful politicians as Charles S. Fairchild, F. C. Barlow, Stephen A Walker, Simon Sterne, E. P. Wheeler, and William L. Trenholm. They said:

> "However much we may wish it were otherwise, nevertheless, in voting upon this State election in 1891, it is necessary to consider the effect upon the national election in 1892. So long as the United States Senators are elected and Congressional districts are gerrymandered by S ate Legislatures; so long as State campaigns are fought by national parties; so long as these campaigns turn, in the minds of the people, upon national issues; so long as their results are generally accepted as popular verdicts upon national questions—so long must we consider the effect which State elections may have, not only upon national elections, but also upon the policies which will be adopted by political parties in national controversies."

These conditions, on which our duty at the State elections depends, are, we need hardly say, for all practical purposes, perpetual. The writers might as well have said at once that "as long as human nature is what it is," or "as long as pain and sorrow are the lot of man," we must "consider the effect which State elections may have, not only on national elections, but also upon the policies which will be adopted by political parties in national controversies." Stripping the proposition of its rhetorical drapery, it means simply that as long as there are national elections State elections must be treated as a preliminary trial of party strength on Federal questions.

Gloomy and puzzling as this proposition is, we are not now going to dispute it. But we have a right to ask its authors this question: "Given the conditions you describe, what provision have you made or do you propose to make, under the American system of government, for the reform of local abuses, and for opposition to mischievous or corrupt local organizations? You will readily perceive that one indirect, and certainly unintended, result of your theory is, that it makes the great Federal parties sanctuaries or asylums for local offenders, and you offer no suggestion as to the mode in which they can be got at by the indignant or outraged local voter; for as soon as he attempts to arrest them and bring them to justice, you stay his hand, and ask him if he has duly considered the injurious effect which a scandal of this sort will have on the fortunes of his party in the larger and more important Federal arena."

We must not be told that this right of asylum for local malefactors is only meant to be valid this year, and that it is only for the Presidential election of 1892 that it is claimed either in New York or in Pennsylvania. As we have said already, the arrangement, as described in the New York address, is clearly meant to be permanent. As a matter of experience, it has been so treated for some time in both States, here by the Democrats and there by the Republicans. It was not possible under it, as everybody knows, to get a judgment against either Tammany or Quay in 1888, because of the possible effect on the Presidential election of that year. It has not been possible in any year since 1888 to get such a judgment because of the probable effect on the election of 1892. In 1890 it seemed as if it would surely be lawful to vote at the municipal election with a single eye to municipal interests, but even then we were forced to condone a whole string of local rascalities lest we should hurt the Presidential ticket in 1892. A swarm of orators from other States actually injected themselves into the municipal canvass, and assured us that we must put up with Grant for one more mayoral term, in order to be ready to punish the Republicans in the nation at large two years later. In Pennsylvania the same plea was, *mutatis mutandis*, put forward in behalf of Delamater, who was, as we now know, a cover for a herd of State criminals.

We are not now condemning or approving of this arrangement. It may be good, or it may be bad; but it is unprecedented. It is not provided for in the State or Federal constitutions, and was not foreseen by the founders of the Government. What we say is, that those who excuse it or defend it, and still more those who commend it to the voters, are bound to produce some way of avoiding the neglect of local interests which it plainly involves. In other words, they ought to say at what elections and in what years a New York voter may rightfully attack Tammany or a Pennsylvania voter attack Quay, without damage to the national parties to which Tammany and Quay respectively belong. What are the arrangements proposed by our various party publicists for conducting State and municipal administrations with purity and efficiency?

OUR TREATMENT OF CHILI.

THE despatch of the cruiser *Boston* to Chili with a flourish of trumpets, and the obscure hints about something very serious which are issuing from some of the departments, will, we fear, make a good many people look forward with dread to our having a really powerful navy. They will ask, if we are so ready to threaten and vapor with four or five unarmored cruisers, what should we be if we had a large armored fleet, capable of forming a line of battle against a first-class maritime Power? Should we, with such a force at our disposal, ever have a Presidential election without having threatened, on some pretext or other, to bombard a foreign port in the interest of the Administration candidate?

In the ordinary course of civilized diplomacy, the despatch of increased naval force to the capital or chief port of a weaker government, especially if it be in trouble of any kind, is the last thing a first-class Power does. The reason is that the forms of diplomatic intercourse are based on the forms of intercourse between gentlemen, and when gentlemen have a dispute, the offended party never begins with a threat. He reserves this to the end, as something to be used only in case peaceful satisfaction is clearly unattainable. Now, the despatch of a naval force to the scene of a controversy is a threat; so is the increase of such naval force as may be already there. The departure of the *Boston* is undoubtedly meant to produce the impression at home that something serious is impending in Chili, and that the mysterious Somebody who now manages the State Department does not mean to "stand any nonsense," and to produce in Chili the impression that we should, on the whole, rather like a fight with that republic just now, when it is contending with a host of difficulties. But if that Somebody were really a civilized man, to say nothing of an American deacon or pewholder, he would have studiously avoided the faintest appearance of a resort to force until the resources of negotiation in this matter of the attack on the American sailors in Valparaiso had been completely exhausted.

What aggravates the unseemliness of the performance is, that the Valparaiso outrage is the natural outcome of our whole treatment of Chili since the present Administration came into power. It was, in the first place, disrespectful to the verge of insult to a "sister republic" to send as our representative to her capital, not an American of high standing and character, but a foreign adventurer who had recently arrived in the United States as a fugitive from the justice of his own country. We cannot recall in diplomatic history any such slight offered by a great Power to a friendly nation.

The Chilians bore it with great patience and even courtesy. They would have been quite justified in refusing to receive Egan as a *persona non grata*. But they did receive him and treated him civilly. Far from being conciliated by this forbearance of theirs, when an attempt was made a little later by the President to overturn the Republic in Napoleonic fashion and set up a dictatorship in its stead, we at once, through every instrumentality within our reach, showed our sympathy with the traitor, and treated him—a rebel in arms—as the lawful Chilian Government. When the men who were trying, against heavy odds, to save their liberty and laws, and who represented all that was left of the Constitution, tried to buy a few cases of arms in the United States, we pounced

on them almost with fury as public enemies, and started one of the new cruisers, with great noise, to "blow them out of the water" for committing a misdemeanor. There is, too, evidence of the strongest kind that Egan was the open partisan and mouthpiece of Balmaceda, if not his partner in speculations, and that our squadron was by no means careful to maintain a neutral attitude towards the contending parties—our flagship actually conveying to the Dictator important information about movements of the Congressional army.

That the Chilian populace should, after this had gone on for many months, have become greatly excited against Americans, is not surprising. It would be wonderful if they had not, and they are still in about the same stage of civilization as the street mobs in some of our own large cities—New York and New Orleans for instance. If our Government had had to put up with a similar series of annoyances and slights from the British Minister and Navy during the rebellion, we venture to say British sailors in uniform would have run considerable risk in appearing on our streets in 1862 or 1863; and if they had suffered injury or insults, assuredly we should have felt that Mr. Seward was entitled to great consideration and forbearance while endeavoring to settle the matter.

The present Government of Chili have a most difficult task before them in restoring the normal working of the administrative and legislative machinery, in reëstablishing the national credit, reorganizing the army and navy, and effecting the constitutional reforms which Balmaceda's attempt has shown to be necessary. They are therefore entitled to great indulgence at our hands. We ought not to increase their difficulties by unnecessary threats or insults. We ought, as Republicans, to do to them as we would be done by. We ought not to use our new cruisers, in childish glee, to vindicate Quay and Dudley and save the tariff at their expense. This is our work, and if it has to be done, the cost should fall on Americans exclusively.

EUROPEAN PUBLICISTS ON EMIGRATION.

In accordance with a suggestion of the Emigration Congress at the last World's Fair, a "Commission Permanente Internationale pour la Protection des Émigrants" was formed at Paris in December last, M. Levasseur being chosen its President, and the Prince de Cassano, who had been the moving spirit in its organization, becoming its general secretary. A committee of seven was promptly appointed to determine the "minimum of desiderata." Five of the seven, including Gen. Meredith Read, the American member, were unable to serve. Consequently, Professors Renault and Lyon-Caen of the Paris School of Law had the matter all their own way, and have finally published their report in the first number of the Commission's *Bulletin*. In an address delivered before the Paris Society of Commercial Geography, and afterwards published under the title 'Les Conditions Actuelles de l'Émigration Européenne,' the Prince de Cassano had already emphasized the evil wrought by unscrupulous emigration agents—an evil quite as great as he estimated it—and now the Committee have proposed means of amelioration, which, however, go by no means to the root of the matter. In fact, neither he nor they seemed to recognize how necessary a part of the present system unscrupulous agents are. Enormous steamers, built and run at enormous expense and in ever-increasing numbers, must be filled with emigrants, or dividends will cease. Several countries, the Prince de Cassano's native Italy among them, refuse to the transatlantic lines the subsidies they pay to others, for the avowed reason that the transatlantic lines can count on large sums in steerage money. The companies, accordingly, instruct their agents to see to it that there be no miscount. The agents, who work very largely by means of lies, naturally have the greatest success with the most ignorant—a fact that goes far towards explaining the steady deterioration of the immigrants landing in this city.

To remedy this state of things, the Committee proposes that all countries which, either by propaganda or by special laws, attempt to attract foreign workmen, shall reject every immigrant whose "contract" (whatever that may be) has not been signed either by one of their own consuls or by their specially appointed immigration agent, and also by the authorities of the port of embarkation or by a consul of the immigrant's native country. The only reason suggested for an immigration agent's refusing to sign the contracts of would-be immigrants to his land is that the trades mentioned in the contracts are unknown there. The conditions under which the domestic official should withhold his signature are not specified. But even the fantastic proposition to make the right of emigration dependent upon the caprice of an official at the often foreign port of embarkation is outdone in absurdity by the provision (article 9 of the report) that "lands placed gratuitously at the disposition of immigrants by the country to which they emigrate, should be provided with a house of at least two rooms," at public cost! After this, the further proposition (art. 14) to pension the widows and orphans of emigrants who die within a year or even longer after their arrival, seems to follow as a matter of course, and would not have been mentioned here save that it contains a practical suggestion (the only practical thing in the whole report) for Republican members of Congress. The idea advanced in it is capable of great improvement, and could undoubtedly be so developed as to relieve any possible congestion of the Treasury. To make the suggestion still more practical, it might be turned about: when wife or child dies, pension the vote of the surviving immigrant.

While one international association is thus entertaining silly suggestions with regard to emigration, another and more important association has been practically refusing to entertain sensible ones. At Hamburg the other day, the "Institute of International Law" was on the point of rejecting without debate the report on the admission and exclusion of foreigners which had been laid before it by its newly-elected president, Prof. von Bar of Göttingen. As might have been expected from Von Bar's pronounced "freisinnige" tendencies, his report was very liberal, viewing the matter almost exclusively from the standpoint of the individual emigrant, not from that of the States concerned. Nevertheless it conformed to the only sound principle, viz., that emigration is a right, immigration a privilege—a privilege, however, whose free exercise is of such importance that it should be restricted as little as possible. Among his more characteristic propositions were these: "Any act which forbids the subjects of a State to enter it or to remain in it, is contrary to international law." "In case of great political necessity, a State may expel subjects, but only when it is certain that the territory of many other civilized States, which they can conveniently reach and where they can live in peace, remains open to the persons expelled." "Immigration should be hindered only in the public interest, and from motives of extraordinary gravity, *e. g.*, on account of fundamental difference of race or of customs, or where numerous foreigners, having entered the State, may, by organizing, endanger it." "A State can refuse admission to persons who, after the artificial rules of another State have made it possible for them to live there for a long time, are forced to emigrate and to spread themselves over other lands in search of work [Russian Jews ?]; but, on the other hand, protection of national labor is not alone a sufficient ground for exclusion." "It is desirable that admission and expulsion be regulated by law."

While such propositions as these are undoubtedly in advance of the present conditions of international law, perhaps in advance of any condition it will ever reach, still there can be no doubt that they form a suitable subject for discussion by the Institute. It was therefore surprising when several members, among them Prof. Renault, declared one after another that the matter must be settled by municipal law, and consequently that the report was out of place. Prof. von Bar reminded the Institute that he had prepared the report in response to a formal invitation which they tendered him in their last session at Lausanne and added that he was unable to see why the subject was less important or less appropriate now than three years ago. Rolin-Jacquemyns (Belgium) begged that the members would not, on account of recent political events, refuse consideration to a question of such importance. Lord Reay declared that there was no probability of England's enacting any law on the subject. Albérie Rolin, in response, emphasized the fact that the Institute did not desire to force laws on anybody, but simply to formulate the views of competent scholars; and finally, upon motion of

Asser (Holland), supported by Von Bar himself, the debate was postponed to the next session. This little comedy is only intelligible when regarded as an afterpiece to the great Franco-Russian drama at Cronstadt. Prof. Renault is quite willing to recommend all sorts of impossible humanities to the three Americas, but unwilling to see an important body like the "Institut de Droit International" adopt or even discuss a report which, at least by implication, condemns the expulsion of Jews from Russia.

ARGENTINE FARMING.

SINCE the disastrous close of the era of speculation in Argentina, a great amount of attention has been given to the legitimate development of the country. This has come about partly as a healthful reaction from the absurd overdoing of business on paper, and partly as a consequence of the general conviction that the only escape of the nation from disgraceful bankruptcy is by growing crops to pay the interest on the national debt. At any rate, there can be no question that the past year, so calamitous financially, has been, agriculturally, one of great activity. Yet the actual condition of the farming interest in the Argentine Republic is hard to get at, so conflicting is the evidence both as to the development and the profits of agriculture there.

On one side we have brightly colored and apparently authentic pictures of the outlook and opportunities of the Argentine farmer. Thus an Englishman, R. W. Traill, wrote to the London *Times* from his own farm, in the province of Santa Fé, August 1, 1891, declaring that in wheat-growing a profit of 23 shillings 11 pence per acre could be made on land costing only from 30 to 40 shillings the acre. He proceeded to prove this from his own experience by giving his budget for a year, which he vouched for as "absolutely correct." He added: "If Englishmen who have an interest in this country would invest their money in productive work instead of making loans to the natives, the Argentine Republic would soon improve its position, and they individually would secure a fortune and find that the country was healthy and fairly satisfactory to live in." In like manner a correspondent of an English paper published in Buenos Ayres gave what purported to be authentic statistics for the two great branches of farming in Argentina—cattle and wheat—showing a yearly return, in the former case, of $9,000 on an investment of $30,000, and in the latter, of $33,600 on an outlay of $60,000.

Unfortunately, both these letters are couched in somewhat vague terms, and it is to be feared that analysis of details, taking into account the matter of locality and transportation, would put a very different face on the affair. This fear is certainly given color by the fact that two great English land companies, owning vast tracts in the very provinces where these extraordinary profits are reported, have made nothing at all. The Santa Fé Land Company purchased 4,336,150 acres in 1883, at about 3 shillings the acre; but its stock is now quoted at a price which would make its holdings worth only a little over 2 shillings the acre, and it has never paid a dividend in all the seven years of its existence. The Cordova Company was brought out in 1888, and has paid one dividend of 5 per cent.; but its shares are now quoted at sixty cents on the dollar. How these things can be in the same provinces and in the same business where private farmers claim to be making 50 per cent. profit, is difficult to understand. Much more reasonable appear the estimates lately put forth in the report of the National Hypothecary Bank. These were intended for the guidance of immigrants, and particularly of foreign investors who might be asked to loan money on Argentine real estate. Taking up first the "open camp" system of cattle-raising, under the smallest possible outlay of capital, the report gives details showing an average profit of 2.65 per cent. With heavier investments and consequent improvement in methods and cultivation, a profit of 5.44 per cent. is shown. Still further improvements, purchase of better breeds of animals, etc., with the heavier outlay involved, push the profits up to 9.36 per cent. Higher returns are asserted in the case of wheat-growing. As this report was drawn up by a body of experienced Argentine gentlemen, some of whom are ready to invest in land on the basis of the values therein assigned, it probably comes pretty near the actual facts.

One branch of the agricultural export trade of Argentina has proved highly disappointing to those engaged in it—the shipment of cattle and sheep to Europe. This was taken up with great enthusiasm a few years ago, partly under the promise of a Government guarantee of interest on the capital invested, and partly on the basis of the great success of the business of shipping frozen mutton to England from Australia and New Zealand. But the report of the River Plate Fresh Meat Company for the year 1889-91 shows that the year's operations were conducted at a loss of over $75,000. This company began business in 1883, when it exported 17,165 carcasses; in 1890 the number was 1,196,531. The first shipment of Argentine horned cattle to France was made in September of this year, and resulted in a heavy loss. Some English companies are said to be doing better than the one just referred to, but, on the other hand, others are known to be in financial difficulties.

With Argentina so many thousands of miles nearer Europe than is Australia, and with a soil and climate at least as favorable as the latter's for sheep-raising, it seems strange that the frozen-meat trade with the South Sea colonies should be profitable while it is so distinctly unprofitable with the former country. The explanation is to be largely found in the inferior condition of the Argentine sheep. They are, as a rule, half-bred merinos, while the New Zealand and Australian mutton is the flesh of the best South Downs. Moreover, there is a great prejudice against the Argentine article in the English market, so that it brings only about half the price of the Australian mutton. Added to this is the undoubted fact that the Argentine sheep are often diseased. The Board of Trade inspectors reported, in 1890, that the "increase of cases of disease among animals landed from abroad was largely due to the prevalence of scab among sheep, principally from the Argentine Republic." All which goes to show that natural advantages for successful farming cannot take the place of improved methods and careful oversight.

WILLIAM FERREL.

ON September 18, died at Maywood, Kansas, Prof. William Ferrel, the most eminent meteorologist that America has produced. If we were to say the most eminent meteorologist of the world, most of our readers, not even knowing Ferrel's name and never having heard of his works, would regard so high an estimate as extravagant; and if eminence includes general reputation, it would perhaps be unjust to make such a claim for a man who always lived simply and quietly, known to few of his countrymen, and, for many years after his work began, hardly known even to scientific men in Europe. But if eminence in science is to be measured by the effect produced on methods of investigation and by importance of results, unrivalled eminence in meteorology may be fairly claimed for Ferrel. Dové, who held the highest place among the older European meteorologists, accumulated a great store of facts concerning climatology; but he was not particularly successful in interpreting the facts. In more modern times, there are many earnest students in this science in the several countries of Europe, all contributing their good share to its progress, but none so strongly changing its attitude as Ferrel did. In this country, we have had Redfield and Espy, both able, although so different in their methods; both adding much to our understanding of atmospheric processes, but neither having the genius or knowledge of Ferrel, and neither reaching results so well demonstrated or so far-reaching as his. Loomis, a most persevering and successful investigator, whose results are often quoted to our credit, followed so purely and patiently the inductive method that he can hardly be said to have originated any broad theoretical views.

With more boldness and originality than any of his predecessors, and with more success than was reached by any except his followers in later years, Ferrel applied a knowledge of physics and mechanics and a mathematical method of treatment to the solution of problems in meteorology. In these lines he was certainly a genius, his love for mathematics being shown even when as a boy he drew geometrical diagrams with a pitchfork on the door of his father's barn in Virginia, and later in his wonderful judgment regarding the theoretical explanation of facts; but, as always with genius of the highest order, it was supported by hard and persevering study. He was not an "observer" in the common sense; he employed the observations of many others and reasoned well upon them. His writings do not teem with bibliographic references, although he read carefully and continuously; but the student may be sure that the few references given will lead him to records of the highest value. Ferrel's selection and discrimination among facts was as acute as among theories—he was seldom misled by errors of record or interpretation; but his great success was in the dis-

covery and demonstration of theoretical explanations. The general circulation of the atmosphere around the earth never received anything like adequate treatment till he examined it; and, although his explanation was not complete, all subsequent work has followed essentially upon the lines that he first marked out. His theory of the mechanism of cyclonic storms was the first to give intelligent explanation of their whirling winds and central low pressure. His theory of the action of tornadoes has never been approached by any other; it is far superior to all that have been suggested. It is not, however, theoretical suggestions alone that we owe to him: he followed his suggestions with the most careful examination of their value, and thus not only established his views on firm foundations, but gave an example to others of the methods by which scientific meteorological investigations should be carried out. In this respect his work may be taken as a model, even though his mathematical form is criticised as inelegant by more expert mathematicians.

The most conspicuous novelty of principle that he introduced was the correct estimate of the deflective force by which bodies moving over the earth tend to depart from rectilinear paths, in consequence of the earth's rotation. This and its consequences, not properly introduced by his predecessors into meteorological theories, had left them all at fault; more than anything else, it was the solution that Ferrel found for many difficulties, but it is not a matter of which one can treat in a newspaper.

Ferrel's work, like his life, was aside from the paths of other men. His essays were inconspicuously published in scientific journals, some of which had a very narrow circulation. It was not till near the close of his life that he prepared a book for separate publication, his 'Popular Treatise on the Winds,' and that is too severely argumentative for general reading, although there is no work to which the student of meteorology may turn with greater confidence of good leadership. He never sought promotion. His advancement from school-teaching in Tennessee to a place in the Nautical Almanac in 1857, his removal to the office of the Coast Survey in Washington in 1867, his selection for the office of professor in the Signal Office in 1882, were all unsolicited. In each of these offices, he pushed beyond the previous limits of knowledge. When with Winlock in the Nautical Almanac, he, better than any one else, demonstrated that a slight unexplained excess of the moon's velocity in its orbit was due to the lagging of the clock (the rotation of the earth) by which the moon's velocity was measured. In the Coast Survey under Peirce, he investigated our tides and invented a tide-predicting machine now in daily use and doing the work of thirty or forty men, which the visitor to Washington would do well to see in operation in the basement of the office. In the Signal Office, under Hazen, he performed the highest scientific work of the service, and stood for what a meteorologist should be—not an officer temporarily assigned to a new duty, but a lifelong and well-trained student of the science. He was a member of our National Academy of Sciences and of our best scientific societies, and an honorary member of the Austrian, German, and English Meteorological Societies. He never sought to force his theories on the public or even on the scientific world; he had a simple and trustful confidence that time would make correct judgment and determine between fleeting error and enduring truth.

Although living apart from the ways of the world, he was not careless of worldly matters, as many students are; he saved from his moderate salary, invested his savings wisely, and at his death, at the age of seventy-four, he was the possessor of a considerable fortune to leave to his relatives. He then said, "I regret to leave my friends, but that is all I regret," and so closed a pure life of simple greatness.

LIBRARIANS AT SAN FRANCISCO.

San Francisco, October 19, 1891.

The late conference of the American Library Association in this city was much quieter than the Fabyan conference. The attendance was less than half as great, consequently there was less rush, less of the enthusiasm of a crowd; the meetings, though a little unpunctual, were very orderly. One reason for the quietness may have been that little novelty was presented. The work of libraries in connection with schools, though of the highest importance and interest, has been discussed so often that little new can be said upon it; nor does it in general lead to that difference of opinion which so enlivens a meeting. No heresy in cataloguing or classification was presented to bring a score of objectors at once upon their feet. There was not even the annual report upon those subjects. On the other hand, it was stated that Mr. Rudolph of the San Francisco Free Library will shortly publish a new system of cataloguing that is far to surpass all its predecessors in utility and economy; but no description could be given pending application for a patent. The claims made for it are indeed startling. It almost does away with the use of the pen; card catalogues become a thing of the past; it solves the long-standing problem of a universal catalogue; it is speedy—books received in the morning, no matter how numerous, can be presented to the readers in a printed catalogue before night; it is cheap—what now costs $2 can be done for 25 cents. These statements were received with a little scepticism. The visiting librarians can understand how great mechanical improvements can be made; but as the chief expense in cataloguing is not for mechanical, but for intellectual work, they do not see how such saving is possible.

In library architecture the old material was threshed out a little; but the main interest centred in an exhibition and description of the plans for the interior arrangement, particularly the shelving, of the Library of Congress by an enthusiastic admirer, Mr. Linderfelt of Milwaukee. Unluckily, the necessity of adjournment cut short his account. It is evident, however, that the nation is to have a library of which it may be proud; one that will supply a model for large libraries in cities where the dearness of land forbids spreading the books over much surface and compels the erection of a lofty pile—forces the library to be, as it were, set up on end. The shelves of the Library of Congress are to be absolutely interchangeable all over the building; the books are to be brought from the stacks to the delivery desk and carried back to the shelves by an endless band which can fetch one from the remotest corner in less than half a minute, to the great saving of the muscles and hearts of attendants and of the temper of readers. The means for the admission of light and air and the exclusion of undue heat, it is hoped, will be equally admirable.

The opening paper of this session, by Mr. C. C. Soule, was a brief, clear, and full statement of the points on which librarians are agreed in respect to library architecture. It will be found most useful to put into the hands of architects who are employed to design libraries, and will dispel the common ignorance of the qualities necessary in such buildings, and render the blunders we now see in most of our American libraries inexcusable. It should be separately printed. Another paper which deserves the same treatment was Mr. D. V. R. Johnstone's report on binding and binderies, which might be called a manual of binding for the use of librarians. Mr. Gardner M. Jones's report on the dissemination of contagious diseases through the use of library books was based on the replies to circulars sent to many librarians. Its conclusion was that the danger is very slight, but that precautions should be taken in order to satisfy the fears of the nervous. Mr. W. E. Foster's defence of the public support of libraries, in answer to the Spencerian doctrines of the 'Plea for Liberty,' was a satisfactory reply. Access to the shelves by the users of libraries, on which papers were written by Herbert Putnam and W. H. Brett, who have introduced the greatest freedom at their libraries of Minneapolis and Cleveland, is one of the burning questions of the present day, taking the place which the use of fiction held in the early meetings of the Association. It would certainly have provoked a lively discussion had any discussion been permitted, but the tardiness of attendance, which by that time had been allowed to become extreme, left so short a time for the session that discussion was cut off. This was the defect of the whole convention. And yet discussion is the main object of such a body. Papers can be read in print. This should be borne in mind at the next meeting, and prompt attendance insisted on. No doubt it is unpleasant to begin a session with an important paper when only a dozen auditors are in their seats, but if this course be followed from the start, people will come early; if it is not, unpunctuality is a vice that grows apace.

The fact is, that sight-seeing proved too strong for business. The Association was received with a prodigality of hospitality such as, well as they have been treated in other cities, they have never before experienced. A committee of reception came from Sacramento to the very borders of the State to meet them, with offerings of flowers and fruit and fish, and from that time till they left they were the objects of unremitting attention. As far as weather was concerned, Nature treated them equally well; but it was not the right season to see the beauty of California. After four months of drought everything was faded, brown, dusty; yet there was much that was interesting or wonderful, and it was easy to see how lovely the country must be in the green winter and spring.

One announcement of extreme importance was made at this Convention. Mr. R. R. Bowker, under whose supervision the supplements to Mr. Leypoldt's excellent 'American Catalogue' have appeared, will prepare an 'American Bibliography of the Nineteenth Century,' designed to give the title, with suitable details, of every book published in America from 1800 to 1890, with perhaps a preliminary conspectus of the previous centuries. The form will be octavo, in place of the cumbersome quarto of the 'American Catalogue.' Mr. Bowker stipulates for a subscription of only 500 copies, at $100 each, which would give a guarantee fund of $50,000, though his experience with the 'American Catalogue' and its supplements leads him to estimate the expense at

nearly $100,000 It is greatly to be hoped that as soon as the proposals are issued every library of size will hasten to give its subscription. Merely in the economy of service, such a bibliography will soon pay for itself; and as a matter of national pride, all must desire the publication of a work unequalled in any other nation. If the subscriptions come in quickly, the preliminary work will be begun at once, but with all possible haste the volumes could hardly be ready for issue till some years of the twentieth century have passed.

TREATY-MAKING POWER IN FRANCE.

PARIS, October 14, 1891.

THERE is no such thing as the French Constitution. The present republic was organized by several successive laws, which are constitutional laws. These constitutional and organic laws were voted by the National Assembly which sat at Versailles after the war of 1870–1871. The existing relations between France and Russia have drawn attention to the articles of these laws which relate to the right of making treaties. I will give the exact terms of these articles:

"The President of the Republic negotiates and ratifies treaties." (Constitutional Law of July 16, 1875, article 8.)

"During the session of the National Assembly, no treaty will be definitive if not approved by the Assembly." (This article, taken from the Constitution of the Republic of 1848, was in force during the sitting of the National Assembly.)

"After the adjournment of the National Assembly, the President of the Republic is bound to give cognizance of the treaties to the two chambers as soon as the interest and security of the State permit." (Constitutional Law of July 16, 1875, article 8.)

We have now clearly to deal only with the first and the third of these three articles. The President, in virtue of them, can make treaties and can make secret treaties, since he is bound to make them known to the Chambers only when the interest of the State requires it. The President of the French Republic has been thus invested with a really royal prerogative, and we must not wonder at it since the Constituant Chamber of Versailles was very monarchical in sentiment, and prepared a constitution which was intended to become the constitution of a monarchy, with as few changes as possible in its articles. Everybody knows how its intentions were defeated, how the revision clause was altered in Congress so as to set aside the question of the form of government—how, in fact, the republican form of government became definitive.

The Republic has now attained its majority—it has lasted twenty-one years; and we may calmly inquire if the Presidential prerogative was made too large in this matter of the right of making treaties. I, for one, do not think so; it is obvious that, placed as she is in Europe, France cannot dispense with the necessity of forming alliances and of entering into diplomatic arrangements which, at times, require secrecy. She has friends and she has enemies; her long history is a perpetual struggle for the conquest of a natural frontier—there is not a town, not a village, on her northern and on her eastern frontier which does not recall a battle, a siege. She is covered now on the north by the Belgian neutrality, but how long did she not have to struggle with the Spaniards in the Low Countries? In the part of the country which I inhabit in the summer, archery is still the amusement of the peasants, and this amusement dates from the time when the English and the French were disputing the valleys of the Somme and the Oise. Our eastern frontier has been constantly changing; Henri II. took the three bishoprics, Metz, Toul, and Verdun; the story of the annexation of Lorraine, of Alsace, of Franche-Comté is well known. The ecclesiastical estates which lay between our eastern frontier and the Rhine were attached to the Roman Empire by a very loose tie; the frontier of the Rhine has been the dream of every great French ruler. For the present, French ambition is reduced to the reconquest of the provinces lost in 1870–1871, and the whole policy of France will have this reconquest for its object.

The Triple Alliance was formed, under the influence of Prince Bismarck, in order to secure for Germany the conquests made in 1870. It is legitimate for France to try to confront this formidable constellation of Powers with another constellation, and she imagines that she has found in Russia the ally which is necessary to her. France and Russia, which are so distant in every respect, have one common fear and one common dislike; and nations are more united by their dislikes than by their affections. As the Triple Alliance was really formed chiefly in the interest of Germany, the Franco-Russian Alliance is chiefly directed against Germany. The French fleet would not have been sent to Cronstadt, and the demonstrations which followed this visit would never have been allowed by the Russian Government, if there had not been a desire to give a sort of visible form to an understanding which had been long and carefully prepared. It has been said that during the visit to Cronstadt some diplomatic document was prepared which gave to what may be called the moral alliance of France and Russia the character of a diplomatic alliance.

How far things are advanced, very few probably know. The Paris correspondents of the *Times* and the *Politische Correspondenz* have gone so far as to say that there is a formal treaty in a state of preparation. I have shown that President Carnot is perfectly free, under the terms of the Constitution, to make such a treaty on his own responsibility; but it is said that this responsibility is so great that there is a question of making a communication on the subject, not to the Chambers, but to the heads of the Parliamentary groups. The wisdom of such a policy is very doubtful, for if the information of the *Times* is correct, the Government would not communicate to these heads of the Parliamentary groups the tenor of the articles of the secret treaty, they would simply be informed of the existence of the treaty. But how could they form an opinion on the treaty if its articles remained unknown to them? How could they judge that the treaty is opportune or not, advantageous or not? Therefore, if a communication of this sort is made, it must be made in full, and in that case the articles of the treaty would probably not long remain a secret.

The Russian Government has not been slow to take advantage of the disposition of the French people by announcing a new Russian loan to be offered to the public, on the French market, at a comparatively very high price. Four hundred millions of francs will leave the country in the course of a few months and go to the banks of the Neva. *Punch* had a caricature showing a French peasant in the character of a bear-leader; in this case the peasant will not collect the money, he will give his own. France has systematically, for the last few years, sold Italian funds and replaced them with Russian funds. The operation, as it was undertaken merely for an idea, has so far proved successful. Russia's credit has gained all that Italian credit has lost. This half-reasoned and half-instinctive operation has been inspired in a great degree by the anger felt by the French people when they saw Italy bind herself hand and foot to the Triple Alliance. There is a notion in France that we had something to do with the liberation of Italy; we remember Magenta and Solferino; all the articles of M. Crispi cannot destroy the great facts of the past. There is, perhaps, more anger felt against Italy in a certain part of the nation than against Germany.

It is idle to deny it. France, who has been wounded in every way for twenty years, who felt in a sort of diplomatic isolation, and knew that a formidable combination of forces had been formed against her, feels now a sort of relief since Russia has shown interest in her position. There may be, there probably are, many illusions in this sentiment; all the hopes that are formed may never be realized; but the nation feels more at ease, it breathes more freely; the late manœuvres, which showed a real army of 120,000 men, well officered, well fed, well equipped, animated with the best spirit, have revived the confidence of the nation in itself. This sentiment is so strong that all the ministers in their speeches are obliged to express it in order to keep their popularity. The President himself, cautious as he is, has expressed it on various occasions. France is herself again; there is no serious opposition to the Government; the patriotic feeling has, for the present at least, become uppermost.

CHARLES STEWART PARNELL.

LONDON, October 13, 1891.

IN the career which has so suddenly closed with Mr. Parnell's death at the age of forty-five, there are elements of passion and vicissitude which might fit it to be the subject of a Greek tragedy. There were strange and sudden alternations of obscurity and fame, of unlooked-for success, and ruin in the hour of triumph. We shall doubtless within the next few months or years learn much that is new regarding his perplexing character and some unexplained passages in his life, and any view given of them now must be given with the knowledge that it is imperfect and subject to correction, as well as, when the facts shall have been more fully cleared up, to expansion. Still, it seems worth while, now that the impression he made upon English observers is still fresh and vivid, to try to convey that impression to those in America who have long felt curious about him, and desire to know how he struck persons with no special means of knowledge.

It has often been observed that he was not Irish, and that he led the Irish people with success just because he did not share their characteristic weaknesses. But it is equally true that he was not English. One always felt the difference between his temperament and that of the normal Englishman. The same remark applies to some other famous Irish leaders. Wolfe Tone, for instance, and Fitzgibbon were very unlike the usual type of Irishman—that is, the Irishman in whom the Celtic element predominates—but they were also unlike Englishmen. The Anglo-Irish Protestants, a strong race who have produced a number of remarkable men disproportionate to their ratio to the whole population of the United Kingdom, are a group by themselves, in whom some of the fire and impulsive-

ness of the Celt has been blended with some of the firmness and tenacity of the Englishman. Mr. Parnell, however, though he might be reckoned to the Anglo-Irish type, was not a normal specimen of it. He was a man whom you could not refer to any category, peculiar both in his intellect and in his character generally.

His intellect was an eminently practical one. He showed no interest in speculation or in the pursuit of abstract truth. He had no taste for literature, no love of knowledge for its own sake. He had read very little, and his speeches show no acquaintance either with history, beyond the commonest facts, or with any of the other subjects connected with politics. Very rarely did they contain a maxim or reflection of general applicability, apart from the particular topic he was discussing. Nor did he ever attempt to give to them the charm of literary ornament; all was dry, direct, and practical, without so much as a graceful phrase or a choice epithet. Sometimes, when addressing a great public meeting, he would seek to rouse them by vehement language, but though there might be a glow of suppressed passion, there were no flashes of imaginative light. Yet he never gave the impression of an uneducated man. His language was clear and grammatical; his taste was correct. It was merely that he did not care for any of those things which men of equal ability usually do care for. His only interests, outside politics, lay in mechanics and engineering and in the development of the material resources of his country. He took pains to manage his estate well, and was specially anxious to make something out of his quarries. Noticing that he was almost always occupied in examining and attacking the measures or the conduct of those who governed Ireland, many thought his intellect a purely critical one. This, however, was a mistake. Critical, indeed, it was, in a remarkable degree; keen, penetrating, stringently dissective of the arguments of an opponent, ingenious in taking advantage of any false step in administration or of admission imprudently made in debate. But it had also a positive and constructive quality. From time to time he would drop his negative attitude and sketch out plans of legislation which were always consistent and weighty, but notably deficient in imaginative warmth or color. They were the schemes rather of an able man of business, who saw the facts in a sharp, dry light, and never went beyond what the facts could be made to prove. And they were not only vigorous, but independent: he never seemed to be borrowing from others, although he freely used the help that others gave him in collecting facts or opinions. You felt that he had looked at things for himself, and had seen them as they actually were, in their true perspective, and not (like most Irishmen) through the mists of sentiment or party feeling. The impression which one of his more elaborate speeches made might be compared to that which one receives from a gray, sunless day with an east wind, a day in which everything shows clear, but also hard and cold. To call his mind a narrow one, as people sometimes did, was to wrong it. The range of his interests was doubtless limited; his intelligence was not. It never seemed unequal to any task it undertook, but, on the contrary, judged not only soundly, but also with an appreciation of the whole phenomena of the case, even those with which it had no personal sympathy. Still, his was a purely practical intellect. It was not original, not given to theorizing, not discursive; it did not rejoice in the exercise of thought for thought's sake, but felt itself to be merely a useful instrument for performing the work which the will required of it.

If, however, the intellect of the man could not be called interesting, his character was interesting in an eminent degree. It gave one many problems to solve, and could not easily be covered by any formulæ. An observer who followed the old method of ascribing to every one a single ruling passion, would have said that his ruling passion was pride. The pride was so strong that it almost extinguished vanity. He never seemed to seek occasions for display, frequently neglecting those which other men would have chosen, not seeming elated by the applause of crowds, and treating the House of Commons with equal coolness whether it cheered him or howled at him. He cared little for any social compliments or attentions, very seldom accepted an invitation to dinner, dressed with little care and often in clothes whose style and color seemed unworthy of his position. He was believed to be haughty and distant to his followers, and although some of them have denied this, the fact remains that scarcely any were admitted to intimacy, and that none of the ordinary signs of familiarity could be observed between him and them. Towards others he was sufficiently polite but warily reserved, showing no desire for the cultivation of friendship or, indeed, for any relations but those of business. Of some ordinary social duties, such as opening and answering letters, he was more neglectful than good breeding permits; and one did not know whether to ascribe this fault to indolence or to a superb disregard of everybody but himself. Such disregard he often showed in greater matters, taking no notice of attacks made upon him which he might have refuted, and sometimes declaring in the House of Commons that the opinions of Englishmen did not in the least affect him, since it was to his own country only that he recognized any responsibility. But he treated even his own countrymen in a somewhat disdainful and somewhat irresponsible way. He would sometimes remain away from Parliament for weeks together, even when important business was being considered, perhaps even vanishing altogether from public ken. Yet this lordly attitude and the air of mystery which surrounded him did not seem to be studied with a view to effect. They were due to his habit of thinking first and chiefly of himself. If he desired to indulge his inclinations, he indulged them. Some extremely strong motive of passion or interest might interpose to restrain this desire and stimulate him to an unwelcome exertion; but no respect for the opinion of others, nor fear of censure from his allies or friends, would be allowed to do so. This boundless self-confidence and independence contributed greatly to his success as a leader. They gave him faith in his own fortune, they inspired a conviction that obstacles whose reality his judgment recognized would ultimately yield to his will, an undismayed fortitude in crises which only once forsook him—in the moment of panic which followed the Phœnix Park murders of 1882. The confidence which he felt, or appeared to feel, reacted upon his party, and was perhaps the chief ground of their obedience to him and their belief in his superior wisdom. His calmness, his tenacity, his patience, his habit of listening quietly to every one, but deciding for himself, were all evidences of that resolute will which imposed itself upon the Irish masses no less than upon his Parliamentary following, and secured for him a loyalty in which there was little or nothing of personal affection.

In all these regards pride was a source of strength. In another direction, however, it proved a source of weakness. There are men in whom the want of moral principle, of noble emotions, or of a scrupulous conscience and nice sense of honor, is reinforced by respect for the opinion of their class or of the world. Such men may hold through life a tolerably upright course neither from the love of virtue nor because they are ambitious and anxious to stand well with those whom they aspire to influence or rule, but because, having a sense of personal dignity, combined with a quiet perception of the feelings of those around them, they are resolved to do nothing whereby their good name can be tarnished or an opening given to malicious tongues. But when pride towers to such a height as to become a law to itself, disregarding the judgment of others, it may not only lead its possessor into an attitude of defiance which the world resents, but may make him stoop to acts of turpitude which fatally discredit his character. Mr. Parnell was certainly an unscrupulous man. Without dwelling upon his relations to Mrs. O'Shea, his betrayal of Mr. Gladstone's confidences, and his reckless appeals during the last year of his life to the most inflammable elements in Ireland, there are facts enough in his earlier career to show that he had little regard for truth and little horror for crime. A revolution may extenuate some sins, but even in a revolution there are men (and sometimes the strongest men) whose moral excellence shines through the smoke of conflict and the mists of detraction. In Mr. Parnell's nature the moral element was imperfectly developed. He seemed cynical and callous; and it was probably his haughty self-reliance which prevented him from sufficiently deferring to the ordinary moralities of mankind. His pride, which ought to have kept him free from the suspicion of dishonor, made him feel dispensed from the usual restraints. Whatever he did was right in his own eyes, and no other eyes need be regarded. Phenomena somewhat similar were observable in Napoleon. But Napoleon was obviously not a gentleman in the common sense of the term. Mr. Parnell was a gentleman in that sense. He had the bearing, the manners, the natural easy dignity of a man of good birth who has always moved in good society. This made his departures from what may be called the inner and higher standard of gentlemanly conduct all the more remarkable.

He has been accused of a want of physical courage. It is certain that after the Phœnix Park murders he asked the authorities in England for police protection, being, not unnaturally, in fear for his life; and that he habitually carried fire-arms. But these facts are hardly sufficient to justify the charge. Moral courage he showed in a high degree during his whole public career, facing his antagonists with an unshaken front, even when they were most numerous and bitter. Though he intensely disliked imprisonment, the terms on which he came out of Kilmainham left no discredit upon him. He behaved with perfect dignity under the attacks of the *Times* in 1887, and in the face of what turned out to be the forgeries of Richard Pigott—forgeries which the bulk of the English upper classes greedily swallowed. With this courage and dignity, however, there was little to show magnanimity. He seldom said a generous word, or showed himself responsive to such a word spoken by another. Accustomed to conceal his feelings, except in his most excited moments, he rarely revealed, but he certainly cherished, vindictive sentiments. He never forgave either Mr. W. E. Forster or Mr. Gladstone for

having imprisoned him in 1881; and though he stood in some awe of the latter, whom he considered the only really formidable antagonist he had ever striven with, he bore him a grudge which smouldered under the reconciliation of 1886 and leapt into flame in the manifesto of November, 1890.

The union in Mr. Parnell of intense passion with strenuous self-control struck all who watched him closely, though it was seldom that passion so far escaped as to make the contrast visibly dramatic. Usually he was cold, grave, deliberate, repelling advances with a sort of icy courtesy. He hardly ever lost his temper in the House of Commons, even under the sarcasms of his former friends, though the low, almost hissing tones of his voice sometimes betrayed an internal struggle. But during the electoral campaign in Kilkenny, in December, 1890, when he was fighting for his life, he was more than once so swept away by anger that those beside him had to hold him back from jumping off the platform into the crowd to strike down some one who had interrupted. Suspended for a moment, his mastery of himself quickly returned. Men were astonished to observe how, after some of the stormy passages in the Committee Room No. 15 debates in December, 1890, he would address quietly, perhaps lay his hand upon the shoulder of, those who had just been denouncing him, and on whom he had poured all the vitriol of his fierce tongue. As this could not have been good-nature, it must have been either calculated policy or a sort of scorn for those whom he had been wont to deem his subjects. Kindliness was never ascribed to him; nor had he, so far as could be known, a single intimate friend.

Oratory is the usual avenue to leadership in a democratic movement, and Mr. Parnell is one of the very few who have arrived at power neither by that road nor by military success. So far from having by nature any of the gifts or graces of a popular speaker, he was at first conspicuously deficient in them, and became at last effective only by constant practice, and by an intellectual force which asserted itself through commonplaceness of language and an unimpassioned delivery. He had no fluency, and acquired even moderate ease only after four or five years. His voice was not powerful nor delicate in its modulations, but it was clear, and the enunciation was deliberate, distinct, quiet when the matter was ordinary, slow and emphatic when an important point arrived. With very little action of the body, there was often an interesting and obviously unstudied play of feature. So far from possessing any of that florid rhetoric or imaginative fertility which are supposed to characterize Irish eloquence, his speeches were singularly plain, bare and dry. Neither had they any humor. If they ever raised a smile, which seldom happened, it was by some touch of sarcasm or adroit thrust at a point left unguarded by an adversary. Their merit lay in their lucidity, in their aptness to the matter in hand, in the strong, practical sense which ran through them, coupled with the feeling that they came from one who led a nation, and whose forecasts had often fulfilled themselves. They gave the impression of having been carefully prepared, and were usually made from pretty full notes, but the preparation had been given rather to the matter and the arrangement than to the diction, which had rarely any ornament or literary finish. Of late years he spoke infrequently, whether from indolence, or weak health, or because he thought little was to be done in the face of a hostile majority, now that the tactics of obstruction had been abandoned. When he interposed without preparation in a debate which had arisen unexpectedly, he was short, pithy, and eminently practical; indeed, nothing more characterized him than his talent for hitting the nail on the head, a talent which always commands attention in deliberative assemblies. No one saw more clearly or conveyed in terser language the course which the circumstances of the moment required; and as his mastery of Parliamentary procedure and practice was second only to that of Mr. Gladstone, his advice carried great weight. It would, indeed, be no exaggeration to say that during the sessions of 1889 and 1890 he was distinctly the second man in the House of Commons, surpassed, of course, in debating power by four or five others, but inferior to Mr. Gladstone alone in the interest which his speeches excited and in the impression they produced. With this access of influence his attitude and the spirit of his policy seemed to rise and widen. There was less of that hard attorneyism which had marked his criticisms of the Tory Government and their measures up till March, 1880, and of the Liberal Government and their measures during the five following years. He seemed to grow more and more to the full stature of a statesman, with constructive views and a willingness to make the best of the facts as he found them. Yet even in this later and better time one note of greatness was absent from his speeches: there was nothing genial and generous and elevated about them. They never soared into an atmosphere of lofty feeling, worthy of the man who was by this time seen to be leading his nation to victory, and who had begun to be admired and honored by one of the two great historic English parties.

He was not only well versed in the rules of Parliamentary procedure, but also a consummate master of Parliamentary tactics. Very soon after he entered the House of Commons he detected its weak point, and perfected a system of obstruction which so destroyed the efficiency of its time-honored modes of doing business that new sets of rules, each more stringent than the preceding, had to be devised between 1878 and 1888. The skill with which he handled his small but well-disciplined battalion was admirable. He was strict with individuals, requiring absolute obedience to the party rules, but ready to gratify any prevailing current of feeling when he saw that this could be done without serious harm to the cause. More than once, when English members who happened to be acting with him on some particular question pressed him to keep his men quiet and let a division be taken at once, he answered that they were doubtless right in thinking that the moment for securing a good division had arrived, but that he must not muzzle his followers when they wanted to have their fling. The best proof of the tact with which he ruled a section comprising many men of brilliant talents lies in the fact that there was never any serious revolt, or movement towards revolt, against him until the breach of 1890 between himself and the Liberal party had made it clear that his continued leadership would mean defeat at the polls, and the postponement, perhaps for many years, of home rule.

His own political views and tendencies furnished matter for much discussion among those who studied him closely. Many, both among Englishmen and among Irishmen, held that he was at heart a Conservative, valuing strong government and attached to the rights of property. They predicted that if an Irish Parliament had been established, as proposed in 1886, and an Irish cabinet formed to administer the affairs of the island, Mr. Parnell would have been the inevitable and somewhat despotic leader of the reactionary party. His coöperation with the agrarian agitators from 1879 onwards was in this view merely a politic expedient to gain support for the home-rule campaign. For this theory there is much to be said. Though he came to lead a revolution, and was willing, as appeared in the last few months of his life, to appeal to the genuine revolutionary party, he was not by temper or conviction a revolutionist. The Fenians, and those remains of Fenianism out of whom the secret insurrectionary and dynamitard societies were formed, never liked or trusted him. The passion which originally carried him into public life was hatred of England, and a wish to restore to Ireland either her national independence or at least her own Parliament. But he was no democratic leveller, and still less inclined to those Socialistic doctrines which the section influenced by Mr. Davitt has espoused. He did not desire the "extinction of landlordism," and would probably have been a restraining and moderating force in an Irish legislature. That he was genuinely attached to his native country need not be doubted. But his patriotism had little of a sentimental quality, and seemed to spring as much from dislike of England as from love of Ireland.

It may excite surprise that a man such as has been sketched, with so cool a judgment and so complete a self-control, a man (as his previous career had shown) able to endure temporary reverses in the confidence of ultimate success, should have committed the fatal error, which blasted his fame and shortened his life, of clinging to the headship of his party when prudence counselled a retirement. A retirement need not have been of long duration. It can hardly be doubted that if he had, after the sentence of the Divorce Court in November, 1890, gone abroad for eight or ten months, allowing some one to be chosen in his place chairman of the Irish party for the session, he might thereafter have returned to the House of Commons, and might, after some little further loss of time, have naturally recovered the leadership. Unfortunately, the self-reliant pride which had stood him in good stead so often before, made him refuse to bow to the storm. Probably he could not understand the indignation which the proceedings in the divorce case had awakened in England—being morally somewhat callous, and knowing that his offences were no secret to the House of Commons. He had been accustomed to despise English opinion, and had on some former occasions suffered nothing for doing so. He bitterly resented both Mr. Gladstone's letter and the movement to depose him which it roused in his own party. He had so often before found defiant resolution lead to success that he determined again to rely on the maxim which has led so many to ruin, just because it had so much truth in it—"*l'audace, encore de l'audace, toujours de l'audace.*" The affront to his pride disturbed the balance of his mind, and made him feel as if the humiliation of a temporary retirement would destroy the prestige of his haughty self-confidence. It was soon evident that he had overestimated his power in Ireland, but when the schism began there were many besides Lord Salisbury—many in Ireland as well as in England—who predicted triumph for him. Nor must it be thought that it was pure selfishness which made him resolve rather to break with the English Liberals than allow the National cause to be guided by any hands but his own. He was a sort of fatalist, and had that confidence in his star and his mission which often belongs to minds in which superstition

and a morbid taint may be discerned. There were others who believed that no one but himself could hold the Irish party together and carry the Irish cause to triumph. No wonder that this belief should have filled and disordered his own brain.

The swiftness of his rise is a striking instance of the power which intellectual concentration and a strenuous will can exert, for he had no adventitious help from wealth or family connection or the reputation of having suffered for his country. *Ergo vivida vis animi pervicit.* He was only thirty, with no experience of affairs and no gift of speech; but the quality that was in him of leading and ruling men, of taking the initiative, of seeing and striking at the weak point of the enemy, and fearlessly facing the brunt of an enemy's attack, made itself at once felt, and he rose without effort to the first place. With some intellectual limitations and great moral faults, he will stand high in the long and melancholy series of Irish leaders, far less noble than Grattan, far less attractive than O'Connell, far less brilliant than either of them, yet entitled to be remembered as one of the most remarkable figures of our time. O. D.

Correspondence.

GETTING READY FOR THE STORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is interesting to note, as an illustration of the general desire to escape as far as possible the losses which are likely to be incurred by every one, except the silver-mine-owners, in the too probable event of a depreciation of current money, that a leading law stationer here now prints and keeps in stock forms for ordinary bonds and real-estate mortgages, providing for payment in "lawful gold coin of the United States of America of the present standard of weight and fineness," as corporation loans have been made payable for some years past. When spoken to on the subject last winter, the stationer referred to thought the demand for such forms would be slight, but now it is large enough to induce him to provide the supply. The only pity is that the movement did not start earlier. Were all contracts made payable in gold, the silver-men would have no power to threaten the country with a sudden fall in the value of the circulating medium.

Charles C. Finney.

Philadelphia, October 19, 1891.

NOT A FOREGONE CONCLUSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of the 8th of October, you assert that "the minister is not considered as a learner; his views are fixed." Is not this dictum utterly at variance with the theory and practice of an educated ministry? Does the English Church, for instance, bind the hands of her clergy at the outset, and forbid them to study the "great doctrines" and "great questions"? Are the scholarly men of that communion, whether conservative or liberal, breaking their ordination vows? On the contrary, every Episcopal clergyman has solemnly promised to be diligent in study.

But, it will be answered, his study is confined within a narrow range; he has lost his freedom. I fail to see it. Certainly he is not at liberty to teach anything contrary to the doctrine (not doctrines) of the Church. But the very vow that he has taken, "to banish and drive away from the Church all erroneous and strange doctrines," requires him to study the writings and understand the teaching of those who are outside the Church. The defender of the faith must meet the enemy, if he be an enemy, in the open field. Whatever "the theory of the world" may be, certainly it is not the theory of the Church that her clergy are not learners, nor does she require of the young man of twenty-five that he be master of all knowledge. F. L. P.

Cambridge, Mass., October 16, 1891.

[Our correspondent is mistaken. We did not "assert" what he says we did, but spoke only of "the actual conception of the ministerial character." Nor does what he says change our conviction that, both historically and literally, the vows of ordination leave no room for divergence from the creed of the Church. The promise to be "diligent in study," and to "banish and drive away all erroneous and strange doctrine," is subsidiary to the main vow to teach and defend the "doctrine and sacraments . . . as this Church hath received the same." Does our correspondent think it a sign of open-mindedness that "erroneous and strange doctrines" are to be studied only to be banished and driven away? Are they not, *ipso facto*, condemned in advance? Suppose a clergyman should find them, or any of them, not "erroneous," but true? If a candidate should tell his bishop that he left the question open whether they were "erroneous" or not, would that not be considered the equivalent of the "great Crime or Impediment" which ought to prevent such a man from becoming a priest?

We make no assertions about what is or ought to be the actual practice; but we do assert that the wide liberty which many men see provided for in the ordination vows of the different Protestant churches, is an afterthought. The framers of the creeds and the vows did not contemplate it or the need of it. It is not legitimately to be inferred from their exhortation to study. That exhortation may be considered the Nemesis of Protestantism, or its unconscious principle of salvation, as one chooses to look at it. At the Reformation, "study" meant separation from Rome; now it often appears to mean separation from organized Protestantism.—Ed. Nation.]

THE SCHOOL-BOOK COMBINATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To produce good books, it is necessary to secure good authors and editors, and they must be liberally paid. Many books have to be made before the good one is produced. It costs time and money to try these experiments. The business must yield a fair profit to attract men of the necessary ability to engage in it. Important as it is to produce good books, it is no less important that they should be used in the schools. To insure this we must elect to the school boards competent men and women, who know the value of books, and can be relied upon to secure them, no matter how active and unscrupulous may be the influences used against them.

If a great combination, controlling four-fifths of all the books in the country, publicly boasts that it will crush all publishers that do not join it, by giving their own new books without charge in exchange for those of other houses in the schools, and employing all the means that wealth can control for that purpose, is it not time that the people should begin to think what effect this will have upon the schools if accomplished?

We have given the best years of our life to trying to produce good books and place them on the market, by honorable methods, at a fair price. We must leave the result of our efforts to the judgment of others. The people have the whole question in their own hands. If they think it is safe and best for their schools to have the publishing and supplying of all their books absolutely in the control of a single house, all that is necessary will be to take new books for old ones, free of charge, for a few years. Such a course will drive all the educational publishers from the field, and the political wire-puller will have it wholly to himself.

Should the American Book Company, by even-exchanging the books of their competitors in the schools, narrow down the holdings of other houses so that it will be impossible for them to continue business at a profit, it is easy to see that the day when these houses will have to relinquish the field will not be far distant. When the American Book Company have the entire business in their own hands, it may be natural for them to sit down and calculate how much it has cost to get rid of their competitors, and to say to themselves, "Now it is only fair that the public, who have had the benefit of these free books so long, should pay for them." The pay may be exacted in several ways—by raising the price of their books gradually; by giving less discounts; by cheapening the cost of manufacture; by discouraging the sale of their best books, which pay large copyrights to the authors, etc., etc. When, however, they have assessed this amount on the public, is it in accord with human nature to expect that they will stop there? But it may be said that it will not be safe for them to make too much profit on the sale of their books; the public will rebel, and publish for themselves, by States or otherwise.

Now, it is well for us all to look this question fairly in the face in order to comprehend the difficulties to be overcome. In the first place, it requires not only special talent and a long term of service on the part of publisher and editor, but a large outlay of money and time, to produce a good book, under the most favorable conditions. After the American Book Company shall have driven from the field all the trained men in either department, it will not be easy to establish independent houses. There will not only be a lack of ability and experience, but it will require at least $2,000,000 of direct capital to establish houses as good as the present ones. After five years' control of the whole field, the American Book Company will be twice as powerful as at present. Now it is one of the strongest political organizations in the country. It has important interests in every town and city in the land. It has not only a large corps of able and trained agents travelling all the time, but sub-agents and local politicians in all important centres. It is looking after legislation in the various States, and lately we have seen many laws framed for binding them to adopt books for long periods.

Notwithstanding the great power of this remarkably developed political organization and the millions at its command from its vast monopoly, it will lose its terrors when the American people fully realize its evil influence on the educational institutions of the country.

Let the press, the teachers, and the committees jealously guard their rights, and punish by exposure and loss of patronage any infringements, and timid capital will keep to its own legitimate channels. It is not simply a question between rival publishing houses, but one of vital importance to the schools.

EDWIN GINN.

BOSTON, October 21, 1891.

A JAPANESE LIBRARIAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A young gentleman from Japan, who had had some training in the Imperial Library at Tokio, was sent to this country two or three years ago and placed under my charge by the Japanese Minister of Public Instruction, for the purpose of acquiring a knowledge of the methods of administering libraries in this country. He was for a large part of a year under my constant oversight in Cambridge, and then visited, with my introductions, some of the principal libraries of this country and of Europe, previous to his return to his own country. By virtue of the constant reports which he had monthly made when absent, and because of the excellent examination which he passed, he was, soon after his return, placed in charge of the Tokio Library in the Uyeno Park in Tokio, the chief public repository for books in Japan.

I have felt that a letter which I have recently received from him, involving some of his experiences in conducting his library on methods based on our own, might prove interesting to your readers. JUSTIN WINSOR.

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY, Oct. 22.

"TOKIO, September 24, 1891.

"DEAR SIR: . . . I am very much ashamed to say that I have hardly done even one-hundredth of what I intended to do when I came back from Europe. But this is not a fault of myself alone. . . . Still, I have printed two publications, *i. e.*, 'Guide to the Tokio Library' and an 'Essay on the Improvement of the Tokio Library,' both in Japanese, besides doing the usual work of the Library; and I am, of course, trying to do more, and expect to make our Library one of the best in the world. I sent to you an extract of my report some time ago, which you will kindly glance over. I am now compiling an index of the author catalogue of the Imperial University Library, and nothing is more valuable and useful to me than the Index of the Catalogue of Harvard University Library, which you have kindly sent to us, sheet by sheet. I have prepared a paper introducing the Tokio Library to the notice of American libraries, incidentally touching all other libraries in Japan. I wish to give you an extract of it:

"The Tokio Library is national in its character, and is maintained by the State and by the Copyright Act, which gives it a copy of every book, pamphlet, etc., published in the empire. The Library was established in 1872 with about 70,000 volumes. In 1886 it was removed to the Uyeno Park. The place is away from the bustle of the city, with fresh air and evergreens around it. The reading-room accommodates about 200 readers, and is divided into three compartments, viz.: 'special,' 'ladies',' and 'ordinary.' We have two sets of catalogues, viz.: a card catalogue and printed catalogue, both classified. It is now proposed to improve them upon the principle of a dictionary catalogue. A system of lending out books was added three years ago, something like that of the Königliche Bibliothek of Berlin. The Library now contains 97 550 Japanese and Chinese books and 25,559 European books, besides about 100,000 of duplicates, popular books, etc., which are not used. The average number of books used is 337,262 a year. By applying 'the principle of multiplication of utility,' the average turn-over of each book used is about 2 5+, and, by dividing by the total issue of books, the average cost of each issue is 2 3 ten. By comparing the number of books used and the classes of books read during the last year, we see that 21.5 per cent. are in history, geography, etc., 21 per cent. in literature and language; 17.2 per cent. in science and medicine, and 13.4 per cent. in law and politics. This comparison gives some idea of the inclination of the reading public.

"The Library of the Imperial University comprises all the books belonging to the University. These books are solely for the use of the instructors, students, and pupils, no admittance being granted to the general public. The library contains 77,991 European books and 101,217 Japanese and Chinese books.

"As to other small libraries, there are only eight public and ten private libraries in different parts of the empire. The books contained in them are 66,912 Japanese and Chinese and 7,531 European books, with only 43,911 visitors!

"Besides these, in most towns of respectable size there are generally two or three small circulating libraries which contain books consisting chiefly of light literature and historical works popularly treated. The proprietors of these libraries or their assistants go about from patron to patron every day, leaving with him the books he requires. These books are loaned for a small sum, which varies according to the quality of books and also length of time during which the books are to be kept. There are about sixty libraries of this description in the city of Tokio alone.

"The past summer has been very warm in Japan, and the farmers are very glad, as it has given hope of good crops this autumn. . . .

"Yours sincerely,
"I. TANAKA."

THE LATE DR. ROBERT LOWELL AND NEWFOUNDLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reason for the Rev. Dr. Lowell's leaving Newfoundland was very creditable to him. In 1847 there was a severe famine in Bay Roberts (Conception Bay), where he was stationed as a clergyman of the Church of England. The people lived for some weeks on a scanty supply of potatoes alone, and, when these were exhausted, were obliged to eat damaged oatmeal. It took a long time in those days to communicate with St. Johns. Dr. Lowell labored among the people both as clergyman and physician (he being both), and shared their privations. His health gave way under the strain, and he was obliged to leave Newfoundland to regain it. If I am not mistaken, he did not return directly to the United States, but spent some time first at Bermuda. I give the foregoing from the remembrance of a conversation with Dr. Lowell and his wife about sixteen months ago.

I find no mention of the famine at Bay Roberts in 1847 in any of the histories of Newfoundland. Seasons of scarcity, when affecting only limited districts, were probably too common to attract special attention from outsiders. Dr. Lowell had nothing to do either with the politics or with the material development of the island, and it is these things which have chiefly concerned the historians. He led there the quiet life of a scholar and student of human nature, and was known to few besides "planters" and simple fishermen. There is little, however, in Newfoundland history that is better worth knowing than that a man so gifted in mind and beautiful in character once lived for four or five years in Conception Bay, and that all his life afterwards (I had his own word for it) he loved Newfoundland and Newfoundlanders.

JOHN C. COZENS.

AMSTERDAM, N. Y., October 20, 1891.

THE LATE GENERAL WILD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your recent remarks on the eulogy business find an echo in many a disgusted bosom. "De mortuis nil nisi bonum" is an excellent maxim, no doubt, but with regard to one at least of the biographees so profusely eulogized in some of the daily papers, one cannot but recall that other plain English saying, "Least said, soonest mended." On the other hand, in the same journals which report these "funeral orgies" is given, among "other deaths," a bare notice of the passing away of a man of another sort, whose memory calls up a thrill or a tear among older readers familiar with his record.

Brig.-Gen. Edmund A. Wild of Brookline, Mass., died at Medellin, Colombia, South America, September 4, at the age of sixty-five years. As a young man he was a graduate of one of the medical schools of his day, and followed the profession of physician in the Turkish service and elsewhere with honor. Profession and all else were thrown aside without doubt or hesitation when our civil war broke out, and he entered our volunteer army and took his place among the leaders of our war for freedom. In one of the early encounters he lost an arm, but continued to serve, and earned the respect and admiration of all who knew him as a soldier. He was one of those uncompromising men about whose character and onward course no one could ever doubt. Impaired health and a maimed body were probably the only impediments to his rising beyond the rank of Brigadier-General.

An instance showing his sense of commercial honor will give a touch of his quality in that particular. He returned from the war minus an arm and almost reduced to a living skeleton, and, seeking neither office nor pension, went West to earn his living in mining, a few friends making up a moderate sum of money which they invested in the mine of which he took charge, he having also a share in the adventure. Mining ventures sometimes give enormous returns, but often prove failures, as this one did. Gen. Wild almost disappeared from sight for some years, keeping in communication only with the nearest circle of his friends at the East; but at last a stroke of good fortune overtook him, and the first his partners in the old mine heard from him was an offer to buy back the shares which they had taken in it, at the original cost, to be paid for out of money he had made in a new and successful venture.

No doubt there are other such occurrences taking place from time to time, but they are so rare as to make it worth while to record this characteristic instance in a life of noble courage and self-devotion. Surely there should be something more than the inscription in some country churchyard, "Died, Edmund Wild, 1891." SENEX.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. will publish directly 'The Shield of Love,' a novel by B. L. Farjeon.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will have ready next month 'Countess Erika's Apprenticeship,' from the German of Ossip Schubin, by Mrs. A. L. Wister.

'The Anarchists: A Picture of Civilization at the Close of the Nineteenth Century,' from the German of John Henry Mackay; and 'Holiday Stories,' by Stephen Fiske, are about to be issued by Benj. R. Tucker, Boston.

'Elton Hazelwood: A Memoir,' by "Henry Vane" (Francis George Scott), is in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

A text-book of 'Rudimentary Ethics,' by George M. Steele, LL.D., will bear the imprint of Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'Short Courses of Reading in English Literature,' by Prof. C. T. Winchester of Wesleyan University.

A translation of Herbart's 'Allgemeine Pädagogik,' by Henry M. Felkin, has been edited and furnished with an introduction by Oscar Browning, and will be brought out next month by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Macmillan & Co. are going to reprint the Lincoln's Inn sermons of the late F. D. Maurice in a new edition of six volumes. We have received the first volume, containing twenty sermons in 305 pages.

Dulness is the note of the selection entitled 'William Morris: Poet, Artist, Socialist,' made from his writings by Francis Watts Lee (New York: Humboldt Publishing Company). One feels that it is not alone the vagueness of the ideal, but the language, which produces such a soporific effect. Mr. Morris's archaistic style, applied to socialistic discussion, resembles a political economy in words of one syllable for infants. Infantile is the whole quarrel with machinery and invention, save (with a halting exception) the power loom; the horror of a surplus in production, like nature's abhorrence of a vacuum; the denunciation of trade; and all the suggestions of a way out of overpopulation, congested districts, too constant and inconstant employment, unequal distribution of wealth and leisure, and the other standing evils of the struggle for existence. Nor are Morris's socialistic hymns or "chants" at the end of the volume any more inspiring than his prose argumentation. The "Socialists," too, who will sing them are not Lancashire millhands or East End paupers.

Mr. Andrew Lang himself points out, in the preface to his 'Blue Poetry Book' (Longmans), the striking proportion of Scotch verse, as if to redress the balance of Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury,' where he thinks it odd that the ratio should be but one in ten. He overlooks here the editor's aim to make an *English* anthology; and in giving so much Scotch dialect to his "lads and lassies," Mr. Lang overlooks the influence of his own nationality in guiding him "by recollections of what particularly pleased himself in youth." He has another excuse, however, that he wanted poems of action and adventure; and on another side he sought poems "full of witchery and music," which alone explains his selections from Poe. Longfellow and Bryant are the only other American poets thus honored. We have no fault to find with Mr. Lang's defence of his inserting pieces to some extent above the child's comprehension —and there are plenty of them; but he seems to us to reach a climax when he ends his volume with Wordsworth's allusive sonnet on the departure of Sir Walter Scott from Abbotsford for Naples! The particular note of British patriotism, for which Campbell has been well drawn upon, will ring false on this side of the Atlantic. On the whole, we prefer Mr. Cabot Lodge's 'Ballads and Lyrics'—especially because it has no pictures, and such pictures!

Mr. Laurence Hutton, whose work on the 'Literary Landmarks of London' put all pilgrims to the shrines of literature in his debt, has performed the same pious service for the other most notable literary city of Britain, "the gray metropolis of the North," toward which perhaps as many American lovers of literature bend their steps. His 'Literary Landmarks of Edinburgh' (Harpers) is a thin little volume, but it contains much matter about the local habitations of the literary worthies of Scotland; it is amply illustrated with both portraits and views of streets and houses, and it is made entertaining with anecdote and kept so by the genuine interest of the guide in what he has to point out. He has made one identification that is of special significance, the house in which Scott saw Burns and heard him speak. It was at Adam Fergusson's that this famous meeting took place, but there has been doubt as to where Fergusson then lived. Mr. Hutton identifies the house as Sciennes House, on the north side of Braid's Place, two doors from the street called "The Sciennes," and he gives for the first time a photograph of it. In the rest of the volume there is nothing to be singled out, but there is much that is taking, and occasionally we are reminded of some curious fact, such as that Scott, who placed a commemoration stone over the grave of "Helen Walker, the humble individual who practised in real life the virtues with which fiction has invested the imaginary character of Jeanie Deans," neglected entirely the graves of his parents. His mother lies "in an unmarked and unknown grave" near St. John's Church, and his father's place of interment is to be identified only by the register, which describes it as "at the foot of the stone marking the foot of the grave of Alexander Grant." It is said that the Town Council contemplates putting a memorial there.

The pleasant meandering journey which has been a source of mild entertainment to readers of *Harper's* under the title of "The Warwickshire Avon," is now issued by the Harpers with the modest sub-title of 'Notes by A. T. Quiller-Couch.' The sub-title defines the character of the volume best, and not the least attraction of these "notes" consists of the illustrations by Alfred Parsons. Text and cuts run on together on fine paper and through good margins, making an inviting volume at the first glance; but on reading it one is disappointed because the author lacks the touch of beauty and charm of style which are so essential in sketches of river scenery. The chief quality of the volume, therefore, is of the guide-book variety, and lies in what is told us of localities merely, with the advantage of the pictorial collaboration of Mr. Parsons to eke out the unpictorial letter-press. It is agreeable enough; but one knows he is idling his time, and in books meant for idleness even that is a defect.

The issue of the third and fourth volumes of the invaluable Cambridge Shakspere (Macmillan) gives us opportunity to direct attention again to this singularly beautiful and cheap edition, desirable equally for students of Shakspere and for ordinary home use. One volume will be published quarterly until the entire set of nine volumes is completed, and the low price at this rate of issue enables any one who wishes a really good copy of Shakspere to obtain it. The notes, which are purely textual, furnish new illustration of the painstaking thoroughness and indefatigable scholarship of the editor, Mr. Aldis Wright.

The seventh volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers' (Cassell) continues his encyclopædic history of our literature from Caxton to Coverdale, with the same breadth and detail already characterized by us in the notice of previous issues. A considerable space is occupied with an account of the Scotch poets, in which much information about them and their writings, not accessible in so convenient a shape elsewhere, may be found; and on the English side of the border the scholars who revived learning at the universities, the early historians, and the writers of the Reformation, are attended to. The scope of the work may be judged by the fact that in this comparatively obscure period Prof. Morley makes special mention of upwards of seventy authors, besides those who are classed as minor and anonymous. There are the usual valuable bibliographies at the end.

Among the series of University Extension Manuals, Prof. Knight's 'Philosophy of the Beautiful, being Outlines of the History of Æsthetics' (Charles Scribner's Sons), deserves special attention because of the novelty of its scheme. The author confines himself to an account of what thinkers on the nature of the beautiful have given as their conclusions, from the time of Plato and Aristotle, and has thus made what is really a history of opinion on the subject. Owing to the nature of the subject, much of this opinion is fragmentary, and at times is hardly more than suggestive, but these portions of the work are hardly less valuable than those which reproduce elaborate theories such as Schiller's and Hegel's. The predominant strain of thought is naturally Platonizing, but the materialists have justice done to them in stating their views. Any one who is interested in the fundamental truths that underlie art in all its forms, whether plastic or literary, will find here a mine of information and suggestion, and especially that consensus of thought which is most profitable for conviction or conversion, as the case may be. Prof. Knight surveys the whole literature of the subject, but, as he remarks, his familiarity with minor writers is naturally greatest in his own language, and consequently the view of British opinion occupies more than one-third of the volume. America, including Canada, is represented, we regret to say, by only fourteen pages, covering the period since 1815, and, except for Emerson, the section is quite barren of names of great distinction.

A useful little volume on 'Dante and his Ideal,' by Herbert Baynes (Macmillan), contains a sketch of the scheme and meaning of the 'Divine Comedy,' sufficiently illustrated from the other works and the Life of Dante, which will serve very well as an introduction for ordinary readers, and may profitably be consulted by them before undertaking the perusal of the work itself. It is very free from abstract statement and vague speculation, and does not undertake to deal with the dark portions of the text. It is, in fact, a sort of lecture, such as might be prepared for a popular audience, and is as little difficult as the nature of the subject permits; but it is to be regretted that the author does not translate all he quotes from the Italian and German. We take pleasure in recommending it to those who may wish to make acquaintance with the great poem of Italy and the Middle Age, which, unlike most great poems, does require an introduction of this sort to remove difficulties from the path. A frontispiece of Giotto's portrait of Dante ornaments the volume.

An edition of the tenth book of Quintilian, by Principal Peterson of University College, Dundee, has just been published by the Clarendon Press (Macmillan). It is a large volume, and the text is preceded by essays upon the author himself, the style, language, and nature of his book, with the place it holds in literary criticism, and upon the manuscripts. The explanatory notes, printed on the same page with the text, are extremely full and excellent in quality; the critical notes follow in an appendix. The editor ascribes considerable importance to two Harleian MSS. in the British Museum; of one of these (No. 2664) he gives a collation never before published, and a specimen page in collotype. Heretofore the only worthy edition of this book in English has been that of an American scholar, the late Prof. Frieze. The present editor has availed himself of the best works by Germans, and his

book may be highly commended to students and scholars.

Mrs. Dyson's 'Story of the Trees' (Thomas Nelson & Sons) is a pretty full description of English trees, with some account of a few exotic ones, intermingled with scraps of history, mythology, and moral reflections. It is evidently written with the hope of teaching a good deal of the knowledge of trees to children so young that they will not be contented with the oak unless King Charles is hidden in it, or the ash unless they can imagine the eagle and the squirrel of the ancient Scandinavians in its branches, and shudder at the serpent which gnaws its root. The book contains much that is interesting about trees, and has a good picture of an English oak and of a Himalayan deodar, and perhaps enough of William Tell, Wat Tyrrel, Diomedes, Odin, and other personages, historical and mythical, to make the botanical part of it digestible.

Another book of the same general kind is Miss Bergen's 'Glimpses at the Plant World' (Boston: Lee & Shepard). It is addressed to "Dear Children"; but the language is often rather involved and above their comprehension. It glances at the field of fungi, mosses, ferns, and flowers; has something about the transportation of pollen by bees and butterflies, and in the last chapters passes from "Jack" and his dandelion to plumed and winged seeds generally. It is, however, more likely to afford amusement to botanists than to attract children by the now fashionable mixture of sugar-plums and science.

Poor's 'Handbook of Investment Securities' (H. V. & H. W. Poor) contains a large amount of valuable information very badly arranged. Financial advertisements have been scattered broadcast through the volume, and are encountered in the most unexpected and inappropriate places. The table of contents is hidden in a cloud of advertisements, and the only index is one of advertisers. The collection of facts and figures is probably accurate, though a cursory examination shows that it is not invariably and absolutely so; but the judicious investor will do well to bear in mind the old adage that nothing is so misleading as facts except figures.

'The Swordsman,' by Captain Alfred Hutton (B. Westermann & Co.), is a neat and convenient manual of fencing. The only novelty in it is the suggestion of *blindfolded lessons* in defence, which, it is claimed, impart that delicate sense of touch which the French call *sentiment du fer*. Considerable space is rightly given to sabre-play, which, from the military point of view, is the most important development of fencing.

The paraphrase of Charron's 'Traité de la Sagesse,' by Myrtilla H. N. Daly, under the title of 'A Treatise on Wisdom' (Putnams), is a condensation of the lengthy and frequently tedious work of the French moralist. Charron will stand a very much better chance of being read and appreciated in this form, though it is an open question whether the enthusiastic judgment of Buckle and of the paraphraser will be endorsed by a reader acquainted with other moralists as well.

Gazier's 'Petite Histoire de la Littérature Française' (A. Colin & Cie.) is a catalogue of biographical notices of authors arranged in chronological order, rather than a history properly so called. Analyses of the principal works, exceedingly brief for the most part, and a very full, though in one respect defective, chronological table, are commendable features.

The *Revue Critique* is by long habit cool in tone and chary in bestowing its approval. This characteristic emphasizes greatly the unstinted praise which it lavishes in its issue of September 28 upon M. Max Bonnet's book, 'Le Latin de Grégoire de Tours' (Hachette, 1890). We will not attempt to make any summary of an article which is in its full shape severely compact, but merely note it, and the book to which it relates, for the benefit of lovers of the Latin tongue and of philologists generally. The book, the *Revue* says, is "une continuelle leçon de philologie."

No work of the late P. A. Alarcón was more famous than 'El Sombrero de tres Picos,' and none seemed more hopelessly untranslatable into English. An old folk-tale, saturated to the marrow with the Spanish flavor, it was an audacious thing in Mr. F. J. Amy to attempt its translation, as he has done under the title 'The Cocked Hat' (Minerva Publishing Co.). The work is certainly well done; barring a few minor slips, it is as well done as possible. Even so, the transfer from one language to another is attended by inevitable loss; and what is racy and redolent of the soil in the Spanish too often seems only odd or pointless in English.

The changes in Syria and Palestine within the past ten years are the subject of a striking communication in the London *Spectator* for October 10. Among these the large increase of foreign settlers, chiefly Germans and Jews, is perhaps the most important. The latter now number about 70,000, nearly half of whom are in Jerusalem, which has again become a Jewish city, three-fifths of its inhabitants being Jews. Their agricultural colonies have increased in number and "apparently in efficiency," but they are not yet a success, and their further progress is checked by the recent order from Constantinople "that no land be sold to Jews." The governing power of the Turk has greatly increased, even the turbulent Bedouin tribes beyond the Jordan having been brought under control, so that one may travel in that wild region with perfect safety. Some of these nomads have actually been prevailed upon to settle down to agriculture, and are becoming fellahin. The plain of Esdraelon, which formerly was cultivated only in small patches for fear of the desert marauders, is now "one almost unbroken sea of wheat." The same is true of the Hauran, a "wheat field which stretches south from Hermon some sixty miles, by some thirty broad." This region it is proposed to open to commerce by the railway from Haifa to Damascus, for which a concession has been granted. The educational institutions, Protestant, Roman Catholic, Greek, and Mohammedan, have so multiplied in efficiency and numbers that in Syria the opportunities for a thorough education are second only to those of the first-class European States. The crown of the whole, the "centre of light and leading for all the Levant," is the American College at Beirut. Among the minor changes are the increase of vine-growing and of drunkenness, the wearing Frankish boots and shoes, and the substitution of Russian oil from Batum for the once universally used American petroleum.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a timely addition to his large and valuable series of imperial panel photographs, viz., a portrait of Bishop Phillips Brooks. It is an excellent likeness of the latest disturber of our theologic peace.

—The October number of *Mind* closes the first cycle of that excellent journal, and bears in bold letters on its front the announcement that Mr. G. F. Stout of Cambridge is henceforward to be its editor, in place of Prof. Croom Robertson, resigned. An index to the sixteen past volumes, and a word of valedictory from the past editor, also distinguish the present number. All students of philosophy will regret deeply that Prof. Robertson's bad health has forced him at last to relinquish duties which he always carried on as a labor of love, and for his successful performance of which so far he has earned their lasting thanks. *Mind*, in short, has been admirably edited. Impartiality, completeness, and especially promptitude of information about new philosophical books, and punctuality of appearance, have all characterized it. We Americans have particularly good grounds to feel cordially towards *Mind* for its steady hospitality to contributions from our side of the water, during years when no other vehicle of publication (save our own somewhat wayward *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*) was open to our lucubrations. Now that we have the *American Journal of Psychology*, and shall soon have the bi monthly *Journal of Philosophy* (about to be published at Cornell), we shall be less dependent. What the new *Mind* will do in its turn without American psychological contributions remains to be seen. The study of psychology seems in Great Britain—the native country of the science—to be sinking to the lowest ebb, while in France, Germany, and the United States it advances like a "tidal wave." It seems even likely now (with all our new university laboratories for psychology and young men in charge of them) that we may fill our own journals without diminishing our supplies of psychological material to the older review.

—*Mind* and the *Revue Philosophique* were launched almost simultaneously. *Mind* is a quarterly, the *Revue Philosophique* a monthly. The supply of articles for the French journal seems to have been the more profuse. Moreover, if we are rightly informed, it more than pays for itself, while its English rival has had to make up a large yearly deficit, and, as we are now informed by the editor, has been enabled to do so only through the public spirit of Prof. Bain. To be sure, it has been an advantage to the *Revue Philosophique* to be published in a country which has a "Minister of Public Instruction" who by a stroke of his pen could order every secondary school in the land to subscribe. Nevertheless, the fact distinctly appears, when one compares the two periodicals, that the "philosophical movement" during the last fifteen years has shown a good deal more vitality in France than in England. The English universities are partly to blame for this—Cambridge, in particular, does almost nothing for the encouragement of philosophic study; and now, as always, England neglects organization, and keeps up her old habit of trusting to Providence to raise up the needful number of private gentlemen and amateur geniuses to keep her reputation in the various branches of the ideal from going to decay. It is true that they have never failed her so far. But while waiting for their advent, is it not better to organize the secondary talents to be ready to coöperate with them when they come?

—Mr. Gustav Kruell's graver is never idle. To have produced in the course of six months two such masterpieces as his Lincoln and Webster was already a *tour de force;* but he has now added a portrait of the late James Russell Lowell which, as it satisfies his family and most intimate friends, so will be accepted by the public as the most authentic and artistic likeness extant. "All who knew him and loved him best who have seen this portrait," writes one of that favored circle, "agree with me in this estimate of it," namely, that

no better presentation of the poet in his latter years can be made. What is especially striking in it, from a technical point of view, is the appropriate difference in the treatment between it and the portraits of Webster and Lincoln—the absence of mannerism. The character of each person has been successfully revealed by the mere method of handling, while the connoisseur is at a loss to pronounce on the comparative merits of the respective engravings. Mr. Kruell has chosen to offer the Lowell at a lower price than any of his previous works, but the inference would be wholly false that he puts a less estimate on his latest performance. The contrary is more likely to be true, and a more popular sale has doubtless been anticipated. The original of this portrait is a photograph by Pach taken early in the present year. Mr. Kruell's address is East Orange, N. J.

—The English Dialect Society has put out three more of its annual publications through Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. One of these, 'Ablaut in the Modern Dialects of the South of England,' is translated from Bülbring's 'Geschichte des Ablaute, etc.,' by W. A. Badham, with an introduction by Prof. Skeat. The other two are, respectively, 'A Supplement to the Sheffield Glossary,' by Sidney Oldall Addy, and 'Rutland Words,' by the Rev. Christopher Wordsworth. There is a great deal that is curious in the new Sheffield vocabulary, and Mr. Addy holds that it bears evidence, "both in living words and ancient field-names," of a strong Norse influence, owing to the Danish occupation of the southernmost part of the county of York. Thus, he refers "Old Harry" to "the O. Icel. *harri*, lord, so that the meaning is 'the old lord'"; and he connects Organ Stubbing, a field in Crookes, with a Celtic root *argun*, 'a forest,' which Förstemann guesses may be the Hercynia Silva of Cæsar and Tacitus. Another odd field-name is Two Days' Work, and there is mention also of One Day Work and Five Days' Work. *Abeless*, 'incompetent, careless, listless, awkward'; *bastard*, in the sense of 'female' as applied to a tree, or of 'puny' as applied to a child; and *forth put*, 'energy,' are other Sheffield peculiarities. In Rutland we come upon *acquainted*, 'in the first stage of courting,' *anew* (*enew*), 'enough,' upon which Mr. Wordsworth remarks that "Prof. Conington, who came from a neighboring district (South Lincolnshire), more than once, in his Translation of Horace, makes 'enow' rhyme with 'due'"; *backen*, 'to retard,' which we have heard in use in this country; *chump*, 'a thick log of wood,' used also of a sturdy child; *hewing cry*, for 'hue and cry'; *not well*, 'unwell,' the latter word "said to have been coined by Horace Walpole"; and *Viper's Dance*, for 'Saint Vitus's Dance.' "I have heard '*invitus*' hazarded as the etymology of the name of this malady," says Mr. Wordsworth humorously, and he proceeds to correct a vulgar belief that St. Vitus is a saint of the Protestant imagination. "He was a noble Sicilian saint, patron of dancers and of those who have a difficulty in early rising" (June 15, A. D. 303).

—The first issue of a new edition of Peacock's novels comes to us with an introduction from the pen of Dr. R. Garnett, whose name is a sufficient warrant for the excellence of the editorial work. He has chosen 'Headlong Hall' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.) to begin the series, and the publishers have made a very pretty book of it, with clear type, an ornamented title-page, a charming little frontispiece, and an attractive cover. The Introduction is of the nature of a biographical essay, in which the editor has done the best for a man who desired that no life of him should be written. Some privately printed memorials of him exist, and out of what could properly be used of these and a few other sources of information in Dr. Garnett's own control, together with what has been necessarily recorded of him in Shelley's biography, the present sketch has been made. His life was uneventful, but his character was idiosyncratic and interesting; and, apart from his fortune in being Shelley's friend and the recipient of the Italian letters, he won a certain place for himself, both as a lover of literature and as a producer of a new kind of fiction. Dr. Garnett traces its origin to the author's failure in comedy, which he tried first; and the style of "that original creation, the Peacockian novel," as the editor calls it, is well described by him as "the spirit of comedy diffused in exemption from the restraints of the stage, like gas liberated by the disintegration of a solid." These novels, of which 'Headlong Hall' is the first, have not been popular, but they have enjoyed the success of being liked by a few; they are too much intellectualized and too abnormal in their characterization of what our ancestors called "humors" to appeal to any but somewhat cultivated and leisurely readers; but they do constitute a special kind, and have an historical interest as one type of satirical literature.

—Very little criticism either of the novels or of Peacock's other works is indulged in by the editor, but he makes out his author's individuality in his actual life very clearly and agreeably, and tells some anecdotes of his life which it is pleasant to know. He records, too, Tennyson's liking for a poem of Peacock's, called "Newark Abbey," which he quotes, as Peacock's poems are not to be included in the reprint. The verses have great simplicity, with grace of feeling, and are not of the sort which would naturally be expected from the author of "The Genius of the Thames." Dr. Garnett takes occasion also to make the *amende honorable* by retracting some criticism, which he now thinks unjust, though not inexcusable at the time, made on Peacock when he published in *Fraser's* the well-known papers on Shelley and his first wife. We observe no mention in the essay of the sketch of Peacock by Robert Buchanan in his 'Glance around Literature,' which affords a sympathetic view of him, nor of the fact there alleged of his learning Spanish when nearly eighty, a feat which certainly deserves to be recorded, if true. Altogether, it is pleasant to find that a man who was honored by Shelley's friendship was more attractive in his personality than those who know him only through Shelley's biography would suppose; and it is to be hoped that the republication of his singular works will be sufficiently successful to insure its completion. It would seem, too, that a minor poet who won the praise of Shelley and Poe and also of Tennyson should have enough of interest in his verse to justify its reissue by itself, for the edition of his works in three volumes is, we believe, hard to come by.

—The most notable letter of Jay, printed in the third volume of the 'Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay,' edited by Prof. Johnston (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is that addressed to the President of Congress, May 19, 1785, recommending that England be approached with an offer to share her privileges of cutting logwood in Honduras and Campeachy—privileges which England herself only enjoyed under a treaty with Spain. The object of this proposal, which we do not remember to have seen in print before, was to slap at Spain through England, and is all the more notable as being made on the eve of the arrival of Gardoqui, charged with the important negotiations relating to boundaries, the navigation of the Mississippi, and other matters that had been pending so long. Why the editor should see fit to print this letter, and suppress everything of importance that pertained to the subsequent negotiations with Gardoqui, is a question difficult to answer. The Mississippi and Spanish negotiations were a most powerful factor from the Revolution to the purchase of Louisiana, and were the origin of that intense distrust of Jay by the Southern States which almost overthrew Washington's Administration. The positive additions to our knowledge which this volume brings consist entirely of letters to Jay. A note from Washington, enclosing some tickets for the theatre, begs that Mr. and Mrs. Jay "may not feel themselves embarrassed in the smallest degree, upon the occasion, if they have any reluctance to visiting the theater." A letter from Mrs. Jay on the New York election proves that she was as keen a politician as her husband, and a philosopher, too: "Much rather would I lose a crown as you have lost the office contended for, than gain an empire upon the terms Gov. Clinton steals into his." Some new letters are printed from E. Rutledge, Hopkinson, Troup, Richard Price, Jefferson, and Franklin, and one more glimpse is afforded of Kitty Livingston, of whom we would know more.

—The many errors of this volume would justify more than a passing notice. The manuscript is not followed, omissions are made without any marks to indicate them, and small attention is paid to a proper proof-reading. A little care would have prevented the occurrence of such misprints as *Olto* for Otto (173), *Munroe* for Monroe (90), *Humphrey* for Humphreys (226), *Varville* for Warville (345), or *Montiers* for Moustiers (162). Temple Franklin may have written "Hudon," but he might have known better; and we doubt if Mrs. Jay wrote *Canzwort* for Gansvoort. In the 'Life of Jay' Ceracchi is spelled correctly; but Mr. Johnston turns it into *Ciracchi*. The dates of letters are often misleading. The letter from Hamilton (page 404) is printed without date; yet the 'Life of Jay' prints the letter with the proper date, November 13, 1790. Washington wrote on the 1st, not the 15th of August (p. 207), and Jay's letter to Jefferson (p. 178) was dated the 19th and not the 9th. Why should two dashes and an ? be inserted on page 245, when a simple reference to the printed 'Diplomatic Correspondence' would have given the proper words—*festina lente*? It was John, not James Lowell who was interested in the affair of Soderstrom (not Saderstrom).

THE HISTORY OF MARRIAGE.

The History of Human Marriage. By Edward Westermarck. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

A NEW book on the history of marriage is sure of a welcome, and its interest is not lessened by the fact that, written in English by a foreigner, it is introduced to the public by an eminent English man of science. Mr. Alfred R. Wallace, in an introductory note, declares that he has "seldom read a more thorough or a more philosophic discussion of some of the most difficult and at the same time interesting problems of anthropology." He adds:

"The origin and development of human mar-

riage have been discussed by such eminent writers as Darwin, Spencer, Morgan, Tylor, Lubbock, and many others. On some of the more important questions involved in it all these writers are in general accord, and this agreement has led to their opinions being widely accepted as if they were well-established conclusions of science. But on several of these points Mr. Westermarck has arrived at different, and sometimes diametrically opposite, conclusions, and he has done so after a most complete and painstaking investigation of all the available facts. With such an array of authority on the one side, and a hitherto unknown student on the other, it will certainly be thought that all the probabilities are against the latter. Yet I venture to anticipate that the verdict of independent thinkers will, on most of these disputed points, be in favor of the new comer who has so boldly challenged the conclusions of some of our most esteemed writers. Even those whose views are here opposed will, I think, acknowledge that Mr. Westermarck is a careful investigator and an acute reasoner, and that his arguments as well as his conclusions are worthy of the most careful consideration."

Our space will forbid us to take any part in the tempting controversy of which Mr. Wallace here appears as the herald. We shall rather confine ourselves to the more modest task of attempting to explain how Mr. Westermarck's method of examining the subject differs from that of his predecessors. They have in the main studied marriage as a purely human institution. McLennan, if we remember right, does, indeed, suggest that, inasmuch as man is a descendant of a simian ancestor, the evolution of marriage should be traced further back than man; but he did not attempt anything of the sort himself. Like his fellow-students, he assumed that the problem before him was, taking what we know of primitive marriage from the evidence of the habits and customs of primitive tribes and peoples, to discover how primitive marriage and cognate customs were probably evolved by man, beginning with a condition of promiscuity. To take a very simple case: if we assume this condition as a starting point, it is easy to see how a system of kinship through the mother might spring up, the identity of the father being uncertain. Then we must by some other process explain how it is that the maternal is followed and superseded by the patriarchal system, kinship through the father being the only species recognized by civilized peoples. We have, in other words, a certain body of evidence which seems to show that mankind's marriage customs are evolved in a certain orderly sequence. How, knowing what we do know of man, his nature, appetites, desires, and habits, can we account for this evolution?

Now, Mr. Westermarck at the outset parts company with those who have pursued the subject in this way, and insists that to understand the origin of marriage, we must not stop within the limits of our own species; we must examine the habits of animals, and see whether the germs of marriage are not to be found among them. Without reviewing the evidence, we may say that Mr. Westermarck finds a pretty steady progression among the lowest orders of creation. Defining "marriage" to be "a more or less durable connection" between male and female, "lasting till after the birth of offspring," he finds the first traces of marriage among the Chelonia; with the birds he declares it to be an almost universal institution, while among mammals it is restricted to certain species only, above all, the monkeys, anthropomorphous apes, and man. The following is a specimen of the results of the evidence of family, or married, life among man's first cousins:

"When all these statements are compared, it is impossible to doubt that the gorilla lives in families, the male parent being in the habit of building the nest and protecting the family. And the same is the case with the chimpanzee. According to Dr. Savage, 'it is not unusual to see "the old folks" sitting under a tree regaling themselves with fruit and friendly chat, while "their children" are leaping around them and swinging from branch to branch in boisterous merriment.' And Herr von Koppenfells assures us that the chimpanzee, like the gorilla, builds a nest for the young and female on a forked branch, the male himself spending the night lower down in the tree" (p. 14).

The question now arises, assuming it proved that marriage is not of human invention, but exists in a qualified form among animals, to what does it owe its origin? Considering that the union lasts till after the birth of offspring, and considering also the care taken of the offspring by the father, we may assume that the institution is in some way or other connected with parental duties.

"I am, indeed, strongly of opinion that the tie which joins male and female is an instinct developed through the powerful influence of natural selection. It is evident that when the father helps to protect the offspring, the species is better able to subsist in the struggle for existence than it would be if this obligation entirely devolved on the mother. Paternal affection and the instinct which causes male and female to form somewhat durable alliances, are thus useful mental dispositions, which, in all probability, have been acquired through the survival of the fittest.'

To the question how it can be that among so many animals the father never concerns himself about his progeny, the answer is that marriage is only one of the means by which a species is sustained in the struggle for existence. When parental care is lacking, we find compensation for it in some other way. Among the fishes, for instance, the number of eggs laid is so enormous that the species is preserved without care. The young of reptiles are from the outset able to take care of themselves. Among the highest apes, and in man, the long period of infancy makes a great deal of care necessary, and the necessity for care produces a more or less durable union. Thus we reach the following conclusion: "Marriage and family are thus intimately connected with each other; it is for the benefit of the young that male and female continue to live together. *Marriage is therefore rooted in family, rather than family in marriage,*" and in this Mr. Westermarck states a proposition which appears to be diametrically opposed to a fundamental assumption of most previous investigators.

It will be seen at once that this theory is entirely at war with the commonly held belief in a primitive stage of promiscuity. Mr. Westermarck thinks it more scientific, and in accordance with all the evidence on the subject derived from natural history and the accounts we possess of the customs of savage races, to reject early promiscuity as an unverified and unverifiable hypothesis. He first examines in detail all the groups of social phenomena adduced as evidence in favor of the hypothesis, and shows that they do not prove the fact; and with regard to the supposed connection between promiscuity and kinship in the female line, he declares that there is no general coincidence of what we consider moral and immoral habits with the prevalence of the male and female lines among existing savages. Having thus shown that the hypothesis of promiscuity has no foundation in fact, he proceeds to demonstrate that it is opposed to "all the correct ideas we are able to form with regard to the early condition of man." There is, for example, the fact that promiscuity leads to a pathological condition very unfavorable to fecundity, while infecundity, among savages perpetually fighting with one another, implies failure in the struggle for existence. But the strongest argument against early promiscuity he finds in that disposition to jealousy which is the characteristic alike of the male quadruped and of savage as well as civilized man. Evidence of the indisposition of the very lowest races of men to permit the sharing of marital rights is discovered on all sides. Without going any further into the details of the argument, the conclusion reached is, not that promiscuity or something approaching it may not be found here and there, but that "there is not a shred of genuine evidence for the notion that promiscuity ever formed a general stage in the social history of mankind. The hypothesis of promiscuity, instead of belonging . . . to the class of hypotheses which are scientifically permissible, has no real foundation and is essentially unscientific."

The foregoing will give a good idea of Mr. Westermarck's method, and as to the importance of the result, it is easy to see why Mr. Wallace has so strong an opinion. Anthropology, as a science, is founded on the assumption that mankind tends to pass through certain stages of development. A secondary assumption, in that branch of it which is devoted to the study of marriage, is that the earliest form of the relations of the sexes is promiscuity. From this as a starting point we have been told we must derive polygamy, polyandry, monogamy, the various systems of relationship, etc., etc. Mr. Westermarck boldly declares the hypothesis to be untenable. If he is right, the foundations of the science of anthropology seem to require reëxamination. The subject is one of which the fascination is only equalled by the difficulty, and the difficulty is partly inherent in the nature of the facts which constitute its materials. The evidence consists not only of the recorded history of the customs and laws of civilized man, but of the reports made by travellers of the customs and habits of savages, representing various prehistoric stages of evolution. These reports are subject to more than the usual infirmity which attaches to any human evidence, because they consist of evidence on subjects concerning which the witnesses have generally little or no previous knowledge, and as to which they are constantly liable to be misled. Add to this that there is the widest difference between travellers, both in powers of observation and generalization, in carefulness, and in freedom from prejudice, and we see that the sifting of the evidence bearing upon the problems presented by anthropology is a task of no ordinary magnitude. We know from experience how difficult it is for any traveller to give an account of the habits, customs, and characteristics of any civilized country which its inhabitants or other observers will recognize as accurate, yet if we are told that the Fuegians are very jealous of their wives, or that the Andamanese are a very modest people, we are quite ready to accept it as demonstrated fact.

Another difficulty is that a custom, when ascertained to exist, may represent a normal stage in evolution, and may represent something very different. Suppose, for instance, all contemporaneous written records to be destroyed, what would the future anthropologist make of polygamy in Utah, established in a monogamous country? Would not a perfectly natural and plausible explanation be that the Mormons represented a primitive stage in American civilization, and would not America be cited as another proof that monogamy is everywhere preceded by polygamy? Mr. Westermarck's conclusions, so opposed to

those usually held, and yet based in the main on the same evidence, shows the necessity of sifting, as well as accumulating, the evidence of the facts which afford the material for the ingenious speculations of the anthropologist.

My Three-Score Years and Ten: An Autobiography. By Thomas Ball, A.M. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1891.

AUTOBIOGRAPHIES are generally pleasant reading, and this one is no exception to the rule. Though one of the better of the elder generation of American sculptors, Mr. Ball is hardly an artist of such distinction that an account of his life is a desideratum in art history, nor has that life been so full of strange vicissitude and interesting circumstance as to make the mere recounting of it romantic. It has been a simple life enough, that of a shrewd and thrifty Yankee who, devoting himself to art, made his way in it, and rose from humble beginnings to an enviable position, as he would have done in any other walk of life, by the exercise of his Yankee thrift and shrewdness. But the gentle egotism of a veteran looking back upon the struggle of life pervades the book, and its somewhat loose and colloquial style and chatty, gossipy manner have a distinct charm and leave an agreeable impression.

Thomas Ball was born in Charlestown, Mass., on the 3d of June, 1819, but his family removed, in his early childhood, to Boston, where his youth was passed. His father was a "house, sign, and fancy painter," but, the son is inclined to think, possessed an artistic temperament and longed for a higher class of work than he was able to do. Thomas himself showed no particular love for or interest in art until his fourteenth or fifteenth year. He was gifted, however, with a notable mechanical aptitude, such as is not infrequent with sculptors, which showed itself in ship-building and in the making of musical instruments. He was exceedingly fond of music, and, in later years, supported himself by the use of his voice while he pursued the study of painting, the art to which he was at first devoted. His schooling was interrupted when he was twelve years old by the death of his father and the consequent necessity of earning something towards his own support and that of his family. He was engaged as shop and errand boy first by a retail grocer, then by a merchant tailor, and he has some rather amusing stories to tell of his experiences in these positions. His next step, and, as he thinks, a decisive one in his life, was to enter the employment of the "New England Museum," the nucleus of the "Boston Museum." His duties were to dust pictures, clean glass cases, and show strangers about the collections. He seems to have had an invincible repugnance to the second of these duties, but he soon made himself so useful in repairing and keeping in good order the various mechanical toys of the institution that he won the good graces of his employers and an increase of wages. At the same time, another future sculptor, who was destined to become one of Ball's most intimate friends, Hiram Powers, was making himself similarly useful in a similar position in the Cincinnati Museum.

Ball's first effort in art was made in the Museum, and was a pencil drawing in profile from one of the portraits he was engaged to dust. This suggested to a friend the possibility of his making a little money by cutting out silhouettes of visitors to the Museum. The profiles were traced by a machine, but he soon began to add the figures by eye, which brought in more money and was useful training. He was now determined to become a painter, and, after a compromise on wood-engraving which did not last long, had his way. He was, as were most artists of the day, almost entirely self-trained, but soon began to have some success, first with miniatures in oil, then with portraits, and last with "historical pictures" in the taste of the time—"Christ in the Temple," "Lear and Cordelia," etc.—which he sold at prices that now seem ludicrously small, but which, he says, were very good for those days. The only piece of his painting which is reproduced in the volume before us, the portrait of his mother, painted in 1841, would seem, from the photogravure, to be an excellent and dignified bit of work. At this time Ball and George Fuller were intimates and studio companions, and the account of their blind gropings after technical excellence, without guidance of any kind, throws much light on the subsequent work and career of the latter.

Mr. Ball does not give us the exact date of his first attempting sculpture, but it must have been some time after 1848—the date of his "Christ in the Temple"—and some time before 1854, the date of his marriage. The occasion of it was a disappointment in love which rendered his regular work—for which the lady had kindly served him as a model—odious to him, and made him take to modelling as a distraction. His first publicly shown bust was a small one of Jenny Lind, modelled from photographs, at the time of her appearance in Boston. It took, and he soon found himself with many orders for cabinet-sized busts. His first life sized bust was one of Daniel Webster, which was finished in the nick of time, a few days before the death of the statesman. The knack of timeliness Mr. Ball always retained. He seems to have found sculpture more remunerative than painting, and about this time definitively abandoned the latter for the former.

In 1854 Mr. Ball married and went to Italy, where he remained two years. He returned to Boston and made a small model of the equestrian Washington, now in the Public Garden, which was much admired by artists and the public, and a subscription was started in 1859 for its erection. It was not finally unveiled until 1869. Orders for work, public and private, flowed in upon him, and the rest of his long life has been that of a highly successful sculptor. The book becomes largely an account of commissions received and executed, culminating in the great Washington monument for the town of Methuen, on which he is now engaged. In 1865 he returned to Florence, where, with brief intervals, he has resided ever since.

His autobiography is the record of an honorable life, and shows many captivating traits of character. Honesty, thrift, intelligence, humor, strong religious feeling, and a firm belief in good angels and evil spirits, a good deal of modesty and not a little gay vanity, seem to be the strongest characteristics of a nature not marked by genius or especially artistic, but thoroughly wholesome and kindly. In taking leave of Mr. Ball, we heartily wish him many more years added to the three-score and ten he has spent so well.

A Translation of Dante's Eleven Letters, with Explanatory Notes and Historical Comments, by Charles Sterrett Latham. Edited by George Rice Carpenter, with a Preface by Charles Eliot Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891. Pp. xiii + 284.

THIS volume, as we learn from Prof. Norton's preface, is the memorial of a brave young scholar who, while still an undergraduate at Harvard, was stricken with paralysis, but who, in spite of this calamity, with nothing before him but the prospect "that his days were henceforth to be passed monotonously upon the bed, with the little variety of a change to the couch or the invalid's chair," determined to make the best of the strength that remained to him. He first devoted himself to getting his bachelor's degree—the examinations being held at his bedside—and then, having become interested in the study of Dante, he resolved to compete for the prize annually offered by the Dante Society at Harvard. Choosing for his subject the translation of Dante's Letters, with historical comments, he accomplished an amount of work that can best be understood by those who have themselves driven a furrow in the vast field of Dantesque literature, and then he died a day or two too soon to know that the prize had been awarded to him.

It is fitting that his work should be published, not only because it bears witness to a noble fortitude, but also because it is an excellent translation of Dante's Letters, hitherto neglected by English-speaking scholars. All of Dante's prose works are now accessible in good English versions. These letters contain so much that has a biographical interest, and throw so many side-lights on Dante's poetical methods and on his philosophy, that they cannot be overlooked by any one who wishes to understand the greatest man of the mediæval world, and, after Shakspere, the greatest of poets. So far as we have compared Mr. Latham's translation with the original, we have found it uniformly accurate, and, what is more, very readable—a difficult achievement in view of the stiff Latin of the original; it is far more concise and not less clear than Fraticelli's Italian version.

In the comments Mr. Latham shows not only the thoroughness with which he examined his materials, but also a fine historical sense in handling them. He gives a vivid picture of the Florentine factions at the time of Dante's banishment; he traces the history of the Counts Guidi and the Malaspina; he tells briefly the origin of the Babylonish Captivity, and discusses the Scaligeri and Dante's relations with them. If in all this there be nothing absolutely new, the service which Mr. Latham has rendered is not less valuable; for he has bound together facts from many distant sources, and he has sifted the wheat from a great heap of critical chaff. So much has been written about Dante that it is of prime importance that some clear and competent mind should sum up from time to time the results of voluminous criticism.

We point out a few errors and make a few suggestions in order that the next edition of this book may be better even than the first; that there will be another edition we have no doubt, because it is unlikely that any one will try to improve on Mr. Latham's translation. *Sesto* (p. 6) should be *ward*, because, although Florence was originally laid out in *sixths*, as English towns were laid out in *fourths* (wards), the word came to have a more general meaning. It would be well throughout to translate the party names, "Neri" and "Bianchi"; on p. 9, for "The Neri or Guelphs *was*" read *were*. "*Paladin* of the Roman Court" (p. 36) should be *Palatine*, as the former word has acquired a special significance. *Marchese*, which frequently occurs, should be *Marquis*, especially as Mr. Latham uniformly uses the English equivalent of other titles. "How he rules me *you may discover in the accompanying*

rhymes" (p. 66) is altogether too free a paraphrase of the Latin text, "Inferius extra sinum præsentium requiratis"; especially as this is a much disputed passage, and as it is by no means certain that the canzone which follows was sent by Dante with the letter. On p. 107, "*a* article" should be "*an* article," and on p. 130, note 2, *coincisely* should be *concisely*. *Actually* (p. 160) hardly gives the force of the Italian *corporalmente;* on the same page *togaed* would be preferable to *togated*. On p. 161, *straniero* should be rendered *foreign*, rather than *strange*. *Trastiverine* (p. 172) should be *Transteverine*. Instead of *Tullius* (p. 201) why not the good old English *Tully?* For "Scaramella *dei* Scaramelli," read *degli* (p. 227); for *Sassoulo* read *Sassuolo* (p. 229). *Monselici* and *Esti* (p. 242) should be *Monselice* and *Este*. *Puliciano* is printed right on p. 247 and wrong on p. 253. *Cangrande* is frequently printed for *Can Grande*.

These letters give sufficient evidence, if any were needed, of the chilling and desiccating quality of the scholastic philosophy. That a mind as intense and fiery as Dante's could not shake off the numbness which long exercise in the processes of the schoolmen brought upon him, is a final condemnation of those processes. The poet broke free; the prose-writer remained fettered and palsied by them. No one would suppose that the author of the eleventh letter could also be the author of the thirty-third canto of the Inferno. Occasionally, of course, even in the Letters, we come upon Dantesque expressions, but in general they are crabbed and, as Balbo said, almost barbarous in style; very different, for instance, from Milton's prose pamphlets, to which, so far as regards their intent, they may not improperly be compared. But their value, as we stated above, is independent of their form, since they furnish clues to portions of Dante's career that would otherwise be unknown. The third letter, in which Dante writes to Moroello Malaspina concerning a love affair in which he was entangled with a woman of the Apennines, we cannot think is genuine; not because we deem it impossible that Dante should fall violently in love when he had entered upon middle life, but because we deem it out of keeping with what we know of his character that he should have gushed in the fashion of a youth of eighteen about his amour. The critics have been so bothered by this letter that they have either rejected it altogether or have gone far afield after some recondite interpretation. Troya suggested that it is a cipher "treating of secret political negotiations"; Bartoli would have it that the woman who captivated the Poet was not of flesh and blood, but merely an allegory of Florence; Gaspary was willing to allow that the woman really existed, but he argued that the love she inspired was purely Platonic. The chief reason for retaining this letter is that it serves as a preface to the Canzone, *Amor, dacchè convien pur ch'io mi doglia*, which is allegorical after Dante's usual manner; but for our part we would dismiss it, together with all stories of "the woman with the goitre," until incontestable proofs of their genuineness shall be discovered. Of the other letters we cannot speak in detail. The eighth gives an amusing account of Dante's mission to Venice; the tenth, whether authentic or not, certainly expresses sentiments of noble self-respect and dignified scorn that we believe were characteristic of him; the eleventh, after its cumbrous exordium, is the most important, because in it Dante reveals the plan and significance of the 'Divine Comedy.'

In closing, we would again emphasize the fact that Mr. Latham's work will be of permanent value to English students of Dante, and we can but regret that so fine a scholar and so brave a man should have been cut off so early.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives Relating to America, 1773–1783. Vol. X. Nos. 920 to 1058. London: B. F. Stevens.

We have now before us the tenth volume of Mr. Stevens's great collection. The number of manuscripts of which copies in facsimile are furnished is one thousand and fifty-eight. It is time, therefore, to consider the general character and utility of the work, and its importance as a contribution to our knowledge of history.

As we predicted when the publication of these documents was first proposed, no important historical discovery has been made in consequence of them. The ground had been too often and too carefully worked over. The researches of a long line of investigators, from Sparks to Doniol, had been too thorough. Concerning few periods are documents more numerous than they are about this one; and while the historical scholars of other countries have had many national crises to study, those of America have been more restricted. Our colonial history is the tale of small beginnings, interesting and important chiefly in view of subsequent events. The affairs of colonial New Jersey and Carolina are seen principally in the reflected light of later days. Only with the Revolution do these regions become illuminated by the broad glare of general history, and after 1789 the United States sink again for a long time into comparative obscurity. While the most momentous and the most picturesque events of modern times were occurring beyond seas; while France was overturning her monarchy and setting up her empire; while her armies were overrunning Europe, and the civilized world was joining in the struggle, America played but a subordinate part.

Nor has that part itself proved particularly attractive to her historians or to their readers. How many of those who see this notice could relate the incidents of the war which their country once waged with France? How many have any minute knowledge of that much better-known struggle with England of which very old people sometimes speak as "the late war," and to the widows of whose veterans we still pay pensions? After 1815 the whole world appeared to sit still and rest for a generation. It was not until 1860 that anything happened in our country greatly to occupy the historian. The events of that year and of those which followed are passing but now from the region of personal controversy to that of impartial history. The historical material of that time is still making, in the shape of autobiographies, monographs, and reminiscences. The American lovers of documents (and the taste is as distinct a one as that for caviare) have therefore been fairly driven into the Revolutionary field, and few corners of it have been left unexplored. Mr. Stevens has had many predecessors. He has gleaned industriously after them, but his garners contain but gleanings after all.

It is to be wished that the methods of this collection could have been applied to some of the more important papers which were printed long ago, and perhaps have been repeatedly printed. A facsimile carries conviction with it as few copies can. It may be altered only by gross fraud; and such honest and well-meaning tampering as that of which even great editors have sometimes been guilty, is rendered quite impossible. Here is no chance for abridgment. The important sentence cannot be extracted, and perhaps changed in meaning for want of its context. The page must be given whole or omitted. A correspondence that was really important might be advantageously treated in this way. Until that of Washington, for instance, has been thus published, we shall not feel that the final edition of his writings has been reached. With them, it is true, one reason for facsimile is lacking which exists in regard to the letters of many famous men. No one can mistake Washington's meaning on account of his handwriting. The greatest of Americans has hardly been surpassed in the simple art of penmanship. His chirography was at once legible and full of character. But many important people have written execrably, and the most painstaking editor must sometimes be in doubt as to what they say. To go no further than this collection, the letters of Sir Henry Clinton are sometimes hardly decipherable. When this is the case, we are grateful to the editor who puzzles them out for us; but we may be glad of the means to assure ourselves that our own reading of the hieroglyphics coincides with his.

But with less important papers, like many of those before us, the value of the method is far more doubtful. In respect to not a few of them it may fairly be said that no one would, by any possibility, wish to do more than glance at them sufficiently to satisfy himself of their unimportance. They are reports of spies, full of inaccurate information; letters of advice that never was taken; petitions for aid that was refused. In the present volume are eight distinct warrants given at length, permitting various persons to visit Henry Laurens when a prisoner in the Tower. The method of facsimile makes it impossible for us to glance and skip. We can no more abridge documents in our reading than Mr. Stevens in his editing. We can leave out a page, and so could he, but we cannot persuade ourselves that we have taken in the gist of it at a general view.

And perhaps, after all, the chief value of this work is closely connected with its very tediousness. After the student has spent time and eyesight on the thousand papers, short and long, of this collection, he will understand better than ever before that great affairs are not often managed off-hand by the sudden flashes of genius of a few great men. An atmosphere will have been created in his historical picture. Beside Washington and Lafayette, and the Howes, and Clinton and Cornwallis, beside Franklin and Vergennes and the picturesque Beaumarchais, he will see a crowd of rather shabby figures struggling and striving to promote or hinder the action of the leaders. He will recognize that their lies and jealousies and vanities had an influence, were it only by disgusting and fatiguing their betters. Therefore it is worth while that such a collection as this should exist and that a few earnest scholars should read it. Therefore, every great library in America which collects books concerning our national history, should have Stevens's Facsimiles upon its shelves. Therefore, the young student who proposes to take up history seriously may well spend the many hours required for the perusal of these ponderous volumes.

Occasionally we find something interesting as to the state of civilization a hundred years ago; although, in this respect, these manu-

scripts are not very rich, far less so than any good memoir or book of travels of the period. Thus in the tenth volume we come on the following bit of news, in a letter written by William Eden, from Dublin Castle, on the 22d of January, 1782:

"I came to town yesterday for a five hours conversation as usual:—after which we held a Council in order to issue the Erutum Fulmen of a Proclamation against some justices of the peace and others on the banks of the Shannon for plundering a Portuguese ship under pretence that she was a wreck because she had fired a signal of distress the day before; at the time of plundering she was lying safe at anchor,—in the week before, at Galway, the troops were forced to fire on a large mob who persisted in the same laudable occupation upon the cargo of an unhappy vessel that had been driven ashore.—I believe that we shall try the effect of an act to charge all these depredations in future upon the barony where such outrages happen." (1049.)

One other purpose these papers may serve, especially when the promised indexes are published. The genealogists and biographers may find material in them. They may help to solve the interesting question what some insignificant person was doing on a day when he did nothing very particular. Somebody's almost forgotten great-grandfather may be relieved of an imputation, or subjected to one, and genealogical societies may be thrown into a ferment. Here and there, on the other hand, a true bit of character may be revealed or a truly interesting incident related.

The Principles of Strategy: Illustrated mainly from American Campaigns. By Lieut. John Bigelow, jr., U. S. A. With illustrations and maps. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 4to, pp. 200.

MR. BIGELOW has made the praiseworthy attempt to supply American students with a restatement of some of the leading principles of military science as taught by the more recent European authorities. These he has copiously illustrated by examples drawn from all the wars in which the United States have had part, especially the late civil war. The maps are sketch-maps, in which minute topography has not been attempted, and by far the greater part of them refer to Grant's Vicksburg campaign, twenty out of thirty-two being devoted to the movements of the month preceding the siege of that city. The method pursued is to state a principle or rule of strategic movement in technical form, explain and illustrate it by geometric diagram when possible, and then briefly refer to some example of its application in the history of American wars. The execution of the task is creditable to the author, and cannot fail to be of great service to his brother officers, both in giving them the form in which current authorities cast the principles and maxims of strategy, and especially in stimulating them to read our own history with constant reference to these principles.

The numerous geometric diagrams give, at first glance, the air of a treatise upon an exact science to that which, after all, can never become such, and must always remain a field in which physical, moral, and mental forces are combined in complex ways that refuse to be reduced to mathematical statement. In his treatment of the subject of the strategic movements of armies respectively advancing against or covering a line or a position, the author faithfully follows the authorities who strive to refer all the conceivable cases to appropriate geometric formulæ, in which the area of command is shown to be limited by circular curves and hyperbolic curves determined by *distance* alone. In spite of warnings to the contrary, the reader is so apt to be misled by such an apparatus of diagrammatic mathematics that it may be fairly questioned whether it does not do more harm than good. Distance is only one of the numerous elements of the problem of moving armies. The smoothness or roughness of roads, hills and hollows, bridges and fords, defiles and plains, marshes and sands, tides and streams, rains and snows, darkness and light, heat and cold, all enter into the physical discussion, to say nothing of the intellectual and moral elements and the personal factors of different sorts.

If we were to seek one element to stand as index of the combined ones, that element would not be *distance*, but *time*. Whether the covering force can reach a threatened point before an attacking one, is, in terms, a problem of time. How many hours away is each? This includes marching ability, character of roads and of the country, obstacles of every natural and artificial kind, and the like. Distance is the simplest, and, in some respects, the least important of all the elements. It might be possible to include in a diagram the modifications of your regular curves caused by the topographical and other conditions, but when it was done, the curve would be so irregular and anomalous that the application of geometric rules to it would be palpably ridiculous. It would seem more wise, then, to omit the mere geometric statement and diagrams, and to begin at once with the natural conditions of the problem. Instead of a dozen figures illustrating the relation of points to lines, give us a dozen good sketches of different topographical situations with the varied classes of obstacles and difficulties likely to be found in practice; and if we must have a unit of common measure by which to compare them, let it be the *time* it will take a given body of troops to march to a critical point, in view of all known conditions. The Confederate cavalry general Forrest would have gone crazy if he had been required to follow the so-called demonstrations in the work before us, but he was nevertheless passed-master in the art of "getting there first with the most men."

It is not intended by this to intimate that the geometric illustrations referred to are not simple enough and clear enough in themselves. The objection is that they demonstrate nothing of practical value, and that the useful knowledge of handling an army has not been begun when the mathematical theorems have been mastered. In this, however, Mr. Bigelow has followed such high authority that the criticism does not apply to him so much as to the current tendency to give rigid form to subjects of investigation of which the elements will not admit it. Nothing but commendation can be given to the efforts of our younger officers in the army to apply the teaching of European writers to the actual conditions of warfare on this continent. Whether the conflict be with the aborigines or between civilized communities, the character of the country makes it necessary to modify all accepted rules when they are to be applied in circumstances every way different from those of old, compact, and densely populated States. To point out these differences, to show the inventions and new methods which they have occasioned, and thus to give American military art the flexibility and the progressive character which belong to it, are noteworthy and valuable features of Mr. Bigelow's book.

The analysis and criticisms of several campaigns of the civil war are clever and interesting. An occasional error is almost inevitable when the author has to gather his facts from the vast and, as yet, almost disorganized mass of material. In his outline of the Atlanta campaign he makes Schofield seize the crossing of the Chattahoochee at Roswell; it was at the mouth of Soap Creek, a number of miles nearer Sherman's centre. He describes the Army of the Potomac as "disorganized" after the second battle of Bull Run; whatever may have been its *morale*, not a brigade or regiment had lost its organization when it marched back to Washington. It could not have taken the field again, immediately, had it been otherwise. In the Shenandoah campaign of 1862, Banks's troops are said to have been, from the beginning, "nominally at least, under the command of Gen. Frémont." Banks and Frémont commanded separate departments, wholly independent of each other, and each responsible only to the War Department at Washington. This separation of responsibility was one of the causes of disaster.

There are rather more typographical and other minor errors than should be in such a book. Meade is sometimes spelled Mead. Edward Johnson (a subordinate of "Stonewall" Jackson) is called Johnston. It is important to keep the Johnsons and Johnstons separate in the Confederate Army. Rodes (a Confederate general) is called Rhode. Lannes (the French marshal) is called Lanne. Cols. Carroll and Tyler (under Shields in the Shenandoah) are spoken of as Generals. Their promotion came later. Most of these are trifles, but they mar the appearance of the fair quarto pages of a book rightly aspiring to some importance.

Justice: Being Part IV. of the Principles of Ethics. By Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

THERE is something heroic in the determination with which Mr. Spencer undertakes, with declining strength, the increasing labor of lifting to their proper place the culminating parts of his philosophical edifice. As this structure rises, the storms of criticism beat upon it more fiercely, and whatever insufficiency may have existed in its foundation, becomes more dangerous with the increase of the superincumbent weight; but Mr. Spencer toils steadfastly and serenely on. His vigor may be lessened, but not his confidence. To change our metaphor, the throng of enthusiastic crusaders with which his early steps were attended has wofully diminished, thinned out by death, and desertion, and discouragement at the unforeseen arduousness of the pilgrimage and the unexpected remoteness of the goal; but they cannot accuse their leader of any variableness or shadow of turning. No doubts have ever arisen in his mind concerning the all-sufficiency of his philosophical principles, and, though he stand alone, like Athanasius, he knows that in the fulness of evolution the world will advance to his position.

The theory of ethics advanced by Mr. Spencer was laid before the public so long ago, in his 'Social Statics' and in the more recent 'Data of Ethics,' that it calls for no fresh criticism. No one can deny that, as a practical system, it is pure and elevating, and for most of the many people who are no longer affected by the sanctions of the Christian religion, the rules of such a system would furnish wholesome guidance. Whatever views may be entertained of the origin of our feelings of duty or obligation or rightness, no one insists more earnestly than Mr. Spencer upon the imperative character of the dictates of conscience, or shows more impressively the evil

results of disobeying these dictates. But his talent for invective is too freely employed in this latter direction. Society being at present in the midst of an evolutionary relapse or backsliding, Mr. Spencer waxes wroth at society; but he might wisely ask himself if he does well to be angry, for this relapse is only an illustration of his principle that all motion is rhythmical. It must come out right in the end, for evolution requires it, and why should we try to hurry the grinding of the mills of the Unknowable? Doubtless it is true, as Carlyle said, that the population of England is so many millions, mostly fools; but the majority cannot be expected to receive this unflattering doctrine gladly, and are not to be converted to it by harsh words. We heartily agree with Mr. Spencer in his condemnation of the mischievous action of government, but we would have him assail it with an orderly indictment and not a railing accusation.

Justice, according to Mr. Spencer, requires "that each individual carrying on the actions which subserve his life, and not prevented from receiving their normal results, good and bad, shall carry on these actions under such restraints as are imposed by the carrying on of kindred actions by other individuals, who have similarly to receive such normal results, good or bad." The qualification that the actions are to be such as subserve life is inserted because the principle that "every man is free to do that which he wills, provided he infringes not the equal freedom of any other man," would permit injury to another by one willing to submit to injury in return. But the limitation to actions which subserve life is, as Mr. Spencer declares, practically equivalent to saying that the greatest sum of happiness is the ultimate end. We have thus two principles of justice, and as there cannot be two ultimate principles, it is necessary to choose between them. Although Mr. Spencer uses language that would not be out of place in the mouth of an intuitional moralist, he is to be classed as a utilitarian, the principle of equal freedom being a condition of attaining the greatest amount of happiness.

It is interesting to see that Mr. Spencer has discovered the substantial identity of his principle of equal freedom with that of Kant. His attention was called to the likeness a number of years ago, but he states that, owing to his inability to read German, he was unable to satisfy himself that it existed until recently, when he succeeded in finding a translation that convinced him. He points out, however, that Kant derives his principle from a "search in the pure Reason," while the Spencerian principle is to be regarded "as expressing the primary condition which must be fulfilled before the greatest happiness can be achieved by similar beings living in proximity." Again, in Kant's formula the negative element, or obligation to respect limits, is the dominant idea, while in Mr. Spencer's case, the positive element, the right to freedom of action, is represented as primary. The latter aspect is perhaps better adapted to the requirements of evolution.

As to land tenure, Mr. Spencer admits that he took a position in his 'Social Statics' that he cannot now defend. His discussion of the rights of women and children, the right of suffrage, and the nature and constitution of the State, is marked by his usual vigor, but can scarcely be said to add very much to our knowledge of the problems. The chapters upon the duties of the State and the limits of State duties contain a great deal of Mr. Spencer's most emphatic denunciation, but, as we have said, it is doubtful if he makes so deep an impression as he desires, or as his argument, stated calmly, would effect.

Early Travellers in Scotland. Edited by P. Hume Brown. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1891.

THE idea of bringing together in one volume the testimony of a number of travellers, visiting a country at intervals during several centuries, so as to enable the reader to weigh and compare the good and the evil reports, is certainly an excellent one. The present volume contains extracts, more or less judicious, from the descriptions of visitors to Scotland, beginning with Edward I. in 1295, and ending with Thomas Morer in 1689. The books from which these extracts have been made are for the most part difficult of access, and they are admirable illustrations of the truth of the proposition that a part is sometimes better than the whole. A sufficient instalment of each writer is given to show the general tone and tendency of his observations, and by the elimination of exaggerated praise or blame a residuum is obtained which is probably an accurate picture.

As late as the end of the seventeenth century, Scotland was regarded as a strange country where strange things might very well happen. Even its geography was a matter of conjecture, and until the publication of Mercator's Atlas in 1595 it was believed that it stretched far to the eastward in the direction of Norway. Many of the travellers whose accounts are here quoted had evidently read Hector Boece's History, published in 1527, and they reproduce with childlike faith his wonderful stories of floating islands, *barnicles* (or wooden geese that fell from fir trees and came to life in water), and many other supposititious freaks of nature. Froissart was in Scotland about the middle of the fourteenth century, and seems to have been particularly struck by the sustaining qualities of oatmeal as food and by the niggardly character of the inhabitants. He tells how the French nobles who made an expedition to Scotland in 1385 in order to drive out the English, were practically imprisoned by the Scotch until money had been deposited in Bruges to cover the expense of their board and lodging—a curious instance of what bankers call an arbitrage operation in exchange. Pope Pius II. describes how the beggars at the doors of Scotch churches in the middle of the fifteenth century "departed with joy on receiving stones as alms, which stones being of a sulphurous nature were used instead of wood for fuel." Coal mines had, in fact, been worked as early as 1300, although peat was the common fuel. Estienne Perlin found the country in 1551 "poor in gold and silver, but plentiful in provisions, which are as cheap as in any part of the world, and truly the milors of that country and the gentillemans who have any money may live very comfortably." The latter part of this description is still true in this present year of grace. Fynes Moryson, a student of Peterhouse College, Cambridge, says that in 1598 for the lending of £60 there were plenty of good citizens of Edinburgh who would give the lender board and lodging as long as the loan continued—showing either a very high rate of interest or a very low rate of living expenses.

Taylor, called the water-poet, considered Sterling Castle fully equal to Windsor, and declared that there was not such another hall either in Scotland or England except Westminster Hall, "which is now no dwelling hall for a prince, being long since metamorphosed into a house for the law and the profits." Fortunately for him, he did not take passage in the *Mayflower*, then about sailing, for even in Scotland he complains of being stung by the "*musketaes*, a creature that hath sixe legs and lives like a monster altogether upon man's flesh." Perhaps the most interesting traveller that ever visited Scotland—more interesting than Dr. Johnson himself—was "rare Ben Jonson," who walked to Edinburgh and back for a wager in 1618, and wrote an account of his adventures in verse, the manuscript of which was unfortunately burnt in 1620. In the year 1655, Thomas Tucker was sent to Scotland by Parliament to report on the trade of the country, and he made a remarkable prophecy in regard to the future growth of Glasgow, based on what he called the "mercantile genius" of her people, although at that time there were only a dozen small vessels belonging to the port, and the shallowness of the river caused the merchants much trouble. Then came Richard Franck, who had been a trooper of Cromwell's and went to Scotland in 1656, mainly, it would appear, because he was a lover of nature and an enthusiastic angler. So plentiful were salmon in those days that servants, in making engagements, stipulated that they should not be compelled to eat salmon more than three times a week. In contrast to this is the statement of the next traveller, Thomas Kirke, that in 1679 the Highlanders were in the habit of cutting steaks from the living cow, just as James Bruce afterwards charged the Abyssinians with doing; but there is no confirmatory evidence on this point. The last traveller on the list, Thomas Morer, found that the Scotch were "great criticks in pronunciation and often upbraid us for not giving every word its due sound, as when we call *enough* 'enow' or 'enuff' without making it a guttural, but neglecting the *gh* as if not written."

From these illustrations the reader will perceive that there is here a mine of curious sociological and general information about the country and its inhabitants, and the book is certainly one which no Scotchman's library should be without.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, W. J. Battle-Fields and Victory. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Adams, W. D. With Poet and Player. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Alarcón, P. A. The Cocked Hat. New York: The Minerva Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. A Sister to Esau. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bixby, J. T. The Crisis in Morals. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Bourdillon, F. W. Alles d'Alouette. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Bourke, Capt. J. G. On the Border with Crook. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.50.
Bröcking, Wilhelm. Die französische Politik Papst Leos IX. Stuttgart: G. J. Goschen.
Bruce, Henry. Life of General Houston. ["Makers of America."] Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Castlemon, Harry. Marcy the Blockade-Runner. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Chaffee, Frank. Idle Verses Idly Writ. New York Geo. M. Allen & Co.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Witch Winnie's Mystery. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Shelley's Defence of Poetry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Coolidge, Susan. In the High Valley. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Curtis, R. H. Important Federal Statutes Annotated. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Dalin, Talmage. European Relations. [The "Unknown" Library.] Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
D'Aurevilly, J. B. The Story without a Name. Belford & Co. 50 cents.
Davis, R. H. Stories for Boys. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Deane, Mary. Mr. Zinzan of Bath. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
De la Saussaye, Prof. P. D. C. Manual of the Science of Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Didon, Père. Jesus Christ. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $7.50.
Dobson, Austin. Four French Women. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Dowie, Miss M. M. A Girl in the Karpathians. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Dunbar, Newell. Phillips Brooks. Boston: J. G. Cupples.
Durham, W. Food, Physiology, etc. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Finley, Martha. Elsie's Vacation. Dodd, Mead & Co.
First Annual Nurse Register. New York: J. H. Vail & Co. 25 cents.

Froude, J. A. The Divorce of Catherine of Aragon. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Fulton, R. I., and Trueblood, T. C. The College Critic's Tablet. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
George, Henry. The Condition of Labor: An Open Letter to Pope Leo XIII. United States Book Co. 30 cents.
Gray, E. McQ. Elsa. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Griffis, Rev. W. E. Sir William Johnson and the Six Nations. ["Makers of America."] Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Halévy, Ludovic. A Marriage for Love. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Henry, W. W. Life, Correspondence and Speeches of Patrick Henry. Vol. I. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Hermetic Philosophy. Vol. 2. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Herron, Rev. G. D. The Larger Christ. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Hope, Anthony. Father Stafford. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Hulme, F. E. Symbolism in Christian Art. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Hund, John. A Sketch of Surgical History. Chicago: Ed. Ackermann & Co. 75 cents.
Hurst, Rev. J. F. Indika: the Country and the People of India and Ceylon. Harper & Bros.
Hutton, Alfred. The Swordsman. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Edinburgh. Harper & Bros. $1.
Ingersleben, Frau von. Little Heather-Blossom. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Johnson, F. H. What is Reality? Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Johnston, R. M. Studies: Literary and Social. First Series. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Jopling, Louise. Hints to Amateurs: A Handbook on Art. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Kennard, Mrs. E. Pretty Kitty Herrick. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
King, Mrs. Annie. Dr Liddon's Tour in Egypt and Palestine. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Laforest, D. de. Morphine. New York: The Waverly Co. 25 cents.
Lang, Andrew. The Blue Poetry Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Latham, C. S. A Translation of Dante's Eleven Letters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Lee, F. W. Senator Lars Erikson. St. Paul: The Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Le Sage, A. R. Asmodeus, or The Devil upon two Sticks. Macmillan & Co.
Lexington: A Hand-Book of its Points of Interest. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.
Little, Elisabeth N. "Watch ho! Watch!" Dodd, Mead & Co.
Long, George. The Discourses of Epictetus, with the Encheiridion and Fragments. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Ludium, J. K. John Winthrop's Defeat. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Mackaye, Maria E. The Abbess of Port Royal, and Other French Studies. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Markham, Capt. A. H. Life of Sir John Franklin. [Great Explorers Series.] Dodd, Mead & Co.
Martel, Henry. The Social Revolution. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Maurice, F. D. Sermons Preached in Lincoln's Inn Chapel. Vol. I. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Mason, Mrs. Caroline A. The Lost Ring, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 5, 1891.

The Week.

THE interest in Tuesday's elections centred in the four States of New York, Massachusetts, Ohio, and Iowa, each of which elected a Governor. In every one of the four an exceedingly vigorous canvass was made, which, in the cases of Massachusetts and Iowa, brought out a vote nearly up to the high-water mark of a Presidential year. Extraordinary interest was lent to these contests by the fact that, for the first time since the Republican party was formed, each of these four States had a Democratic Governor in the year before a Presidential election, and that in every State but New York the question was whether the Democratic incumbent should be reëlected. Moreover, it has never happened since 1856 that the Democrats have elected the Governor in two successive elections in Massachusetts, Ohio, or Iowa; and the hopeful fight which they have been making to break this record in Massachusetts and Iowa engaged the attention and interest of the country to an extent seldom, if ever, equalled in an "off year."

State issues ought to control in State elections, and they indisputably did decide the contests in Iowa and Massachusetts. The burning question in the former commonwealth was whether the prohibitory law should be maintained. Gov. Boies made his canvass chiefly on this issue, declaring for the repeal of the law, while the Republican candidate stood for a further trial of prohibition. Each side gained supporters from the other party on this issue, but Gov. Boies got the larger share, his reëlection on a largely increased poll being due to the votes of men who have always been Republicans in national politics, and who still call themselves Republicans, but who hold that questions of Federal policy have no place in an election when no Federal official is to be chosen. In Massachusetts the main issue was whether a Governor who had shown himself one of the best executives the State has ever had, whose administration had been so nearly faultless that the Opposition could not find material enough for the usual "arraigning" plank in the platform, who had earned a reëlection if ever a Governor of Massachusetts earned such a reward of faithful service, should be denied that reëlection simply because he was a Democrat in national politics. The Legislature to be chosen was not to elect a United States Senator, and consequently no Federal issue was necessarily involved. The Legislature was sure to be Republican any way, and the one issue was whether all the men who have always voted the Republican ticket in national elections would support a weak and untried man for Governor, rather than an incumbent of proved ability and experience, simply because the former wore a Republican label while the latter was a Democrat. The result shows that there were enough Republicans who recognized the absurdity of such a course to reëlect Gov. Russell, although the Republicans who thus gave him another term at the same time reelected a worthy Lieutenant-Governor belonging to their own party.

There was no such single clear-cut State issue in New York as in Massachusetts and Iowa. Moreover, such questions of State policy as were involved became obscured rather than accentuated as the canvass proceeded. At the start, the Republicans had a decided advantage in the matter of election reform, as they were pledged to the much-needed blanket-ballot amendment of the existing law, while the Democratic platform constructed by Gov. Hill appeared to commit the party against the amendment. But so strong has public sentiment grown in favor of this reform during the past two months, largely in response to the admirable work of the Municipal Reform League, that Democratic opposition to the blanket ballot gradually died out, until at the end the amendment seemed almost as likely to be secured from Gov. Flower and a Democratic Legislature as from a Republican administration. The issue of Tammany and anti-Tammany, which was precipitated by the action of the Democratic State Convention in recognizing Tammany as the sole Democratic organization in New York city, could not be pushed successfully by candidates who had been engaged in as many "deals" with Tammany at Albany as Fassett and Vrooman. Then, too, the voter had to consider that Fassett was nothing but "Platt's man," and that the Platt machine is almost as offensive as Tammany Hall. Fassett himself was the strongest Democratic campaigner on the stump, having disgusted by his demagogical conduct thousands of men who were at first inclined to support him. His only hope from the first was in winning the Independent vote, but it is doubtful whether at the end he received more than a tenth of that vote. New York must be recognized as normally a Democratic State, and it will always elect a Democratic Governor unless the Republican candidate gets the non-partisan vote solidly. National issues also helped the Democrats. many Independent voters who saw little to choose between Flower and Fassett supported the Democratic candidate, because they thought his election on a platform which declared for sound money and tariff reform, would help the success of those causes in the Presidential election next year.

In Ohio, State questions cut but a small figure, and the election turned on national issues, as Ohio State elections so often do. The Democrats were handicapped here by their fatal blunder in putting a free-coinage plank in their platform; and ever since the canvass was forced to turn on that issue by Senator Sherman's shrewdness in making this plank the Republican point of attack, it has been obvious that Gov. Campbell would be defeated, as he ought to be. The "moral effect" of the elections is distinctly favorable to the triumph of the Democratic party in the Presidential contest, under the leadership of Cleveland and upon a sound-money and tariff-reform platform.

Mr. Blaine's refusal to come to New York to make a speech on the "last day of the canvass" calls to mind the opposite course followed by him a year ago, when Quay appealed to him for aid. On that occasion he went to Philadelphia and made his famous predictions. Giving his word for it that the attack on Delamater and Republican corruption was only the calumny which a free-trade press levelled against patriots, he went on to speak of Pennsylvania as the "keystone of the cause of protection," and said: "If she falls back now, when the tariff is on its severest trial, the free-traders see, or think they see, an easy road to the Presidency in 1892. . . . If they can to-day elect as Governor of Pennsylvania as ardent a free-trader as President Cleveland himself, there may be no balm in Gilead that can heal that wound." Obviously that prophecy is enough to disqualify the man who made it from speaking for the Republican ticket anywhere "on the last day of the canvass." If he is a true prophet, then he is on record as to the futility of his party's efforts, since he has predicted defeat in the great contest for the Presidency. And if his character as a prophet is open to suspicion, he is no man for a "last-day-of-the-canvass" speaker, because then is the time for prophecy and nothing else. There is then no longer room for argument, and any speaker is out of place or superfluous who cannot predict with absolute certainty what the sun will see when it sets on November 3.

There are, however, some questions suggested to the curious mind by Mr. Blaine's letter to Mr. Platt. He has nothing to say of the tariff, nor even of reciprocity, and not a word about the Administration or the impending Presidential election. Has he, then, recalled his view of a year ago that the tariff was to be the only issue in 1892? Or is it his idea that the tariff's "severest trial" then resulted in such an overwhelming verdict against it that the contest is settled in advance? He also hopes that the Republicans will all come out and vote. This seems to imply a fear that the bad habit they acquired in the Folger campaign, under the influence of another somewhat famous letter by Mr.

Blaine, may have become chronic. Then there is the question of ethics in dealing with bosses. When Quay piped last year, the Secretary of State danced, but Platt pipes in vain. Ought he to consider this preference shown to Quay a slight or a compliment?

A leading Congregational minister writes to the *Times* challenging Mr. Andrew D. White's fulsome eulogy of Mr. Blaine's foreign policy, and adducing the attitude of the Administration in the matter of the claims of the missionaries of the American Board in Ponape. He tells how delegation after delegation has visited Washington on the subject, without getting any satisfaction, and adds: "A great show of vigor in some directions, where it costs nothing except to the taxpayers, does not atone for the lack of all visible interest in another and equally important line, where a show of vigor might be detrimental to the political prospects of Mr. Blaine." It is by no means clear to us that Mr. Blaine is at fault in this particular case, except in having misled the representatives of the American Board. He did this in a general way by fostering the impression, all these years, that if anybody had any quarrel with a foreign nation, nothing would be necessary except to notify Mr. Blaine, when the foreign nation would be at once taken by the throat and compelled to give satisfaction. In particular, he misled the Board by what he told them when they first approached him with their complaint. At that time he was in the thick of his negotiation of the Cuban reciprocity agreement, and he asked the Board not to press their affair just then, for fear it might break off the important matter he had in hand, giving them to understand that when that was once settled, the threats and gunboats would be set going. So Secretary Smith intimated in an interview last spring. On the merits of the case, the Spanish Government appears to have a good defence. Its sovereign rights in Ponape are not disputed, and it maintains that the destruction of missionary property was simply incidental to the punishment of the rebellious natives, who used the mission-houses as forts. The question of religious prejudice and influence in the affair is as yet an open one. If the missionaries affirm that they were conspired against by Catholic priests, the Spanish Government asserts, on the other hand, that the natives were stirred up to revolt by the American missionaries, and furnished arms by them. Obviously this is a case not for bluster but investigation; and complaint of Mr. Blaine's dilatoriness has no foundation except in the reputation he has built up of being the champion blusterer of the world.

Attention has been drawn to points of resemblance between the reply made by the Chilian Minister of Foreign Affairs to our demand for reparation for the killing of our sailors by a Valparaiso mob, and the reply of Secretary Blaine to the similar demand of the Italian Government upon us. It would seem, indeed, that the Chilian Minister had a copy of Mr. Blaine's answer before him. We put the two in parallel columns:

[Chilian despatch.]	[Mr. Blaine's despatch.]
The Minister of Foreign Affairs replies that . . . he does not doubt the sincerity, rectitude, or expertness of the investigation on board the *Baltimore*, but will recognize only the jurisdiction and authority of his own country to judge and punish the guilty in Chilian territory. He says the administrative and judicial authorities have been investigating the affair, that judicial investigation under Chilian law is secret, and the time is not yet arrived to make known the result. When that time does arrive, he will communicate the result, although he does not recognize any other authority competent to judge criminal cases than that established by the Chilian people. Until the time arrives to disclose the result of the investigation, he cannot admit that the disorders in Valparaiso or the silence of his department should appear as an expression of unfriendliness towards the Government of the United States, which might put in peril the friendly relations between the two countries.	Even if the National Government had the entire jurisdiction over the alleged murderers, it could not give assurance to any foreign Power that they should be punished. The President is unable to see how any government could justly give an assurance of this character in advance of a trial and a verdict of "guilty." It needs no argument to prove that a jury could not be impartial if it were in any sense or to any degree bound before the trial of the accused by an assurance which the President of the United States had ventured to give to a foreign Power. I have repeatedly given to Baron Fava the assurance that, under the direction of the President, all the facts and incidents connected with the unhappy tragedy at New Orleans on the 14th of March last should be most thoroughly investigated. I have also informed him that in a matter of such gravity the Government of the United States would not permit itself to be unduly hurried; nor will it make answer to any demand until every fact essential to a correct judgment shall have been fully ascertained by legal authority. The impatience of the aggrieved may be natural, but its indulgence does not always secure the most substantial justice.

The essential point in each is, that jurisdiction of crimes committed in one's territory belongs to one's courts, and that one cannot be hurried in making an investigation. If that was good law for us in the New Orleans case, it is good law for Chili now. We cannot make fish of one and flesh of the other. Moreover, Chili will not allow us to do so. It is true that she is a small nation, having a population but little larger than that of Massachusetts and far less wealthy. But she knows perfectly well that we are not going to war with her on an issue where we shall have to fly in the face of our own precedent not yet a year old.

A telegram to the London *Times* from Valparaiso makes mention of a fact which has, of course, long been known in this city, that the South American cable, owned and worked by an American company, was cut off from Iquique, where the Congressionalists had their headquarters, on the demand of Balmaceda, backed by Egan. The company complied with the request and cut their cable, on a promise of compensation for damage from the Dictator, but also under a threat from the same source, communicated by Egan, that, if they refused to comply, worse things would happen to them, and doubtless in the belief, diffused by Egan, that Balmaceda would come out victorious. Now here was a chance for a display of real "patriotism" and legitimate bluster. It was a disgraceful and humiliating thing for our Government to communicate to an American corporation the threat of a foreign military usurper that he would destroy their property if they refused to help him in trying to overthrow constitutional government in his own country, and advise the company to succumb. The proper answer to such a threat was a note saying that any attempt to injure the cable or interfere with its proper working, outside the area of the Dictator's military rule, would be resisted and punished by force. The way it was actually met showed clearly enough, taken in connection with other things of the same sort, that the neutrality of the Administration was a sham, and that its hopes and fears were all with the man who was trying to destroy republican government in Chili. This is a nice way to establish a Pan-American Confederation with "hegemony" for the United States.

When the next House of Representatives shall have assembled at Washington, there will be required a patient and careful investigation of the doings of the Department of State since Mr. Blaine became its titular chief. We do not mean that the House should attempt to interfere with affairs which the Constitution has committed to the sole discretion of the President, such as the negotiation of a treaty, but there should be inquiry into matters concerning which the House has cognizance as a part of Congress. The House should inquire and ascertain, for example, what outside help has been called in to the State Department, either by the President or the Secretary, since Mr. Bayard's retirement. If those employed have not been regularly commissioned, as officers recognized by law, then what sums have been paid to them, and out of what fund? It is not known that Secretary Bayard employed, or paid, such an irregular staff of persons, and, if he did not, they were presumably unnecessary; but, if the Department is really undermanned, the House of Representatives should be straightway informed thereof.

One of the most amusing of the many ante-election antics which Quay performed because of the publication of that Keystone Bank certificate with his own and Bardsley's names upon its back, was his demand upon the Comptroller of the Currency for information as to how the certificate came to get out. To his mind its publication was a more serious offence than the transaction which it reveals. In fact, he is so angry with everybody who has had anything to do with the publication, and is so busy bringing suits for libel, that he has had no time whatever to "turn up" among his papers the cancelled check which was to prove that he paid the money back again into the Keystone Bank.

Senator Quay's sudden resort to libel suits to save his character from assault appears to excite general hilarity in Pennsylvania. His Philadelphia organ, the *Inquirer*, is very serious about it, however, and says: "Senator Quay has apparently borne abuse just as long as he intends to. No man in the whole range of public life has been subjected to such attacks." This is true. He has been called a public thief in many newspapers and on the floor of Congress for taking $660,000 of State money for his personal use in speculation, yet, in spite of repeated invitations to come into court with a libel suit on that accusation, he has never done so. He has been asked to call upon Senator Cameron and Mr. Wayne MacVeagh to tell all they know about $260 000 of that State money which Mr. Cameron paid back for him, but he has declined to do even this. After these failures to put an end to "abuse" of really portentous dimensions, it is not impressive to find him bringing suits for libel because the newspapers have published a facsimile of a Keystone Bank certificate of deposit for $8,877, with Quay's and Bardsley's names united on the back.

The story which comes from the capital of Wisconsin, of an attempt by a United States Senator to control the decision of a State judge by bribing the latter's brother-in-law to influence his action, is most extraordinary. For many years, under Republican rule, the State Treasurers of Wisconsin have pocketed thousands of dollars in addition to their salary every year, by depositing the State funds in banks and retaining for their personal use the 3 per cent. interest which was allowed—such deposits being in violation of law. When the Democrats secured control of the State Government last winter, they stopped this practice, and brought suit against the ex-treasurers for the recovery of the money thus illegitimately drawn. One of these suits was just coming to trial before Judge Siebecker. A few days ago, the Judge announced that he could not try the case by reason of propositions which had been made to affect his action. Later the character of these propositions came out. Ex-Congressman La Follette of Madison says that last September Senator Sawyer sought him because, as he said, he wanted to talk with him about Siebecker and Treasury matters. The Senator then said:

"I knew you would know all about Siebecker, and I wanted to see you about him. These cases are awful important to us in the State, and we cannot afford to lose them. It costs me lots of anxiety. I don't want to have to pay [naming a large sum of money, whether $100,000 or more I am not certain]. Now, I came down here to see you alone. No one knows I am to meet you here. I don't want to hire you as an attorney in the case, La Follette, and don't want you to go into court, but here is $50. I will give you $500 more, or $1,000 [I am uncertain which he said], when Siebecker decides the case right.' I said to him: 'Senator Sawyer, you can't know what you are saying to me. If you struck me in the face, you would not insult me as you insult me now.'"

The man who brings this charge is, like Senator Sawyer, a Republican, and Judge Siebecker was appointed to the bench by a Republican Administration. There is consequently no chance for any allegation of partisanship in the matter.

The decision of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts in the Andover case, denying the right of the Board of Visitors to remove Prof. Smyth, reads like a bit of ancient history, so completely has the whole question ceased to be a living one. Indeed, it is probable that if the decision had been the other way, the conservatives themselves who instituted the proceedings five years ago would have been filled with consternation. They would not have known what on earth to do with their victory, whereas now they can drop the whole matter with a sigh of relief. Nothing else is left for them to do, even if the fight had not been taken out of them long ago. With the trustees solidly behind the accused professors, it would be impossible to oust the latter in any legal way. And as far as the general sentiment of the denomination is concerned, it has undergone such a sweeping revolution since the trial was undertaken that the confirmation of the removal of Prof. Smyth would have been received with universal dismay. The whole case shows anew what wonders time can work.

With the meeting of the Assembly's committee and the trustees of Union Seminary, all hope of a compromise in the Briggs case has been abandoned, and the trial has begun as was appointed. One charge against the Professor is that of disrespect to the Bible; but nothing he is guilty of in that direction can equal the offence of his prosecutors themselves in the use of Scripture they made in the printed charges against Prof. Briggs which they have circulated. Without going into details, we may simply say that many of the "proof-texts" they adduce to show that the Professor's views are "contrary to Scripture," are mistranslated, while very many more are totally irrelevant, and that the mass of them proceed on perfectly uncritical and exploded principles of exegesis. The exegetical teaching of every theological seminary in the land, Princeton included, is dead against such abandoned methods. If these texts prove what they are asserted to prove, they would prove anything under heaven; and a Bible which proves everything, proves nothing. Hence we say that the use of the Bible made by the prosecutors in the case is far more disrespectful and hurtful to it than anything alleged of Prof. Briggs. He may doubtless be trusted to make a spectacle of them on this and other subjects as the trial proceeds; but there can be no harm in saying beforehand that they have exposed themselves to the contempt of all Biblical scholars.

We would advise those gentlemen whose names are given out as the probable incorporators of the proposed new steamship line to Brazil, to get something more than the word of the enthusiastic promoter of the enterprise before taking it for granted that Brazil will guarantee the interest on their capital and grant them a subsidy besides. The Government of Brazil is not just now looking around for places to throw away money. The most stringent economy is the order of the day in that country, and the Government's estimates are being cut on all hands by Congress. The Brazilian Consul at Havana lately wrote: "It can scarcely be said that the present condition of Brazil is highly flattering financially." We are aware that the promoter of the new line has boasted that he had a "pull" with President Fonseca, through some relative, and that the guarantee and subsidy would be forthcoming on personal grounds. He had in mind what the Brazilian Consul referred to when he further wrote: "The history of Brazil, I hope, will never register a time when so much money was spent for so many useless and criminal purposes as in the first days of the Republic." Those were the days of guarantees and subsidies by the wholesale, but those days are past. The President is himself sobered now, has dismissed the men who were looting the Treasury, and is cutting down expenses right and left—one effective way being the cancelling outright of millions of dollars' worth of contracts and concessions made a year ago. There is no likelihood whatever of a new era of that sort being entered upon for the present, and the utter absence of a business reason for the establishment of a new line is conclusively shown by the remarks of the President of the existing line, published on Thursday. He is correct in saying that the public service is so demoralized in Brazil that vessels sometimes have to wait three or four months before being able to unload, and that this state of affairs led to the discontinuance of the unsubsidized Baltimore line. His own company sees so little encouragement to hope for an enlarged business that it made no bid for a subsidy under the terms of the Postmaster-General's advertisement. We doubt if the new line ever gets off paper.

An interesting experiment with the eight-hour system is to be tried in London during 1892—hit upon as a way of staving off the threatened strike in the bookbinding trade. Through the mediation of the London Chamber of Commerce, the employers and their men have agreed to give the eight-hour day a trial for twelve months, at the end of which time it is to be continued or abandoned according to the results attained under it. There is also an arrangement in the matter of overtime, which is to be reckoned as all work over forty-eight hours a week. But the employers pledge themselves, in accordance with the desires of the men, to make every effort to abolish systematic overtime. They also grant an advance of 10 per cent. on prices for piecework. Under such voluntary and amicable conditions, the experiment promises to yield valuable conclusions as to the real effect of a working day of eight hours.

THE CHILIAN NEWS.

THE Administration gets its Chilian news from Mr. Patrick Egan, and no intelligent person will put much confidence in Mr. Egan's rendering of the Chilian despatch. When he says that it is "couched in strong language, and amounts to a refusal to accept responsibility for the affair" (the attack on American sailors in Valparaiso), it ought not to make any serious impression. We must see the despatch itself, which he would doubtless have given in full if it were as inflammable as he says it is. All news from him has to be read and construed in the light of his position at Santiago. He figures there not simply as a man disqualified for his post by training and antecedents, but as an accomplice in a conspiracy for the overthrow of the Government to which he was accredited, and the establishment of a dictatorship. Consequently, he ought to have been promptly withdrawn at the close of the war and on the restoration of the constituted authorities to power. As long as he is kept there, he is as dangerous as a lighted tobacco-pipe in a powder magazine. He has the strongest possible interest in producing an explosion of hostility of some kind between this country and Chili, in order to effect his retreat under cover of the patriotic excitement which an armed quarrel would produce.

How little his judgment in Chilian affairs is worth has been fully shown by the course of events. How little value it had during the dictatorship, when he was actually guiding the action of our State Department by his reports, was well illustrated by one little incident. Balmaceda found in the Government vaults, when he seized on the Treasury, $4,000,000 in silver. He was extremely anxious to get this out of the country, or, in other words, to steal it. He had no ships of his own in which he could send it away as his money. So he tried to sell it to foreigners on the spot by sending a private circular to every foreign house in Chili, offering to take their drafts on London at ninety days for any part of it at almost any price. Tempting as this was, *not one foreign house took any notice of his proposal*, so thoroughly satisfied were they, as intelligent observers, of the transitoriness and illegality of his rule; and yet at this time Egan was "stuffing" the State Department with news of its permanent establishment and the hopelessness of the Constitutional cause. Balmaceda afterwards got the silver conveyed to London by a British man-of-war, and it has there been impounded by an injunction. Our Congressional investigation will show, however, that stupidity as an observer of current events was by no means Egan's worst offence, for he was engaged also with Balmaceda in a financial speculation which that paltry Catiline had set on foot, and which needed the continuance of his power in order to succeed. The ship that is most needed to-day in Chilian waters is a ship to bring Egan home.

The only full text that has been made public of the correspondence relating to the Valparaiso riot, including the report made by Commander Schley, is that of the "instructions" sent by cable to "Egan, American Minister, Santiago." This contains a sort of highly colored summary of Commander Schley's report, with a good many adjectives thrown in, and then Egan is directed, not to deliver a despatch drawn at Washington in proper terms, but to communicate his instructions to the Chilian Government in his own way. Here is the exact and amazing text of the license given, in a most delicate matter, to the speech and behavior of an illiterate foreign adventurer, in his intercourse, on behalf of the United States, with the cultivated, proud, and sensitive men who represent the Chilian Republic:

> "You will at once bring to the attention of the Government of Chili the facts as reported to you by Capt. Schley, and will inquire whether there are any qualifying facts in the possession of that Government, or any explanation to be offered of an event that has very deeply pained the people of the United States, not only by reason of the resulting death of one of our sailors and the pitiless wounding of others, but even more as an apparent expression of an unfriendliness towards this Government which might put in peril the maintenance of amicable relations between the two countries. If the facts are as reported by Capt. Schley, this Government cannot doubt that the Government of Chili will offer prompt and full reparation. You will furnish the Foreign Office a full paraphrase of this despatch, and report promptly to this Government. WHARTON."

Now we ask any intelligent man, whether Democrat or Republican, to picture to himself the way in which Egan probably "brought" these matters "to the attention of the Chilian Government," and inquired whether they had any explanation to offer, and told about the "deep pain" of the people of the United States, and enlarged upon the fight as an "expression of unfriendliness" which might put the amicable relations of the two countries in peril. Egan has no diplomatic training whatever—not even a decent English education, nor any large business experience; and is utterly discredited in the eyes of the Chilians, both personally and officially, owing to his relations with Balmaceda. Common prudence, to say nothing of common decency, therefore, required that, under these circumstances, every word of the communication to the Chilian Government should be carefully weighed and written in Washington, and that Egan should be directed, as is usual among civilized nations in dealing with delicate international troubles, to "read this despatch to the Chilian Minister, and, if he desired it, to leave him a copy of it."

What happened at this interview of Egan with the Chilian Minister; what "demands" he made and what answers he got; what language he used, we know only from Egan himself. Indeed, all we know as yet of the written response of the Chilian Minister we get from a *précis* made and telegraphed by Egan. It says that the United States Government "formulates demands, and advances threats." But there were no "threats" in the instructions to Egan. Whence, then, did they come? Were they made by Egan? Where is Egan's own report of his conversation with the Minister? If Egan made threats and the Chilian Minister has resented them, are we going to back them up by war? In fact, we ought not to go a step farther in the matter without finding out what Egan said in carrying out his instructions. Any one who wishes to satisfy himself of the importance of this would do well to read the correspondence between Secretary Fish and Mr. Motley, then American Minister in London, in 1870. Mr. Motley was removed because, according to Mr. Fish, he had, on his own admission, in making representations to Lord Clarendon touching the *Alabama* claims, assumed a minatory tone, or, in other words, introduced a threat into his remonstrance, although the threat was nothing more serious than the assertion that "England had assumed a grave responsibility" in issuing the belligerent-rights proclamation. Mr. Fish, commenting on this, said:

> "The contingencies of war or peace! Neither the letter nor the spirit of his instructions authorized such expressions with which his remarks abounded; much less did his instructions, or the proprieties of the occasion, or the feelings of the President, justify his repeated allusions to the contingency or to the possibility of war. . . . It is a grave responsibility for a Minister to assume to intimate to the Government to which he is accredited the contingencies of war. Nations have been dragged into war by indiscretions less flagrant than those of Mr. Motley. He assumed a responsibility beyond the proprieties of his trust."

But in those days our diplomatic work was done decently and in order by well-equipped and sober-minded statesmen.

It must be remembered, too, that we have heard nothing whatever to warrant the conclusion that the Chilian Government is not applying to the outrage the usual process of law in a law-abiding country. There is a regular legal investigation going on according to the forms and usages of the Civil Law, which rules in all the Latin countries—Spain, France, and Italy—as well as in Germany. No one disputes this. The whole trouble can be cleared up in any sensible man's mind by his asking himself, How should we here behave if a similar disturbance with foreign sailors had occurred in our streets? Suppose Chilian sailors had been set upon by a New York mob, and the aggressors were arrested by our police, and a preliminary investigation was pending before Police Justice "Paddy" Divver or any other of the ornaments of our police-court bench? Would we allow the Chilians to come in and supervise the proceedings, with threats and doubts and suspicions, or to dictate the procedure and prescribe the punishment? Would we allow them to question "Paddy's" competency to conduct an important and delicate judicial investigation? If they instituted an odious comparison between their educated judicial officers and our barroom and gambling-house refuse, would we confess in shame, and hand the prisoners over to Chilian Navy captains to be tried by court-martial? Would we not, on the contrary, resent their interference bitterly, and, if necessary, resent it in arms?

That such an affair should be looked upon for one moment as likely to imperil seriously the good relations of the two countries, is a striking commentary on the way in which our diplomacy with Chili, as well as other South American States, has been conducted since the unfortunate day, in 1881, when Mr. James G. Blaine was converted into a Minister of Foreign Affairs. Al-

though the promotion of close alliance of every kind with the South American States has been for over fifty years a cardinal feature in American policy, we are to-day on much worse terms with them, and especially with Chili, than we were fifteen years ago. Chili has never got over Mr. Blaine's antics in the Peruvian Landreau affair, but she was in a fair way of doing so when he flung his "Blaine Irishman" at her head, for his own base and selfish purposes; and yet his organ has the boldness to prate of his "patriotism," and we find educated and intelligent men like Mr. Andrew D. White perorating on the party stump about the "safety" of our foreign relations in his hands!

COMMISSIONER RAUM'S REPORT.

COMMISSIONER RAUM'S report of the business of the Pension Bureau for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1891, taken in itself and apart from the scandals which have surrounded the Pension Office for some time past, discloses a condition of affairs which cannot but be disagreeable to the taxpayer. It appears from his showing that there were at the end of the year 676,160 pensioners borne upon the rolls. Of these, 633,479 are survivors of the army of the civil war, or the widows and dependent relatives of the soldiers of the civil war. The remaining pensioners are beneficiaries on account of the Revolution, of whom there are twenty-three widows and daughters, of the war of 1812, of the Mexican War, and of the naval service. It has been calculated that there were in all 2,780,176 men in the Union Army; that is to say, every fourth man is now represented on the pension rolls either by himself, or by a widow, or a parent, or child who was dependent upon him for support. There are 1,208,707 Union soldiers now living, and 520,158 of them draw pensions—about every other one.

Last year the Pension Office disbursed $118,548,959.71, and for the ensuing fiscal year will expend an appropriation of $133,473,085. A quarter of a century ago, when the war was just over, and when the proving of a pension claim was an easy matter — but when the detection of fraud was easy, too—65,256 claims were filed, 50,177 were allowed, and the whole cost was $13,459,996.43. Some advocates of our present pension system have explained the enormous increase in the business of the Pension Office by saying that in many instances the diseases or injuries arising from the service did not fully develop until some years after the war, and that claims have become more numerous in consequence as time has gone on. But those who use this argument forget how many men who were really in a disabled condition when the war closed, have since fully recovered their health. Last year 365,799 applications were filed, and the causes of this tremendous increase are simply the activity of the claim agents, the reckless legislation of Congress, and the extravagant administration of the Pension Office. These three forces play into one another's hands. The claim agents drum up the claimants, both bring effective pressure to bear on Congress, and all the parties in interest exert an influence upon the Pension Office.

During the past year 71,004 claims were allowed under the act of June 27, 1890. This is the Dependent Pension Law passed by the last Congress, and provides that "all persons who served ninety days or more in the military or naval service . . . who are now or who may hereafter be suffering from a mental or physical disability of a permanent character, not the result of their own vicious habits, which incapacitates them from the performance of manual labor in such a degree as to render them unable to earn a support, shall, upon making due proof of the fact according to such rules or regulations as the Secretary of the Interior may provide, be placed upon the list of invalid pensions." Mr. Raum gives a table showing the period of service by months rendered by each beneficiary under this act, and appears to derive much satisfaction from the statement that "the largest number of certificates issued to any class was 4,693 to men who had served thirty-six months." Fortunately for his theory, there is no publication of the War Department showing the length of service of the men who were discharged from the army; otherwise it might be shown that the percentage of claims filed by soldiers who had but a short service is higher than the percentage filed by those whose service was long. If enlistments are any guide, this is unquestionably true. Under the call for troops of May 3, 1861, for instance, 657,868 men were furnished for three years, 9,147 for one year, and 2,715 for six months, and under the call of the following year 421,465 were furnished for three years and only 15,007 for three months. Yet under the Dependent Pension Act, Mr. Raum allowed pensions to 1,638 men who had served three months, to 3,852 who had served four months, 2,778 who had served one year, 1,254 who had served thirteen months. The number rather diminishes after that until the three-years' men, who were so largely the preponderating element, are reached.

Mr. Raum's next table effectually disposes of any false sentiment for "the poor old veterans" who have been pensioned under this law, as it shows that 24,991 were men under fifty years of age; that 27,926 were between the ages of fifty and sixty years; and that but 15,039 were between the ages of sixty and seventy years. Pensioners above seventy are few.

A notable omission in this part of the report is a neglect to say anything of the evidence required by the Pension Office to establish these claims. Under the law the nature of the proof must be prescribed by the Secretary of the Interior, and it would be interesting to know what these rules are. If they are strict and carefully applied, they are some safeguard against fraud; but if they are loose and are loosely administered, the Government is at the mercy of the claimants.

One safeguard, although a very insufficient one, against the allowance of fraudulent claims has hitherto been the employment of special examiners to investigate personally upon the spot suspicious claims; but Commissioner Raum tells us with considerable pride that he has reduced the force of special examiners from 340 to 110. Indeed, one looks in vain in this report for any reference to illegal claims. Strange as it may seem, it is nevertheless true that not since the days when James A. Bentley was Commissioner of Pensions has there been any serious effort to protect the Government from the "organized raid" of the claim agents, the claimants, and the politicians.

How long is this colossal pension business to last? There is a table in Commissioner Raum's report which seems to show that it will never end, and that it will, on the contrary, keep on increasing for years to come. The army invalid claims filed under the general law—not the act of June 27, 1890 — in 1890 numbered 71,318. Of these, only 17.9 per cent. were allowed in that year. Very few were rejected, and in the end nearly all of them will be allowed; the point to which attention is directed is, that every year it becomes more difficult to prove these claims under the general law, and requires a longer time, and in consequence the labors of the Pension Bureau would appear to be interminable. In 1889 51,919 claims were filed, and 41 per cent. of them were admitted. In 1888 47,347 claims were filed, 53.7 per cent. of which were allowed, and so on. The number of claims filed under the general law has hitherto increased, and the length of time during which they are before the Pension Office before adjudication has become longer. The Dependent Pension Act has had the effect of reducing the number of invalid claims filed under the general law to 20,519, but a large proportion of these claims will remain upon the files of the Pension Office year after year, and will require attention until they are finally admitted or rejected.

Mr. Raum's report is a short one—the shortest, in fact, that has come from the Bureau in many years. It is particularly free from suggestions or recommendations of changes. Apparently he is satisfied with matters as they stand, but in this particular most good citizens do not agree with him.

THE RELIGIOUS TRADITION ABOUT THE PRESIDENCY.

SEVERAL of the Presidents have been church-members, and, with scarcely an exception, the chief magistrates of this country have shown great respect for religion, no matter what their private views might be; but none of them ever had such a claim as Mr. Harrison's to be considered a preeminently religious man. He was not only a church-member but a church-official—and that in a denomination noted for austerity of practice as much as for orthodoxy of profession. His departure from Indianapolis for Washington was made a religious ceremony. On the train he held morning prayers. He has been an exemplary churchgoer, and his carefulness about matters of religious observance, such as travelling on Sunday, has been notorious. In short, there can be no question that he is the most

religious man, in the common acceptation of the words, ever elected to the Presidency. Yet it has been reserved for him to deal a fatal blow to a long-standing religious tradition of this country relating to public office.

That tradition has been that the way to stay political corruption and take away the reproach of politics, the way to secure public men who will say what they mean and stand by what they say, who will rebuke and put down partisan schemes and scoundrels, and who will elevate political affairs to a higher and purer plane, was to elect to office, particularly to the highest office in the land, God fearing and pious men. This has been the burden of address after address in church congresses, of sermon after sermon on Fast days and Thanksgivings, and of editorial after editorial in the religious newspapers. And when Gen. Harrison was chosen President, we were assured by all the authorities on the subject that he was precisely the kind of man they had been hoping for. We have no doubt that he was. We do not question for a moment the sincerity of his religious professions. But we maintain that his conduct has been such as to make impossible in the future the kind of talk we have referred to, which was so common before his election to the Presidency, and which had such special currency during his Presidential campaign and at the time of his election and inauguration.

In the crucial matter of ante-election pledges compared with post-election performance, President Harrison has shown, so far as his example goes, that the word of a Presbyterian elder is no better than that of a Tammany politician. If this is thought by any of our readers to be an uncharitable judgment, let them test it by undisputed facts. In his letter of acceptance, Gen. Harrison pledged himself, if elected, to make "fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office," and to order "removals from office" only in "the interest of the public service." This was a specific and solemn promise. It was the most important part of the whole letter. The candidate's attitude towards the great issue, protection, was never in doubt, and all that people wanted to know was his views on the civil service. On that subject he went beyond his party platform, and committed himself in the language we have quoted. He did this to get votes, and it undoubtedly won him votes. It was this that secured him the support of the Indianapolis civil-service reformers, of Mr. H. C. Lea of Philadelphia, and many others. Thus the pledge was most precise, and was understood by the public to be.

To show how lightly this God-fearing man held his plighted word, we will cite, as we said, undisputed facts. Only a little more than a month after his inauguration, on April 13, 1889, a chief of division under him wrote to a discharged public officer, saying that "the action was taken in consequence of no fault on your part. . . . The reasons for your retirement were of a political nature." The President must have sanctioned this letter openly or tacitly, for if he did not, he would never have allowed its unmistakable impeachment of his veracity to go uncontradicted. So much for removals. Now for a case of failure to continue in office a man of unquestioned "fidelity and efficiency." In so marked a degree had Postmaster Corse of Boston displayed these qualities that a popular movement for his reappointment gained such headway as to carry with it even the two Republican Senators from Massachusetts. But the reappointment was not made, and the President gave as the reason that "it was not wise to appoint to an important office a person who made no expression anywhere of disapprobation of these things"—*i.e.*, of alleged misdeeds of Democrats in other States. On his own showing, therefore, Mr. Harrison admitted that he had not meant what he said in his letter of acceptance.

We will not multiply cases of the same sort, easy as it would be, because, for our present purpose, these are enough. These clear cases of political untruthfulness have never been disputed. They have never been defended except on the ground that it was sometimes good politics to break one's word. But we are dealing not with the policy, but with the honesty, of a religious man in politics. It will not do to come to the rescue of such a man by saying that he is "no worse than Cleveland." Here was a church-member deliberately making a pledge and then deliberately breaking it. That puts an end to the tradition that the word of a pious man, as such, is better in political matters than the word of a Tammany politician. If President Harrison should be renominated and should make his pledge over again, it would as justly give politicians occasion to thrust their tongues in their cheeks and wink at each other as would the repetition of Mayor Grant's famous promise to make his appointments from "the highest order of citizenship." On the basis of performance, the political veracity of the two men stands on the same level.

In the choice of those whom he delights to honor, President Harrison has also proved religious tradition to have been greatly at fault in affirming that piety in the White House would mean purity in politics. If a hundred intelligent men were asked to name the three most offensive and dangerous leaders in the Republican party it is probable that ninety-nine would mention Mahone, Quay, and Platt. They are the ones whom the religious people have had in mind when speaking of the need of putting a good man into the Presidential chair in order to discourage unscrupulous corruptionists. Yet they never flourished in their lives as they have under the most conspicuously "good man" that ever filled the Presidency. Each of them has boasted of having the President's influence behind him, and has proved the boast to be true by the Presidential patronage placed at his disposal. Other Presidents have now and then given in to a party "boss" who was notorious for dishonest political methods; but we think that the spectacle of a President placing himself in the hands of three such men as Platt, Mahone, and Quay was never seen before Mr. Harrison displayed it. And it must be remembered that this is the critical test: these are the men who direct and give tone to the party. They overbalance great numbers of excellent appointments, which no one has more heartily praised than we have. What influence have good Judges on the management and reputation of the party, compared with the men who control the machine and dispense patronage and corrupt voters? These last are the men whom religious tradition has asserted a really pious President would leave without influence and put to shame, when the fact is, they have attained their very highest pitch of effrontery and power under precisely such a President.

It may be doubted if there was not always more or less illusion in the idea we refer to; but all we are at present concerned to note is, that it has been dissipated by the very man who was expected to confirm it. If it is a loss to religion in this country to have it demonstrated that a church-member in the White House will be no more careful of his word or of his political associates than any other man, then that loss has been inflicted by the most religious man ever chosen President. It is in one sense laughable, in another sense most tragic and melancholy, that such a man should have suffered the humiliation of receiving two of the most scathing denunciations ever addressed, in the name of religion, to the ruler of a civilized country. At the time of the Washington centennial celebration in this city, Bishop Potter, it is true, lashed the President only by praising certain civic virtues in Washington—whose religious professions, by the way, were certainly of the vaguest; but the open letter of Mr. H. C. Lea to Mr. Harrison went at the business with the directness of John Knox. Saying to the President that "your connection with him [Quay] has rendered the scandal national," and that by "accepting his man, Mr. Wanamaker," though "duly warned in advance from a friendly source of the dangers of such an alliance," "you assumed responsibility for both of them," he went on to accuse him of being false to "the pledges under which you were elected." Then, rising to true prophetic vein, he adopted and applied to Mr. Harrison the language of the Hebrew prophet: "The heads thereof judge for reward, and the priests thereof teach for hire, and the prophets divine for money; yet will they lean upon the Lord and say: 'Is not the Lord among us?'" Nothing could more conclusively signify the disappearance of the religious tradition about the Presidency.

A CATASTROPHE OF THE GLACIAL PERIOD.

OBERLIN, O., October 19, 1891.

GREAT SALT LAKE is now a shallow body of water, occupying an enclosed basin, and subject to whatever fluctuations are dependent upon changes in the rainfall or in the rapidity of evaporation. That it once stood at a much higher level than it does now, and extended over a vastly larger area, is evident even to an ordinary observer who visits Salt Lake City;

for, all along the western flanks of the Wahsatch Mountains, a conspicuous feature in the landscape is a level-topped terrace, several hundred feet above the city, which very clearly marks an old shore line of the lake. The recent monograph, prepared by Mr. G. K. Gilbert of the Geological Survey, upon Lake Bonneville (the name given to the old extension of water in the basin), brings to our knowledge one of the most interesting and remarkable catastrophes in geological history.

The area of the present lake is but 2,170 square miles, with an extreme depth of 49 feet, and a mean depth of 13 feet. Its area at the time of the enlargement, indicated by the upper terrace, was 19,750 square miles, and its extreme depth, 1,050 feet, making a body of water twice as large as Lake Erie, and five times as deep. For many years it has been a question of great interest whether or not the former enlargement of this lake was sufficient to make it pour over its rim at any point; and, if so, where and under what conditions. These questions are now definitely settled by Mr. Gilbert's survey. The lake did rise till it found an outlet, and the discharge was accompanied by dramatic features rarely, if ever, repeated elsewhere. The outlet finally obtained by the water was to the north, through the Port Neuf River into the Snake River Valley, to augment the floods of that important branch of the Columbia. It is to the peculiar circumstances of this discharge that attention will now be directed.

The pass through which the discharge finally took place is at Red Rock, on the Utah and Northern Railroad, at the head of Cache Valley on the south and the lower part of Marsh Creek Valley on the north. During the long period preceding and accompanying the gradual rise of water in the Utah Basin to the level of the highest terrace, Marsh Creek (the upper portion of which comes from the mountains on the east and turns at right angles) had been at work depositing a delta of loose material in the col which separates the two valleys. This deposit rested upon a stratum of limestone at the bottom of the pass, and covered it with sand, clay, and gravel to a depth of 375 feet. Thus, when the water was approaching its upper level, the only barrier to prevent its escape was this unstable accumulation of loose material upon top of the rock. It would have required, therefore, no prophet's eye to predict that the way was preparing for a tremendous *débâcle*.

The critical point at length was reached. After remaining nearly at the elevation of the pass for a considerable period, during which the 1,000-foot shore line was formed, the crisis came when the water began to flow northward towards Snake River. Once begun in such loose material, the channel rapidly enlarged until soon a stream equal to Niagara, and at times probably much larger than Niagara, was pouring northward through the valley heretofore occupied by the insignificant rivulets of Marsh Creek and the Port Neuf. It is impossible to tell how rapidly the loose barrier wore away, but there is abundant evidence in the valley below that not only the present channel of the lower part of Marsh Creek, but the whole bottom of the valley for a mile or more in width, was for a considerable time covered by a rapid stream from ten to twenty feet in depth, and descending at the rate of thirteen feet to the mile.

The continuance of this flood was dependent upon the amount of water to be discharged, which, as we have seen, was that contained in an area of 20,000 square miles, with a depth of 375 feet. A stream of the size of Niagara would occupy about twenty-five years in the discharge of such a mass, and this may fairly be taken as a measure of the time through which it lasted. When the loose material lying above the strata of limestone in Red Rock Pass had been washed away, the lake then continued at that level for an indefinite period, with an overflow regulated by the annual precipitation of the drainage basin. This stage of the lake, during which it occupied 13,000 square miles and was 625 feet above its present level, is also marked by an extensive and persistent shoreline all around the basin. But finally the balance was again turned when the evaporation exceeded the precipitation, and the vast body of water has since dwindled to its present insignificant dimensions.

We have spoken of this geological catastrophe as connected with the glacial period, but the connection is not at once evident, since the enlargement of the old lake was merely one of the indirect effects of the period. It is easy to see, however, that the refrigeration characterizing the epoch would both increase the precipitation and diminish the evaporation over considerable areas outside of the actual accumulation of ice; so that we readily find in the glacial period the causes needed to produce such a recent enlargement of the lakes in the arid basins of Utah and Nevada as is known to have taken place. More direct evidence exists also in the terminal moraines to which Sir Archibald Geikie called attention several years ago, and which were laid down upon the very margin of the old lake by local glaciers coming down from the Wahsatch Mountains.

My own interest in this discovery of Mr. Gilbert is enhanced by the explanation it gives to a phenomenon in the Snake River Valley which I was unable to solve when on the ground a year or more ago. The present railroad town of Pocatello is situated just where this flood emerged from the narrower valley of Marsh Creek and the Port Neuf, and spread itself out upon the broad plain of the Snake River basin. The southern edge of the plain upon which the city is built is a vast boulder bed covered with a thin stratum of sand and gravel. Everywhere, in sinking wells and digging ditches on the vacant lots and in the streets of the city, water-worn boulders of a great variety of material and sometimes three or four feet in diameter are encountered. I was debarred from regarding this as a terminal moraine, both by the water-worn character of the boulders and by the absence of any signs of ice action in the surrounding mountains, and I was equally debarred from attributing it to any ordinary stream of water, both by the size of the boulders and by the fact that for a mile or more up the Port Neuf valley there is an intervale, forty or fifty feet below the surface at Pocatello and occupying the whole width of the valley, in which there is only gravel and fine sand, through which the present Port Neuf pursues a meandering course. The upper end of this short intervale is bounded by the terminus of a basaltic stream which had flowed down the valley and filled it to a considerable depth, but had subsequently been much eroded by violent water action.

In the light of Mr. Gilbert's discoveries, however, everything is clear. The tremendous *débâcle* which he has brought within the range of scientific vision would naturally produce just the condition of things which is so puzzling at Pocatello. Coming down through the restricted channel with sufficient force to roll along boulders of great size and to clear them all out from the upper portion of the valley, the torrent would naturally deposit them where the current was first checked, a mile below the lava cliffs. The plunge of the water over these cliffs would keep a short space below clear from boulders, and the more moderate stream of subsequent times would fill in the cavity with the sand and gravel now occupying it.

What other effects of this remarkable outburst may be traced further down in the Snake River Valley I cannot say, but it will be surprising if they do not come to light and help to solve some of the many geological problems yet awaiting us in this interesting region. At any rate, the whole story of this geological catastrophe is instructive—on the one hand, as illustrating the insecurity of conclusions concerning the past drawn from the activity of agencies now in operation, and, on the other, as showing how geological catastrophes when they occur are but the culmination of slowly acting and calculable causes.

G. Frederick Wright.

Correspondence.

THE CHILIAN TROUBLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps the most striking fact in connection with this matter is, that if Mr. Bayard had remained in the State Department, we should almost certainly have avoided this fracas as well as the concentrated hatred and fury which the Chilians (not altogether unnaturally) exhibit towards us. It also affords an excellent illustration of the working of "practical politics." Mr. Harrison had an electioneering debt to pay to Mr. Blaine, and accordingly placed our skyrockety fellow-citizen in the Department of State. Likewise Mr. Blaine had a similar debt to pay to Egan and settled it by sending him to Chili. Both debts were paid—very cheaply to the debtors, but most expensively to the country.

The main fact in the whole matter is one relative to which the Administration gives us not an iota of information. The Chilians are enraged because, rightly or wrongly, they believe that Admiral Brown played the spy and gave important information as to the movements of the Congressional army at a most critical moment—information that undoubtedly diminished their chances of success, increased their losses, and might have turned the scale. The Administration cannot ignore or slur over this charge. The truth is needed and must come out. If it is false, let us have the satisfaction of knowing it to be so. If true, Admiral Brown should be court-martialled and cashiered.—Very truly, etc.,

M. C. L.

STATE POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have not undertaken any better or more important work than the defence of State politics (which of course includes municipal) against national. You ask those who insist upon using State and city elections for national party purposes, even when, as in off years, they are only indirectly available, what times or opportunities they would allow us for attending to our own local affairs. Of course they will not and cannot answer this question. The only resource is to beat them out of the field by making State questions more interesting than national—that is, in off

years, for, of course, in Presidential and Congressional years it is out of the question.

Now the question of the appointment and removal of his subordinates by the Governor; the abolition of executive commissions, and the performance of their duties by the responsible executive officials, just as under the Federal Government; and, further, the presence of these officials in the Legislature, are and can be made the most exciting of political questions, not only for students, but for the people. They involve a fight between Executive and Legislature, and a fight always draws a crowd.

We have been fortunate enough this year in Massachusetts to have a Democratic Governor with a Republican Council and a Republican Legislature, and the elements of these constitutional questions have crystallized into a very pretty quarrel. I have attended a number of meetings in this campaign in different parts of the State, and read the reports of a great many others, and it has seemed to me that the popular interest in the State questions was much greater than in national. After listening for an hour or more with a bored look to tariff discussions, enlivened only by the occasional mention of the name of Grover Cleveland, the audiences sensibly brightened up when any one began to tell them about Gov. Russell and what the row at the State House was about. To my regret and disappointment, Gov. Russell has allowed himself to be switched off from these main questions and on to the national track. During the last and important part of the campaign, he has given himself up almost wholly to the discussion of prices under the McKinley tariff. From the point of view of personal modesty it was perhaps praiseworthy, but from that of his own interest and that of the State, I regard it as a mistake.

I was travelling a day or two since with a gentleman of wide reputation in New York, whose name would be well known to you, but whom I had not previously met. He expressed a warm approbation of and agreement with my views as to personal responsibility in government, reproached me gently for confining it to speculation, pointed out how it could be reduced to practice, and said that if he were not interested in so many other movements, he would undertake it himself.

One of his suggestions seemed to me particularly valuable. The question was how should the measures I have above described be got before the people. Why, said he, a Governor who believed in them, would send a message to the Legislature describing them and inviting that body to name a day for meeting him in joint public session for the discussion of them. If the Legislature took no notice, he would follow it up with another and more urgent one, and if there was no reply, would then invite the members of his own party to meet him in the same way.

I am inclined to think that in a State election—in an off year—which followed such a process as that, there would be no lack of popular interest, and that national affairs would stand a very small chance indeed.

GAMALIEL BRADFORD.

BOSTON, October 31, 1891.

A MISLEADING CIRCULAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have before me a circular asking for general subscriptions for the University Marine Biological Association. The document is so disingenuous that I ask the privilege of calling attention, through your columns, to the singularity of the appeal.

There has been established a Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Holl, Mass. This Laboratory has been in successful activity for several years, and has attracted a large number of the ablest biologists of the country, who have availed themselves of its excellent facilities, and it has given instruction to a yearly increasing class of students. It is under the direction of Prof. C. O. Whitman, who has to assist him a corps of men of established reputations in science. This institution has been founded and maintained by the earnest devotion of its officers, and offers free and equal advantages to every competent investigator. It has, therefore, earned its place and the hearty approval which has been bestowed upon it.

The circular of the University Marine Biological Association is so worded as to give the impression that its laboratory is the only one of the kind in the country, and that if it is not supported, America will be without a station for biological work at the seaside. The circular gives a list of the stations in foreign countries, "which" (I quote) "will make clear at the same time how much America is behind other nations in giving scientific oversight to one side of the question of cheap and plentiful food supply." The circular does not mention in this list either the laboratory at Wood's Holl, the United States Fish Commission, or any of the State Fish Commissions. It is well known that our country has been among the foremost, perhaps the foremost, in applying science to fishery problems. That the Marine Biological Laboratory was not unknown to those who issued the circular, I conclude not only from the fact that the laboratory is known to biologists the world over, not only from the fact that they have quoted on their first page from Dr. Whitman's address before the laboratory members, but also from the fact that I have myself described in detail the organization of Dr. Whitman's Laboratory to one officer of the University Association, and have personally escorted another over the laboratory buildings. It may be added that the new Association is undertaken by the University of Pennsylvania, and that the authorities of that institution have been officially informed of the existence and plans of the Marine Biological Laboratory.

Other parts of the circular are so worded that those who issue it might say that there was no absolute deception, and yet any one who read it without knowing of the earlier laboratory would certainly never suspect that the new one was not the first and only laboratory to supply an urgent need in this country.

I will add that I am personally interested in the Biological Laboratory at Wood's Holl, and that the University of Pennsylvania, together with other universities, was invited to co-operate. The Philadelphia University has decided to attempt its own laboratory, but I consider it unjust to ignore the earlier institution, and to appeal to the public so as to give the impression that it is a question of founding the first and only biological station in America.—Yours respectfully, CHARLES S. MINOT.

HARVARD MEDICAL SCHOOL, BOSTON, Oct. 25.

PRESIDENT FINNEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may be to you a matter of interest that the favorite paper of C. G. Finney was the *Nation*. He took it from the first number, and just before his death he had renewed his annual subscription. He preserved all the numbers and gave them to the college library, where they now do good service. The editorials especially he used to read with much zest.

Permit me to add that I was sorry to see in your last number so depreciatory, and, as it seems to me, unjust, an estimate of Mr. Finney. The writer evidently never knew him, but has a misconception of him and of his work. Though not technically a scholar, he was more of a thinker than most scholars, and had a rare power of concentrating and wielding his thought. And he had a heart as large as his mind. His personality was most marked; he was eminently human, and in his day was a great power in the promotion of righteousness. —Respectfully, HENRY MATSON.

OBERLIN, O., October 26, 1891.

THE REV. LAWRENCE WASHINGTON OF PURLEIGH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since an English writer has seen fit to refer to the Rev. Lawrence Washington of Purleigh as "a drunken parson," I have found great consolation in looking over the 'Annals of Evangelical Nonconformity in Essex,' by the Rev. T. W. Davids (London, 1863). The author has considerable to say about the Episcopal ministers who were expelled from their livings in 1643, doubtless for their loyalty, but ostensibly for other causes. He quotes the evidence in many cases. He cites (p. 246) the charge against Washington as a tippler and often drunk, but he also quotes the same charge against many others. I notice these cases: T. Punter (p. 232), Thurman (p. 233), Fairfax (p. 233), Hurt (p. 238), Turner (p. 239), Southen (p. 239), Chamberlain (p. 242), Frost (p. 243), Staples (p. 245), Washington (p. 246), Lake (p. 247), Heard (p. 249), Laud (p. 249), N. Wright (p. 250), Darnell (p. 251), Hull (p. 253), Brinsley (p. 341), Bird (p. 349), Beard (p. 350), Man (p. 380), Benson (p. 417), Nicholson (p. 422), Billio (p. 512), Deersley (p. 515), F. Wright (p. 518).

Here there are twenty-five cases, where clergymen were deprived, in which this same charge of drunkenness is made. Considering the social habits of the time, and the fact that most of these, if not all, were also accused of excessive attachment to the cause of Episcopacy and monarchy, is it not evident that the charge is a mere pretext, and that Mr. Washington does not deserve to be singled out for opprobrium and judged according to recent standards of morals?

From Mr. Davids's book I glean one or two interesting points. Thus he states (p. 302) in regard to Braxted Parva, "The return in 1650 is 'Mr. White was presented, but he hath left it about three years, and Mr. Roberts provides for the supply of the cure.' Lands. MSS. 459." Again (p. 156) he says of the Rev. Nehemiah Rogers of Messing, that he was sequestered at Bishopsgate in 1643 and at Ely in 1645. "He continued to preach, however, for three years at Little Braxted, for upwards of six at St. Osyth, where he is found in 1650, and ultimately became rector of Doddinghurst, where he died."

It would seem, then, that Mr. Roberts had given this "poor living" first, about 1645, to Nehemiah Rogers; then, about 1647 or 8, Mr. White was presented, but in place of him Lawrence Washington took it. It is certainly very curious that it was John Rogers, son of Nehemiah, who expelled Washington from Purleigh (p. 272), and that the latter was thrown upon the same charity which had supported Rogers's father. As Nehemiah and his son seem to have been on opposite sides, I presume that there was no retaliation in this.

If, by any happy chance, the family papers of the Robertses of Little Braxted have been preserved, we may yet learn something of this patron of distressed clergymen. The first of the name at that place was Thomas, auditor to Henry VIII. His son was Clement, whose son Thomas married Alice Hobson and was alive in 1612. Then came Thomas, the owner in 1634, whose son Thomas was aged sixteen. As the father had then ten children, it seems probable that he deceased before the Civil War, and that it was the young man who was the friend of Nehemiah Rogers and Lawrence Washington.

In 1660, among the signers of a petition to Gen. Monk, calling for peace and amnesty (Davis, p. 323), are Sir Benjamin Ayloffe of Great Braxted and Thomas Roberts of Little Braxted.

Mr. Davids quotes as authorities Cole's MSS., Landsdowne MSS. 459, Add. MSS. 15660, 15669, and 15670, also Journals of the House of Lords, Journal of House of Commons, and State Paper Office files. He seems to say that many of the original papers in regard to these sequestrations are preserved. If so, we may yet find the petition of the wife of the rector of Purleigh, and learn her Christian name, or we may get a signature of the Rev. Lawrence Washington. Col. Chester's references, as quoted by Mr. Conway, are Harl. MS. 6244, in regard to the petition for tithes; and Pul. R. O. Charles I., W. 58, No. 29, as to the chancery suit. W. H. W.

P. S.—Davids (p. 220) mentions the Rev. Elizæus Burgess of Canewdon, Essex, also archdeacon of Rochester, as sequestered in 1643. From identity of name, I imagine him to have been an ancestor of the Col. Eliseus Burgess who was commissioned as Governor of Massachusetts in 1715, and who sold his commission to Gov. Shute. I do not remember to have seen any facts about this politician.

Notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. have nearly ready 'Preludes and Studies: Musical Themes of the Day,' by W. J. Henderson.

Henry Holt & Co., in response to a demand for a popular edition of President Walker's works on 'Money' and 'Wages,' will bring one out at a materially reduced price.

Macmillan & Co. are about to publish 'Natural Theology,' by Sir G. G. Stokes; 'The Burning of Rome,' an historical novel by the Rev. Alfred J. Church; and 'The History of David Grieve,' a new novel by Mrs. Humphry Ward.

'The Divine Enterprise of Missions,' lectures by the Rev. Arthur T. Pierson, is announced by the Baker & Taylor Co.

J. G. Cupples, Boston, will issue during the present season a 'History of Haverhill, Mass.,' by Col. Frankle, and 'Watchwords from John Boyle O'Reilly,' by Katherine E. Conway.

A beginner's book in Old English (Anglo-Saxon), by Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan, is promised by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

A 'Latin Prose' based on Livy, by Prof. A. Judson Eaton of McGill University, Montreal, should deserve a welcome on the part of teachers and students of Latin. Ginn & Co. will publish it.

J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, announce the completion of John Foster Kirk's Supplement to Allibone's 'Dictionary of English Literature and British and American Authors.'

A Danish-Greenland dictionary is at present being prepared under the direction of the Danish Government, to which a revised edition of the New Testament will be added.

With Part 24 the 'Century Dictionary' comes to an end, and, glad as we are to have it complete, we shall miss the pleasant recurrence of such admirable specimens of the printer's art. The final folio is 7,046, but pages are still added containing a supplementary note to the preface, a list of writers and authorities cited, and a list of "amended spellings" recommended by the Philological Society of London and the American Philological Association. Prof. Whitney urges the general adoption of these spellings with undeniable force, but we wish he could have pointed to the least advance towards the desired end since the "Twenty-four Rules" were adopted in 1883. Has one school board prescribed them? Has one school-book been printed in accordance with them? Has one publishing-house offered to print for any author who desires to observe them, or ventured to issue any classic in their guise? Has any author of high literary standing insisted on being printed in the new orthography? If not, what prospect is there of the reform being carried out? We ask these questions in no antipathetic spirit.

The season is already prolific in new editions of standard works, and we can hardly do more than mention the titles of them. The Brantwood Edition of Ruskin (Charles E. Merrill & Co.) has for its latest issue 'Val d'Arno,' lectures on Tuscan art in the first half of the thirteenth century, delivered in 1873, prettily illustrated. Four volumes swell the Riverside Edition of Dr. Holmes's writings (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), viz, his three novels, 'Elsie Venner,' 'The Guardian Angel,' and 'A Mortal Antipathy,' and 'Pages from an Old Volume of Life'—twelve essays and addresses, among which the author specially designates his favorite, "The Seasons," and it is in truth characteristic in the best sense, and of permanent value in the natural history of New England. Dr. Holmes's publishers also send us their new-dressed 'Snow-Bound,' illustrated by E. H. Garrett, and adorned with a steel portrait of Whittier. Only one side of each leaf is printed, with beautiful typography, and thus some forty pages are eked out, while the vignettes are all separate from the text. There are nine of these, copied in photogravure, and on the whole they add much to the elegance of the get-up; one or two of the landscapes are little gems, but the figure pieces are less successful. The form of Long's translation of 'The Discourses of Epictetus,' as put forth by Macmillan (London: George Bell & Sons), is all that we need concern ourselves with. This well-known work has been tastefully made over in two handy volumes of clear print on laid paper, bound in a strong blue cloth. Besides the notes there is, as was inevitable, an index. D. Lothrop Co. have essayed a Library Edition of the 'Arabian Nights' in four volumes, adapted for family reading from the text of Jonathan Scott. There is a fair sprinkling of quite recent illustrations. Dr. Wm. Elliot Griffis furnishes a well-conceived introduction, describing the Oriental public story-teller, and discussing from the best sources the nature and derivation of the stories. It adds much to the value of this edition, which, for the rest, is attractively made, within and without. It is fitting to mention next Mr. S. G. W. Benjamin's 'Persia and the Persians,' which originally appeared in 1886 with the imprint of Ticknor & Co., and now bears that of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., with no ostensible change in the body of the work. The volume is planned on a large scale, and comes to us very well bound. We do not recall any illustrations in last year's first bringing out of Austin Dobson's 'Four Frenchwomen' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Fourteen of them, mostly from contemporary prints, accompany this year's edition. They perhaps add a little to the worth of this youthful production.

The trustees of the Boston Public Library, having acquired at a great price at the Barlow sale a copy of the Latin version of the 'First Letter (to Raphael Sanchez) of Columbus announcing the Discovery of America,' have resolved to popularize it by publishing it in facsimile. This has been handsomely done in a thin small folio, and a new translation supplied by one of their members, Prof. Henry W. Haynes, in addition to a preface in which he gives the history of the letter in its Spanish and Latin forms. He points out several discrepancies between the text of this (Roman) edition and that of the Kennedy copy in the Lenox Library, which has also been published in facsimile. This volume and Mr. Winsor's 'Columbus' appear simultaneously, and worthily introduce the Columbiana to be evoked by the four-hundredth anniversary now close at hand.

The Rev. J. Evans Walcott, Public Librarian at Bridgetown, Barbados, has just issued a reprint of that very rare booklet, 'Memoirs of the First Settlement of the Island of Barbados and Other of the Carribee Islands.' Compiled by some colonist of Barbados, and first printed and published there in 1741, it was reprinted in London in 1743. A copy of either date seldom comes upon the market. The last offered for sale by a firm of Bristol (England) booksellers was priced at $12, and was bought at once. It is this book which contains a list of the owners of ten acres and upwards on the island in 1638. A copy of this list was published in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April, 1885, with notes by Mr. Samuel Briggs of Cleveland, O. Valuable as is the book, it is far from being free from errors. It is therefore to be regretted that Mr. Walcott should have reprinted it without attempting to edit it. There used to be two copies of the 'Memoirs' in the British Museum. One copy disappeared a few years ago. The other forms an item in the Grenville collection. To use it, students have to go into the special sanctum for rare works.

David Douglas, Edinburgh, adds to his well-known series of books on sport and natural history 'The Camp Fires of the Everglades, or Wild Sports in the South,' by Charles E. Whitehead. The volume contains a good deal of reprinted matter, much of which appeared under the title 'Wild Sports in the South' (New York, 1860). The whole relates to that far-away time when deer and bear and "Injins" were common in Florida, and is an agreeable mixture of narratives of actual hunting adventure with undisguised "yarns" and observations of nature. Paper and print are excellent, and of the many illustrations two or three are notably good.

There is not much new or valuable information in 'Two Years among the Savages of New Guinea' (London: Ward & Downey). The author, Mr. W. D. Pitcairn, was a trader, and his account of his various trips after bêche-de-mer, copra, cocoanuts, etc., is at times very entertaining. The most interesting of these was to the Bismarck Archipelago, where he visited a "splendid" plantation, owned and superintended by a half-caste Samoan woman. Her principal crops were coffee, cocoanuts, and cotton. For the pre-

paration of the latter she had six cotton-gins working every day. The cotton "appeared of very good quality, and the manager, Mr. P——, told me it realized from 1s. to 1s. 3d. per pound in Sydney." The book shows, in a very graphic manner, the constant peril in which a trader lives, especially those who are venturesome enough to go to the more distant islands. The fertility of some of these islands is extraordinary. On Kiwai, for instance, about thirty-six miles long and two-and-a half broad, the natives cultivate thirty-six different varieties of the banana, twenty-five kinds each of the sago-tree and the yam, as well as ten of sweet potatoes. Of the natives of the south coast of New Guinea, Mr. Pitcairn says: "They have no knowledge of any intoxicating drink, not even of kava," the palm-wine in almost universal use in those regions where the palm is to be found.

Those who are interested in our coast line in one way or another should know that an illustrated catalogue of the charts published by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey has lately been prepared under the direction of Superintendent Mendenhall by Assistant Colonna. The left-hand pages contain outlines of successive portions of our coast from Maine to Alaska, with rectangular spaces marked off, by which the area and location of all published maps are indicated. The special description of these maps, giving their scale, dimensions, and cost, appears on the corresponding right-hand pages. The maps are sold at the cost of paper and printing, and, with the catalogue, can be obtained at the agencies in all our coast cities. There are seven such agencies in New York city.

A 'Popular Handbook and Atlas of Astronomy' has been prepared by William Peck, Astronomer to the City of Edinburgh (Putnams). It is in quarto form, allowing the introduction of numerous large-sized plates in their proper place with the text. Most of the illustrations are well prepared, and the star charts are presented in a convenient arrangement; but the plates of nebulæ and of comets are lacking in delicacy, and do not do justice to the beauty of these objects. The explanation of the origin of the constellations, to which the author calls attention for its novelty, has certainly that quality, but it cannot be regarded as demonstrative, being hardly more than ingenious and plausible. The needs of amateur astronomers who wish to gain a telescopic acquaintance with the heavens are duly considered, and to these perhaps more than to others the volume is addressed. The effort towards correct graphic illustration is seen in the diagram of the moon's path around the sun. Equal care in preparing the vignette of the earth at the close of the preface would have omitted the clouds that surround it at altitudes of about five thousand miles; but this was most likely added by the publishers.

'Nature Study for the Common Schools' (Henry Holt & Co.) is the title of a small volume by Wilbur S. Jackman, a Harvard graduate, now teacher of natural science in the Cook County Normal School at Chicago. It is intended to serve as a guide to teachers who wish to present the facts of nature to their classes, and as such it should have a wide use. It consists chiefly of a series of questions, which cover a wide range over the sciences, but are all of an elementary nature, requiring only ordinary observation or simple experiment for their answer. Many of the questions are highly suggestive, and, in the hands of an alert teacher, will serve well in bringing out many subjects for discussion with the scholars. The questions are arranged in chapters according to the months; those of the autumn at the beginning of the book being adapted to the opportunities of that season, and so on through the winter and spring. The questions imply a good knowledge of the various subjects treated on the part of the author, but the care generally observed in the matter of terminology seems to have lapsed for a moment in speaking of the refraction of *heat* (p. 157).

'A Brief Spanish Grammar,' by Prof. A. Hjalmar Edgren of the University of Nebraska (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), is a thoroughly good piece of work. Extremely compact (the whole, exercises, index, and all, falls within 125 pages) and well arranged, it is difficult to conceive of anything more satisfactory within the same dimensions. It is not quite abreast of the Spanish Academy in the matter of written accents, but is in all other respects, we believe, entirely accurate.

When Minister to Spain, Mr. Lowell was chosen an honorary professor of the Institución Libre de Ensefianza, and it is but fitting, therefore, that its *Boletín* should contain a suitable obituary notice of him. Such a notice we find in its issue of August 31, done by a competent hand. Of Lowell's relations to the literature and people of Spain the writer says: "He was familiar with our classics, not only in the inner structure of their thought and the movement of their style, but also in their connection with the medium which gave them birth and of which they are the transparent expression; and in all his relations with our people, our history, our government, and our existing society, all Spain, and not alone the Institute, owes a grateful tribute to the memory of one of the most faithful and affectionate friends that she has been fortunate enough to find among the great writers of our time."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October contains the conclusion of Dr. H. Schlichter's paper on Southwest Africa. In it he treats of the inhabitants, who are mainly Hottentots, Bushmen, and various Bantu tribes, altogether numbering about 300,000 people. Of these the best and most civilized are the Bastards, some 2,000 natives, immigrants from Cape Colony and descendants of Europeans and Hottentots. The question of the origin of these latter is still unsettled, and probably never will be solved conclusively. Dr. Schlichter is very sceptical as to the value to Germany of her possessions in this part of Africa. All industries, as copper-mining, agriculture, and cattle-rearing, are unprofitable, on account of the cost of transport to the coast, while there is little or no trade with the natives. The only occupation feasible seems to be wool-growing, for which all the conditions, save the frequent native wars, are apparently favorable. Appended is a bibliography containing over a hundred titles of books and papers in scientific journals on this region, mostly in German, which have been published from 1884 to 1891.

Wagner and Supan's monograph on the population of the globe, lately noticed by us, is soon to be followed by a similar publication giving the population and other statistics of the various cities and towns of the world.

The eighth annual meeting of the New England Meteorological Society, recently held in Boston, was chiefly devoted to memorials of Prof. William Ferrel, a sketch of whose life appeared in our columns last week. Contributions were received from Prof. Simon Newcomb, Superintendent of the Nautical Almanac, describing Ferrel's work in astronomy, particularly in connection with the tides; from Prof. T. C. Mendenhall, Superintendent of the Coast Survey, concerning Ferrel's work in that office, and from Prof. Cleveland Abbe of the Weather Bureau, recounting Ferrel's services in the Signal Office. The last was introduced by a letter from Prof. Harrington, Chief of the Weather Bureau, who was represented at the meeting by Mr. Alexander McAdie. Personal reminiscences by Mr. Frank Waldo, formerly of the Signal Office, and an account of Ferrel's contributions to meteorology by Prof. Davis of Harvard College, were also presented. The proceedings of the meeting will be published in a later number of the *American Meteorological Journal*.

Mrs. Hearst, widow of the late Senator George Hearst of California, has established five $300 scholarships "for worthy young women," at the University of California. The requisites for appointment to these collegiate privileges, as stated in the donor's letter to the Regents of the University, are somewhat unique, in that the element of competition in examinations is excluded from the problem. Mrs. Hearst desires that "the qualifications entitling students to the scholarships shall be noble character and high aims, it being understood that without the assistance here given a university course would in each case be impossible. I desire that a school officer, say any County Superintendent in this State, shall recommend to the Faculty of the University the applicants for scholarships, the award being made by a vote of the Faculty; but I do not wish any scholarship to be given as a prize for honors in entrance examinations."

By an error which we much regret, the late Gen. Edward A. Wild's Christian name was misspelled Edmund in our last issue; and the date of his death should have been given as August 28.

—The November *Atlantic* continues Prof. Thayer's important paper in the interest of the Indians, and states luminously and convincingly the primary reform of all, which goes deepest into the social problem of their status and furthest into the future of the race, namely, the giving to them of a system of law. The proposal is not new, as our readers know, and the present paper is mainly a call to united and aggressive action by the Indian societies for the purpose of supporting and urging the measure already before the Senate, or some form of that measure. The argument is so clear as to amount to little more than saying that the Indians cannot be civilized without introducing among them the main instrument of civilization for orderly social life; and that the law is that instrument is a self-evident truth to men of Anglo-Saxon traditions. Prof. Thayer had only to state the actual condition of the Indians, relative to law, and to suggest the attendant practical modifications of a plain principle necessary or useful for its successful application in the given case. He has done this with singular force, and it is to be hoped that his discussion of the whole matter will prove the opening gun of a vigorous winter campaign in Washington. No other topic in this number of the magazine is of leading interest, though we recommend to the disciples of Tolstoi the account of a visit with him, by Miss Hapgood, equally entertaining and discriminating, and especially happy in its description of the Countess's place in the family and of her attitude of mind. The paper seems to us far the most sensible of any we have seen upon a difficult subject, with just enough of appreciation of Tolstoi's methods and aims and of reservation of mind on the part of the friendly critic and observer. Miss Guiney contributes a paper on one of those marvels of unrecognized genius who are periodically brought up from the kindly waves of Lethe, and exhibited, all

dripping with oblivion, to a curious public. James Clarence Mangan is his name in this case. Miss Guiney indulges in the usual dithyramb, but she is unwary enough, or sincere enough if you please, to quote a good deal of his verse; and after its perusal we think he must plump down again into the ooze with a feeling of general satisfaction and relief to the readers. But really we cannot help asking if to be a nobody is such a novelty that our patience must be abused with a forgotten nobody? In the words of the rhyme which has so happily relieved our pent-up weariness, when a "Rudyard" does "cease from Kipling," shall we not leave the "eternal silences" that Carlyle so much desiderated, undisturbed? Or must the penny-whistle echo "down the corridors of time" for ever? Perhaps equally useless will be protest against Lafcadio Hearn's "mush" of landscape and sensation; it is a hard word, but nothing else so well describes the peculiar stickiness of the mixture, which, meaning to be a thing of art, resembles a paint-pot more than a picture.

—*Harper's* comes to us with that touch of dulness which will enhance the attraction of its holiday number; the latter will be full of plums; for the present we must content ourselves with simpler fare. Miss Woolson's Cairo sketches are admirable, but lack the *verve* that we look for in description of the land that so many writers have treated so picturesquely, and the instalment of Dickens's letters to Wilkie Collins is of very minor interest. The paper on Stonewall Jackson is best worth attention, because of the fascination of that type of character which belonged to the Cromwellian times; he was certainly a man born out of his age; and if more proof were needed, it is forthcoming here, where we learn, on unimpeachable authority, that he wished to raise "the black flag," which, as every one knows, means no quarter—the spirit of the murder of Agag in the bosom of a Sunday-school teacher. The article on cancers does not come within our literary survey; but Walter Besant's article on Elizabeth's London is the best of his series on that city and excellent on both the historical and Shaksperian side; and the paper on Africa is one of those solid blocks of information on a special topic of which *Harper's* seems best to know the secret.

—Two of Cole's unrivalled woodcuts, in this case after Michael Angelo, open the *Century* with a double frontispiece, and there is much other interesting illustration. In the text many subjects are treated briefly and well: the change in the habits and ideals of Southern women in consequence of the destruction of the social fabric which depended on slavery as the institution of labor, is described with much closeness of detail, and a great advance in the position of woman is disclosed by it; the future of American art is rapidly and hopefully forecast by Mr. Frank Millet, in a paper of practical value; the letters of Mazzini to his English friends are rich with new illustrations of one of the most heroic and spiritual lives of a century remarkable for noble characters; and there is much besides. The most striking paper, however, is that which turns Malthusian pessimism into a startling optimism, and with the lens of science descries a new law, namely, that the increase of population is the condition of cheap and abundant sustenance; when there are more mouths to feed than natural growth can supply—such is the theory—it will become profitable to use the resources of science for an artificial growth or manufacture which will be to the slow "process of the suns" what electrical motion is to walking. The theory, we must say, is plausibly argued, but depends, of course, on an assumed advance in man's control of the chemical elements and of that vast reservoir of energy in the sun's rays of which we have hardly profited by forethought. The doctrine that demand creates supply can then be applied to food and know no limit; at least, if we read rightly, this is the author's position. We must find space, too, to advise our readers to read the letter from Mr. Lowell, published in this number, which is worth more in itself, and shows the poet's character more luminously, than all the pages of eulogy occasioned by his death.

—The most important article in *Scribner's* is the account of the new Constitution for the Australian Commonwealth, of the history of its framing and the present state of opinion regarding it. The various elements derived from the other federal systems of the world, and all that has been retained from British methods, are carefully discriminated, and the reason of the choice made is stated; but the author is naturally most concerned to show in what points the system of the United States has been departed from. The responsible executive, retained from the habitual practice of the colonies, the restriction of the Senate in financial legislation, and the method of amendment by a final Referendum, are the main points. The question of the adoption of the instrument, now pending, is interesting to Americans because of the way in which our own experience is paralleled. The author is not given to prophecy, and he risks no opinion as to the issue except that the drafting of the instrument, by defining a hitherto vague tendency, has secured definite discussion and made the adoption of some similar instrument, if not this one, a foregone conclusion. Not the least instructive portion of his article is that which shows the national interests of Australia in the Pacific and in the common life of the colonies with one another; this proves that a nation—a unity pervading the separate States—exists whether it declares itself as such at once or is delayed in doing so. A second foreign paper is that on the Trans-Saharan Railway, which is written of with much detail. Northern Mexico and Holland also claim our attention, one for the sake of its primitive people and the other for its artistic opportunities. An unsigned article by one of Mr. Lowell's pupils gives an impression of Mr. Lowell's charm as a teacher and the memory that Harvard men have of him, which the public has not previously been acquainted with. It should be said, however, that he was different to different men, and this old student seems to have made more of the "quizzical" quality than was either necessary or just.

—In the October Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society, Mr. A. Millson gives a surprising account of the Yoruba country. This is a tract of 600,000 square miles lying between the great bend of the Niger and the Guinea Coast. Its inhabitants, mainly agriculturists, are fully clothed in cotton of their own growth and manufacture, and live in a degree of comfort surpassing that of the Egyptian fellah or the Indian peasant. They dwell upon scattered farms and in farming villages, as well as in cities, the largest of which, Ibadan—the London of Negroland—covers an area of nearly sixteen square miles, and is surrounded by ditches and walls of hardened clay more than eighteen miles in circumference. Its population is at least 120,000, and Mr. Millson gives the names of eight other cities whose inhabitants number from 20,000 to 60,000. The cultivable soil, which is exceedingly rich, is fertilized wholly by earthworms. In the dry season the worm-casts, varying in height from a quarter of an inch to three inches, exist in astonishing numbers. "It is in many places impossible to press your finger upon the ground without touching one." The rains break them down into a fine powder, rich in plant food, and lending itself easily to the hoe of the farmer. From careful measurements, Mr. Millson computes that "62,233 tons of subsoil are brought to the surface on each square mile of cultivable land in the Yoruba country every year." Where the worm casts do not exist, the native never attempts to farm. The currency of the country which has very little trade outside of its own boundaries, consists of cowries for the small sales, and "slaves represent the larger currency, varying in value from £4 to £10." Food, which is surprisingly cheap, is often left for sale by the roadside, with no one to watch it, every passing traveller who takes any leaving its value in cowries. He also may stop at any "farm or field and cook sufficient food from the standing crops for one meal, but it is considered a very heinous offence for him to carry any away with him." Incidentally Mr. Millson referred to the work of the Botanical Garden at Kew in this and the coast region. Since 1888, "over 80,000 young plants of cocoa, coffee, kola, cocoanut, and other economic trees were distributed, over 60,000 of which were eagerly purchased by the natives." Vast quantities of cotton are grown, which commands a paying price in the Liverpool market, "equal to that of Louisiana and superior to that of India."

—The eleventh volume (1786-1790) of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the Writings of Washington (Putnams) is one of the most interesting of the series, and has had to be very copiously annotated. Taken altogether, it fully confirms Washington's own profession of being "a philanthropist by character" and "a citizen of the great republic of humanity at large." As he had previously to reconcile this rôle, however, with that of a warrior, so now he has to reconcile it with his being a slaveholder. On the one hand, he declares that he will always vote (as a Virginian) to abolish slavery gradually, and will never, unless forced, purchase another slave, or even accept one in payment of debt; praises Lafayette for buying an estate in Cayenne in order to free the slaves; and offers to retain one of his mother's slaves on her death at his disadvantage in the division of her estate—for the slave's sake. On the other hand, he helps a fellow-slaveholder to recover a slave in Philadelphia whose freedom had been attempted through the courts by Franklin's Quaker Pennsylvania Society for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery, and rebukes their alleged practice of tampering with and seducing "slaves who are happy and contented with their present masters"; as President, merely judges "very malapropos" a Quaker memorial of 1789 for the abolition of the slave trade; and in his diary of the Constitutional Convention and contemporary correspondence makes no allusion to the pro-slavery compromises. Only in 1790 do we come upon the irrepressible sectional conflict over slavery—the Eastern States arrayed against the Southern—and here Washington acutely remarks "that more points will be carried by the latter" than the former, and "for the reason . . . that, in all great national questions, they move in unison, whilst the others are divided." These letters clearly reveal the patriotism which induced Washing-

ton, who longed for the quiet of home and who felt the infirmities of his years, to accept the Presidency, foreseeing that the cares of initiating the ways of a new government and standing between hostile interests and factions would hasten his end. Admirable, too, was his caution in making appointments to office and his absolute integrity in so doing.

—On October 19, at a meeting of the Hellenic Society, Prof. Jebb in the chair, papers were read by Mr. F. C. Penrose and Mr. L. Dyer. Mr. Penrose gave the results of measurements recently taken on the Acropolis to determine what bestowal was to be made of a host of architectural fragments, visible, some of them, in the Acropolis wall, others obtained in the course of recent excavations. These last probably belonged to a very ancient structure of the Ionic order, and careful measurements have led Mr. Penrose to connect them with the archaic foundations discovered by Dr. Dörpfeld between the Parthenon and the Erechtheium. He was, however, less confident in affirming this connection than in denying the architectural possibility of fitting to these substructures that other group of fragments—Doric in style—which Dr. Dörpfeld has associated with them. It was, he contended, in the highest degree probable that these Doric fragments anciently stood upon the oldest foundations of the Parthenon. These last had been laid so completely bare by recent excavations that many valuable hints could now be derived from their minute study, and much information was now at hand concerning the first Parthenon. Mr. Dyer's paper on the Vitruvian account of the Greek stage was an appeal from the disagreement of scholars about this passage in the nineteenth century to the agreement about it in the sixteenth—from Rode (1796 and 1801), Stieglitz (1818), Geppert (1843), Strack (1843), Lenonius (1850), Schoenborn (1852 and 1858), Valentine Rose and Mueller-Struebing (1867), Albert Mueller (1866, 1872, and 1888), Kawerau (1888), and Oemichen (1890), to Bulengerus, Budæus, Julius Cæsar Scaliger, and above all to Friar Giocondo of Verona. The three manuals last published in Germany, Hermann's, Baumeister's, and Iwan Mueller's, contained, he said, three diagrams illustrative of this Vitruvian passage, and each was irreconcilable—so far as the stage was concerned—with both of the others. With the aid of Friar Giocondo's diagram and sketch-plan, the whole passage was then explained according to Friar Giocondo's text. All the world was agreed that a copyist's blunder had to be corrected by changing, in one of two consecutive lines, "dextram" to "sinistram." Rose, greatly to the relief of certain controversialists, changed the first; Friar Giocondo, blinded by the dust of no controversy, and endowed with the unerring insight of a truly great architect, changed the second. Friar Giocondo's proscenium, described by Scaliger, was a narrow, empty space in front of the scena, masked by a row of columns, interrupted only by the forward projection of the pulpitum, or raised stage, into the orchestra. The pulpitum, as Bulengerus is always insisting, was a part of the orchestra. The close agreement between Dr. Dörpfeld's definition and Friar Giocondo's is remarkable.

NORTON'S TRANSLATION OF DANTE.—I

The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. I. Hell. Translated by Charles Eliot Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THE appearance of a new translation of one of the world's poetic masterpieces revives the old question as to whether the translation should be in prose or in verse. Our bookshelves are crowded with metrical versions of Homer, Virgil, and Dante, yet we feel that not one satisfies us, although more than one was the work of a poet. The reason is not far to seek. A great poem is the marriage of two excellences—noble substance and beautiful form. Substance is the universal element, and though, like gold, it be coined in many mints, yet its value remains undiminished. But form is individual, peculiar to the race and to the given poet; you cannot change it and produce an equivalent effect; you cannot, for instance, rewrite "Hamlet" in Scott's favorite measure without losing all the subtle beauty, the variety and strength, inherent in Shakspere's blank verse: that would be asking a single instrument, a cornet or oboe, to do the work of a whole orchestra. Yet both blank verse and Scott's measure are proper to the genius of our language, and ought therefore to be more easily interchanged than could a metre peculiar to a foreign race be represented by either of them. The Homeric hexameter and Dante's *terza rima* have never been naturalized in English, and, judging by the talents of those who have attempted to naturalize them and failed, they never will be. If you insist, therefore, upon a poetic translation of them, you must choose some familiar English metre to represent them. Which shall it be? The heroic couplet? But Pope's 'Iliad' is to its original as a jingling spinet is to an organ. Shall it be blank verse? But Longfellow's 'Divine Comedy' is like a photograph of a great Venetian painting, all black and white, with no delicate reliefs, no modulations of tone, no gorgeous and varied color. We know, indeed, that Matthew Arnold held that Homer could be rendered in English hexameters, and he, if any man, was fitted to make the trial; but he did not make it, and till some other scholar equally endowed shall succeed, we must believe that the achievement is impossible. In the case of Dante there are other insuperable difficulties to be overcome. The Italian is rich in rhymes, the English is comparatively poor; the Italian permits many elisions and abbreviations for the sake of melody or metre, while the English is, in this respect, far more unyielding; above all, Dante is the most terse and direct of poets, and terseness and directness can never be reproduced by a translator who has to lengthen or curtail his phrases to suit the metre, and who is perpetually groping in a scantily stored vocabulary for rhymes.

The difficulties vary, of course, in kind and degree according as the poem to be translated is in a language more or less allied to the English. German prosody, for example, being much like ours, good metrical translations have been made of many German poems; but nobody with an ear for poetry will agree that the best versions of the lyrics of Goethe or Heine communicate the indescribable charm of their originals. Bayard Taylor's "Faust" is certainly an extraordinary and often a satisfactory work, and if it comes nearer than most translations to its original, it is, we believe, because the language and style of "Faust" by no means reach the level of the language and style of Dante or of Shakspere. We hear much praise of the German translation of Shakspere, and there are Germans who fondly imagine that on the whole they are about as well off with their Schlegel's copy as we are with Shakspere himself; but no English-speaking person would admit that the blank verse of "Othello" or "The Tempest" can ever be adequately represented by the German blank verse, with its tendency to sing-song and the redundant syllable at the end of most of its lines.

It is evident, then, that where the same metrical forms are not common and familiar to two languages, the translator must choose that form in his own language which he can best handle, and which his readers are accustomed to hear; but in so doing he immediately acknowledges that he is unable to reproduce the form of the original—and to reproduce that is the main excuse for a poetical version, since the substance can be given in prose. If he have sufficient talents, he may achieve a readable, or even a poetic work, but the impression it will make will inevitably be different from that made by his model; or he may cut loose from the fetters of literalness, and, like Fitzgerald in his paraphrases of Omar Khayyám and Calderon, create a work in which the translator pays back from his own wealth what he has borrowed from the author. But it may easily happen that, like Pope, he pitches upon a metre wholly unadapted to his subject, in which case the Homeric heroes speak epigrammatically in heroic couplets, after the fashion of Queen Anne's time; and it would scarcely be more ludicrous were some sculptor to model Hector or Achilles in full-bottomed wig, long-skirted coat, and knee-breeches. In short, the metrical instrument used in the translation of Homer or Dante cannot strike the same notes that are struck in the original.

Of late years we have had urged upon us a sort of compromise between verse and prose. "We admit the inadequacy of blank verse or any other English metre to reproduce the Homeric hexameter, for instance," say the advocates of this compromise. "We admit, too, that any metrical version, unless it be very free, and consequently unliteral, will be stiff in proportion as it is exact; but at the same time we feel that ordinary prose is too commonplace, that it takes away the glamour and charm and unusualness of the poetry of the original, and we therefore suggest for adoption a form which may be called rhythmic prose." This is, however, no new thing: from McPherson's 'Ossian,' through Blake and Whitman, to Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone,' authors of various ability have tried their hand at this style of composition, but they have in the long run satisfied only those readers whose ear for the cadences of poetry or prose is dull. There is an air of affectation, a suspicion of "fine writing," about most of these productions, and the "rhythm" is often a source of annoyance rather than of pleasure. Who has not been irritated in reading 'Lorna Doone' aloud, for example, by the constant recurrence of maimed hexameters? Who has not felt the striving after effect in much of 'Ossian'? The fact is, that great English prose possesses a rhythm as distinct and excellent as does our great poetry, and every master of prose, from Hooker and Browne to Carlyle and Ruskin, has carefully abstained from mixing them; for the products of such mixtures are mongrels, wanting the best qualities of either parent.

Prose, then, honest, flexible prose, with no poetical embellishments bound like the wings of Icarus upon it, we believe to be the vehicle by which Dante's epic can best be conveyed to the English reader. The translator's chief aim should be to give the substance unalloyed, and the reader at the outset should understand that the form is untranslatable. And after all it is the substance rather than the form of the world's masterpieces that is most precious; it is that which gives them a cosmopolitan audience and makes them always contemporary. We have but to turn to the Book of Job in

our English Bible in order to see how adequately the substance and spirit of one of the grandest of foreign poems can be rendered in English prose. All attempts to dress the Book of Job in metrical garb have failed: it is possible that similar attempts with the 'Divine Comedy' would not have been made had there been an equally nob'e prose translation of that.

Passing from these general remarks, in which we have tried to set down some of the rules which we believe should govern the translation of a great poem like the 'Divine Comedy,' let us take a concrete example by way of illustration. No passage in all of Dante's epic is better known than those twelve lines in which Francesca da Rimini tells her tragic story ('Inferno,' v, 127-138). How have translators rendered them? First, let us hear the best metrical versions, beginning with Cary's:

"One day
For our delight we read of Lancelot,
How him love thrall'd. Alone we were and no
Suspicion near us. Ofttimes by that reading
Our eyes were d awn together, and the hue
Fled from our alter'd cheek. But at one point
Alone we fell. When of that smile we read,
The wished-for smile, so rapturously kiss'd
By one so deep in love, then he, who ne'er
From me shall separate, at once my lips
All trembling kiss'd. The book and writer both
Were love's purveyors. In its leaves that day
We read no more."

Cary, it must in justice be said, frequently does better than this; his translation, as a whole, is fluent and readable, but it was made at a time when the eighteenth-century fondness for circumlocution and artificial pomp in English verse had not yet been driven out by the victory of the great poets who flourished during the second and third decades of this century. Now Dante, of all men, tolerates no circumlocution; he uses verbs, not adjectives; he expresses his meaning with the swiftness of lightning, but without the lightning's zigzags. How inadequately, therefore, in the passage we have quoted, does Cary's "and the hue Fled from our alter'd cheek" represent Dante's simple, direct phrase, "e scolorocci il viso." And were we to analyze further, we should find in these few lines many other evidences that Cary falls short, not only in words but in spirit; he is like a musical conductor who, after transposing a score to another key, plays it in a different time from that the composer intended.

But a much abler man than Cary has made a translation in blank verse of the 'Divine Comedy.' If the task were feasible, Longfellow, we feel sure, would have achieved it; for he was a poet, a metrist of very conspicuous talents, a scholar who knew Dante literature in its length and breadth, and who was sensitive to the difference of atmosphere between Dante's time and our own; moreover, he enjoyed the privilege of consulting with Mr. Lowell and Mr. Norton while he worked upon his translation. And this is his version of Francesca's story:

"One day we reading were for our delight
Of Launcelot, how Love did him enthral.
Alone we were and without any fear.
Full many a time our eyes together drew
That reading, and drove the color from our faces;
But one point only was it that o'ercame us.
When as we read of the much-longed-for smile
Being by such a nob'e lover kissed,
This one, who ne'er from me shall be divided,
Kissed me upon the mouth all palpitating.
Galeotto was the book and he who wrote it.
That day no farther did we read therein."

This is an improvement on Cary, but the inversions for the sake of the metre, and the use of "palpitating"—a word proper to the libretto of an Italian opera—for Dante's "tremante," destroys that simplicity and intensity which are, we cannot too often repeat, characteristics which it is the first business of any one who attempts to translate the 'Divine Comedy' to reproduce if he can. The throwing in of the word "noble" in the eighth line weakens the force of the original "cotanto"; Dante does not make Francesca say "such a noble," or "such a brave," or "such a passionate" lover, but simply "such a lover," and the reader feels that there is more significance in that indefinite *such* than in a dozen adjectives. The slight pleasure that comes from the metre of this passage does not compensate for the lack of Dantesque qualities; the blank verse, whether of Cary or of Longfellow, has but little suppleness, its rhythm is not spontaneous, and, however accurate it may often be, it rarely charms.

But it happens that Byron made a translation of the Francesca da Rimini episode, and made it in *terza rima*, like the original. Could not he, who had passion, and who sometimes struck off great phrases at white heat, and who, besides, succeeded in transplanting that other Italian metre, the *ottava rima*, to the field of English verse—could not he combine melody and force, and give us a more satisfactory metrical version? We think that he could not, as the following specimen shows:

"We read one day for pastime, seated nigh,
Of Lancliot, how love enchained him too.
We were alone, quite unsuspiciously.
But oft our eyes met, and our cheeks in hue
All o'er discolored by that reading were;
But one point only wholly us o'erthrew:
When we read the long-sighed-for smile of her,
To be thus kissed by such devoted lover,
He who from me can be divided ne'er
Kissed my mouth, trembling in the act all over.
Accursed was the book and he who wrote!
That day no further leaf did we uncover."

We hardly need to point out how inferior this is to Longfellow's and to Cary's version. Not to mention the unidiomatic and clumsy seventh and eighth lines, how many words are inserted in order to fill out the verses! And little satisfaction we get from the rhymes. We reach the conclusion, then, that a metrical version at the best fails to give us the substance of Dante's words, and that if any pleasurable effect is produced by the metrical form, it is by no means an effect similar to that produced by the form of the original. And these conclusions would be confirmed if we examined further the translations quoted above and others which we have not quoted. Let us now turn to Mr. Norton's translation, and see how he treats this passage in prose:

"We were reading one day, for delight, of Lancelot, how love constrained him. We were alone and without any suspicion. Many times that reading made us lift our eyes, and took the color from our faces, but only one point was that which overcame us. When we read of the longed-for smile being kissed by such a lover, this one, who never from me shall be divided, kissed my mouth all trembling. Galahaut was the book, and he who wrote it. That day we read in it no farther."

Here, at length, we have Dante's substance perfectly reproduced—not a word added nor left out, and not a word inappropriate to the time or the speaker. The simplicity and directness of the original are here, and though we necessarily miss the charm of Dante's verse, we have in its stead the charm which belongs to excellent prose—and this, to our thinking, can never be approached by a more or less artificial metrical translation.

Life of James Boswell (of Auchinleck); with an Account of his Sayings, Doings and Writings. By Percy Fitzgerald. With four portraits. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

THAT Boswell's repute is still proof against the critical analysis to which he is from time to time subjected, is the strongest evidence we can have of its solid foundation. From the time of Croker to the time of Fitzgerald, the task of explaining the incongruities and eccentricities of the most transparent character of which literature gives us any record, has been from time to time eagerly assumed, with the result of leaving the matter very much where it was. Mr. Fitzgerald, whose keenness of vision enables him to discover a mare's nest as far away as any biographer of recent times, has delivered himself of a chapter entitled "Boswell Self-Revealed," in which he declares that he has "opened up a rather piquant subject of inquiry for Boswellians." We turned to the chapter with some curiosity, wondering what this could mean, and found that what Mr. Fitzgerald had in mind was simply that Boswell, in reporting Johnson's conversations, had constantly in mind *himself*, and, knowing his own faulty character, made his writings a sort of vindication of himself *to* himself. The fact is, that any one in writing such a book as the Life of Johnson would have been tempted to show himself in as creditable a light as possible. Boswell alone among biographers is remarkable for revealing himself in a way that no one else ever dreamed of doing. The psychological problem here, if there be one, is simply how a man, otherwise clever and shrewd, could have been so absolutely wanting in the pride either of reticence or reserve; and this is a problem which, it is safe to say, will never be solved in this stage of existence. That he should have been inclined to give anecdotes of others, showing them to be afflicted with his own failings, is neither a mysterious characteristic nor one involving any problem whatever.

Mr. Fitzgerald belongs to the school of biographers which imagines its first duty to be that of pronouncing judgment. Without very voluminous quotations, it would be impossible to give an idea of the extent to which his book exemplifies this theory. It is not merely that at every convenient opportunity he passes judgment on Boswell's moral character, and his unfortunate fondness for the bottle, or that he thinks it his duty to label every quality of his subject's mind and heart with an appropriate epithet; but, even in such matters as jests and repartees, he thinks it advisable to inform us whether, in his opinion, they are good or flat. The effect of this on the reader is not at all what Mr. Fitzgerald imagines it to be. It does not impress him with a conviction that the criticisms are just or appropriate; on the contrary, it fills him with resentment at the critic who is for ever intruding himself upon the view. Especially is this the case in a Life of Boswell, who, one would think, had disarmed such criticism by his own frankness.

What critical value the book has lies in a wholly different direction. Mr. Fitzgerald has devoted a good deal of research to matters of disputed fact, especially wherever he has an opportunity of picking a bone with Dr. Birkbeck Hill. It cannot be said that the result of this is to give a new view of Boswell, for when Mr. Fitzgerald labors hardest, it is almost always when he has least to tell us, and when he discusses most actively, it is when he has least to contribute to the discussion; but by his very failure he often contrives, as in his account of the death of Johnson, to show that the view already commonly held is quite correct, and to put it in a stronger light.

It would be wrong to give the idea that the book is uninteresting. Most of the material out of which it is made is as interesting as any in the world; even the author's flat comment cannot deprive it of its interest. There is no literary period or society so alive for us as that of which Johnson was the sage and Boswell the reporter. Garrick, Reynolds, Goldsmith, Johnson and Boswell themselves, and a host

besides, are not mere portraits for us, they are living human beings. We can almost hear the accents of their voices. That they still live is due chiefly to the wonderful skill and patience of the author of the Life of Johnson. No doubt his qualities lent themselves to caricature. He was laughed at, and by many avoided, throughout his life. Everything about him, moral and intellectual, was grotesque. Even his fidelity to Johnson (ending as it did in unconscious mimicry of Johnson's own eccentricities of manner) had its grotesque side. But the period itself was grotesque according to the smug and proper notions of the nineteenth century. Where we hide and dissemble and affect, they blurted out their feelings and revealed both their virtues and their vices in a way that is all the more entertaining and delightful because it has ceased to be possible. This is what makes us resent the method of biography adopted by Mr. Fitzgerald. If the important thing about Boswell was that he drank too much and too often, or that he was unfaithful to his wife, or that he frequently made himself ridiculous, why weary us with two volumes about him? All these things must be told, for they are part of the man, and since Boswell himself set the fashion, biography has required that we shall have exact, not idealized pictures. But not only has Boswell himself told everything that could be said against him, but the facts do not affect the question of his literary position at all; besides this, the person whom we want to know about is Boswell, not Mr. Fitzgerald. The latter's reflections on wine-bibbing, and women, and egotism, and tuft-hunting may cause us to throw up our hands and exclaim, What a good and wise biographer! But it is not to be impressed with the author's virtues that we take up the book.

There is a good deal that is new in these volumes, but we have space only for a single quotation, an account of the impression made by Boswell, at the time of his tour to Corsica, upon Gen. Paoli. The source from which this is taken is not mentioned, but, even if old, it will bear repetition. We have plenty of English impressions of Boswell. His Corsican host, it seems, took him at first for a mixture of impostor and spy, but speedily discovered his true character:

"He came to my country sudden, and he fetched me some letters of recommending him. But I was of the belief he might, in the verity, be no other person but one impostor. And I supposed, in my *mente*, he was in the privacy one *espy;* for I look away from him to my other companies, and in one moment, when I look back to him, I behold it in his hands his tablet, and one pencil! O, he was at the work, I give it you my honour, of writing down all what I say to some persons whatsoever in the room! Indeed I was angry enough. Pretty much so, I give it you my word. But soon after I discern he was no impostor, and besides, no espy; for soon I find it out I was myself only the monster he came to observe, and to describe with one pencil in his tablet. O, is a very good man, Mr. Boswell, in the bottom! So cheerful, so witty, so gentle, so talkable. But, at the first, O, I was indeed *faché* of the sufficient. I was in one passion, in my mente, very well."

The Complete Angler. By Izaak Walton and Charles Cotton. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Of the editions of Walton, now exceeding one hundred, which have followed the first modest volume of 1653, now one of the great prizes of collectors, some half-dozen have been published by Little, Brown & Co., who have given us the one under notice in two small 8vo volumes, with an appendix of notes and commendatory verses, and an introduction of fifty charming pages by James Russell Lowell.

Nothing new can be said in praise of Walton's pastoral. It has become one of the best known of the English classics and the admiration and delight of all lovers of nature and honest, straightforward writing. Through the long life of nearly a century of troublous, unsettled times that Walton lived, he seemed uninfluenced from the even tenor of his ways, and went on steadfastly in his life of simple virtue and ideal calmness and repose, not with an inactive mind, but one keenly observant of matters he was interested in, keeping himself aloof from things repugnant to him; for he says he "will be seen twice in no man's company he does not like, and likes none but such as he believes to be very honest men."

Thomas Westwood, in one of his sonnets, thus apostrophizes him:

"So Fine Ear, stooping with a steadfast will
Above thy mouldering tomb in summer-time,
Hears still what seems a ripple or a rhyme
Unsilenced by the centuries—hears still,
Through chinks and clefts, a little babbling rill,
Then quaint discourse: Piscator's homily,
The voice we honour—Anceps' grave reply,
Venator's jest: and presently a thrill
Of music joyous without fret or jar,
'Come live with me and be my love,' and near
The nightingale's sweet cadence, full and clear,
Or bay of otter hounds from fields afar—
Old life, old sport of Leaside or of Dove,
The life we cherish and the sport we love."

Of the many introductions to the many editions of Walton, that of Sir Harris Nicolas to the Pickering of 1836 is the best of the English ones, and the Rev. Dr. Bethune's notes and bibliographical preface to Wiley & Putnam's edition of 1847 place him in the foremost rank of those inspired by Walton to write of him. That this inspiration came to Mr. Lowell in his latter days all will be glad who read his graceful introduction. It is not merely biographical and critical—the greater part is taken up with his conception of the character of Walton, and it is most just and appreciative. He brings the old man (for somehow Walton never appears young), before us with all his quaint simplicity and innocent keenness, love for the streams, meadows, and groves, and for quiet, as none of his previous biographers have done. Westwood comes nearest, perhaps, but in a different way. How true is this, taken almost at random from Lowell's introduction:

"Walton's weaknesses, too, must be reckoned among his other attractions. He praises a meditative life, and with evident sincerity, but we feel that he liked nothing so well as a good talk. His credulity leaves front and back door invitingly open. For this I rather praise than blame him, since it brought him the chance of a miracle at any odd moment, and this complacency of belief was but a lower form of the same quality of mind that in more serious questions gave him his equanimity of faith."

We recommend this introduction and what it introduces especially to such, and there are some, who may still think that Walton's 'Angler' is merely a book about catching fish.

Adeline's Art Dictionary. Translated from the French and Enlarged. With nearly 2,000 illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

Adeline's 'Lexique des Termes d'Art' is, in the original, an indifferent book, unworthy of a place in the famous series of handbooks in which it has been included. On every page it bears irritating evidence of the author's incapacity to give concise, exact, and instructive definitions, such as are demanded in a small and popular book of the kind. The English edition, though enlarged, is not improved; it is the shortcomings, rather than the merits, of the original which have been magnified, the translation being evidently done by a person not trained to dictionary work. The definitions generally are loose, and give but a partial description of the word defined, while they frequently include irrelevant, or, at least, unessential, matter, which might well have been spared. Of what value is it, for example, for the student who wishes to know the precise meaning of the word restoration to read that "the restoration of pictures is a task which necessitates the utmost prudence"? This is the beginning of the article on that word. Further on one reads that "it will never occur again to any sculptor to restore the arms of the Venus of Milo," and that "there can be no doubt that of late years the work of restoring churches has been carried a good deal further in England than it should be." These are interesting opinions—they might, perhaps, be more so if we knew whose opinions they were; but one hardly expects to find them in a small dictionary where one is promised that "he will find definitions concise but to the point." As a specimen of these, we find that "boldness"—under the definition of the word—"is at the opposite pole from tameness." Individuality is defined as "a term which denotes the originality of an artist and the personal character which he communicates to his works. Thus we speak of a strongly marked individuality, a scene the rendering of which lacks individuality, and so is commonplace." Of "private view," which also comes in for a definition, we learn that "of late years invitations have been sent out so indiscriminately that the day on which it is impossible to look at works of art is that on which the private view is held. Private views have, indeed, degenerated into crushes, in which women are stared at and costumes chatted about."

These are fair specimens of the manner in which the book has been compiled. They would not be worth noticing in detail were it not that there is great need of precisely the kind of book which this essays to be, now that the many technical terms of archæology and the various arts are used so freely, and so much knowledge is expected of the lay reader. It being impossible for the writer of popular handbooks to stop and define every term he uses, the 'Art Dictionary' has become a necessity to every beginner, and we confess to great disappointment that in translation Adeline's dictionary has not met this need. The illustrations often save one the trouble of reading the text, being much more to the point, but in some of them, especially those illustrative of Greek art, there is much room for improvement.

The Bible Abridged: being Selections From the Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments. For Families and Schools. Arranged by the Rev. David Greene Haskins, S.T.D. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Stories from the Bible. By the Rev. Alfred J. Church. Macmillan & Co.

Lessons from the Old Testament. Junior course and Senior course. By the Rev. M. G. Glazebrook, M.A., Head Master of Clifton College. London: Percival & Co.

The almost simultaneous appearance of three series of selections from the Bible indicates, at least, the confidence of their compilers that the Bible has still an educational work to do in schools and the domestic circle, while at the same time it is evidence of a grave distrust, in the most orthodox, of the fitness of the Book, in

its entirety, for the work in hand. Dr. Haskins's 'Bible Abridged' contains selections from the Old Testament and New, about 400 closely printed pages. The selections are not made from the Revised Version, but from that of the American Bible Society. This is, however, less to be regretted than the lesson headings which reproduce the glosses of the Authorized Version; those giving a Messianic character to many passages in the Old Testament being made particularly prominent. The bias of the author's taste in his selection is noticeable in many places. From Solomon's Song, which is as finely ethical as any book of the Old Testament, there is not a word. The selections from Job are extremely meagre and not of the most impressive parts, except the prologue. The part of the Almighty in the great dialogue is not drawn upon, as if a hint had been taken from Dr. George P. Fisher, who finds the moral essence of the book in the interpolated speech of Elihu, and dismisses the Almighty as "another interlocutor," as if he had forgotten his name. Only about a dozen of the Psalms are taken, and the glorious 104th, which Humboldt loved, is not included, nor the 139th—omissions passing strange. As the glosses of the titles are a theological interpretation of the text, so is the arrangement of the selections from the gospels a critical interpretation, for it is based on Jarvis's 'New Harmony of the Gospels,' which violently subjects the chronology of the Synoptics to that of the Fourth Gospel.

The treatment is much freer in the Rev. Alfred J. Church's 'Stories from the Bible.' The author's 'Stories from Homer' and 'Stories from Virgil' were so admirable that we had great hopes of this volume, which are not disappointed by the event. There is no critical discrimination, and no attempt to soften any glare of the miraculous. The language of the Bible is generally used, and sometimes imitated with good success. The illustrations, which are after those of Julius Schnorr, are admirably conceived, with perhaps a too eager predilection for angelophanies and the violent posturings of nude figures, which have, however, always a classic refinement.

Mr. Glazebrook's 'Lessons from the Old Testament, a Junior series in one volume and a Senior course in two, have something more of a critical element in them than the other volumes on our list. The Revised Version being copyright, the text of the Authorized Version has been used, with corrections where the text was obscure or wholly wrong—generally following the 'Variorum Bible' of Canons Cheyne and Driver. The name "Jehovah" has been substituted for "the Lord," as advised by the American Revisers. The text has been judiciously Bowdlerized of words and phrases and incidents too bold or innocent for general use. But by far the most important feature of the compilation is its adoption of the Jehovistic or prophetic narrative of the Pentateuch and Joshua as the general thread, on which, however, some bright bead from the Elohistic, priestly portions of the Pentateuch is occasionally slipped; and, similarly, the prophetic narrative of Samuel and Kings is supplemented by extracts from the priestly narrative in Chronicles. Extracts from the priestly portions of the Pentateuch and Joshua and Chronicles also are given in an appendix. A succession of admirable foot-notes elucidates difficult passages and defines obsolete words. The Junior series is intended for boys and girls under thirteen, and the Senior series for those from thirteen to eighteen years old. Mr. Glazebrook quotes by permission the approval of the Head Masters of Rugby and Clifton.

Thirteen Essays on Education. By Members of the XIII. London: Percival & Co. 1891.

STUDENTS of education will find in this volume some interesting discussion of the problems that vex English public schools. It is made up of a collection of papers read at the meetings of a schoolmasters' club. They are all practical, and concern matters which often have but a slight relation to our school system, but they afford a very lively notion of the difficulties, and to a certain extent the confusion, felt in the educational reform which has already wrought so many changes in the old system. The essays on the religious education of boys, and the teaching of Holy Scripture, though admirable from the point of view of an English master, do not touch us with any nearness; those on the scholarship question, and the universities and specialization, which are related subjects, are even more strictly meant for home consumption; but other titles, such as "Commercial Education," "An Educational Museum," and "The Teaching of Music," are full of excellent material and suggestion for ourselves.

The special topic of English literature gives opportunity for a strong protest against the method, which has recently spread so much, of teaching English authors by texts, with philological and other comments, after the manner used ordinarily in classical instruction; and in the three essays upon the study of Greek, although there is much threshing of old straw, there is a useful contribution to our knowledge of facts. Indeed, the statistics scattered through the volume, which, though often imperfect, have been carefully gathered, are of uncommon interest. For example, in the essay on music, by the Assistant Master at Harrow, there is an account of just how music is taught in several great public schools, with tables and figures to illustrate its success; and the statistics as to the age at which English boys begin Greek are equally interesting, and seem to show that a later age of beginning does not practically lessen the amount actually acquired at the time of entering the universities. The ideas in the volume are not new, and they are treated in so practical a way, with a direct reference to the particular condition of English schools, as to render them of little value elsewhere; but, on the other hand, they illustrate all the better the state of the English schoolmaster's mind and the drift of opinion. It is noticeable that one point upon which all seem to agree is, that the teaching of natural science from which so much was expected, has proved disappointing; the study has shown the same tendency as the older literary studies, to become a routine of memory-cramming, and the results are not believed to have been so good as under the old system. This, as we already know, is also the experience of Germany.

Electricity and Magnetism. Translated from the French of Amédée Guillemin. Revised and edited by Silvanus P. Thompson. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

THE very handsome and portly volume which forms the subject of the present notice has been translated under the supervision of Prof. S. P. Thompson, who has enriched the work with many valuable notes, and almost rewritten the chapters on the telephone and dynamo-electric machine. It contains nearly six hundred woodcuts, which are for the most part well executed. Though not intended as a text-book, it may be very advantageously used in connection with the smaller strictly scientific treatises. In fact, such is the proper sphere of the work, though the editor states that it is intended for the drawing-room rather than for the desk of the student—a view of the work which gives one a higher idea of the intellectual character of drawing-rooms than is usually held by scientific men. The work covers, and covers at least fairly well, the sciences of magnetism and electricity, with a long list of their applications. Many chapters are very attractive. We do not remember to have seen the subject of the aurora so fully and so agreeably presented, the woodcuts being very well selected. Pure magnetism is always a dry subject, the meagre details of our knowledge being contrasted with the immense wealth and splendor of electrical science, yet our author manages to give it a certain interest. Book second is occupied with electricity, which is treated very much after the manner of text-books. Electro-magnetism comes next, followed by induction and inductive machines. Here we fail to find any allusion to the work of Joseph Henry—an omission which is the more noticeable because our author is unusually fair towards American investigators as well as inventors. The chapters on luminous electric discharges, electric meteorology, and atmospheric electricity are good examples of popular scientific writing.

The second part of the work is devoted to the practical applications of magnetism and electricity, and, without being in any sense exhaustive, is very rich in details. Thus we find a description of the photophone of Bell and Tainter which, so far as we know, is not to be found in text-books. Of subjects not usually treated in these we may mention a chapter on electric warfare, an account of electric sorters for separating magnetic from non-magnetic particles, an electric brake for railroads, Edison's electric pen, and the photo-electric miners' lamp of Dumas and Benoit. The work closes with a sufficient account of electric transformers, now beginning to play a very important part in electric lighting.

Some of the statistical data are rather antiquated, as, for example, the statement of the telegraphic mileage of the United States in 1881; but the account of telegraphic distribution on the earth's surface is illustrated by a good map which fairly represents the case. It is natural that in such a work there should be some omissions. Thus, House's printing-telegraph, used for some time in this country, deserves notice with that of Hughes, as does also the so-called chemical telegraph of Bain, which at one time threatened to drive Morse out of the field, and which we believe was finally got rid of by purchase. The electric motor of Bourbouze is only a modification of that of the late Charles G. Page, to whom the principle is due. Omissions are, however, unavoidable in such a work, and, being not numerous, detract but little from its practical value, especially as the spirit of the author is eminently fair and he never offensively brandishes his French nationality. Perhaps we may venture to indulge the hope that sooner or later we may see the subjects of Heat and Light treated in the same attractive manner.

The Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law, with practical illustrations especially adapted to women's organizations. By Harriette R. Shattuck, President of the Boston Political Class. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 16mo, pp. 248.

SOME two years ago, we were impelled to say, apropos of Crocker's Manual, that many

writers seem to think that Cushing-and-water will be more wholesome or more palatable than the original. Mrs. Shattuck's book is an additional proof of our statement that the science of parliamentary law is a small subject, easily mastered by one with a natural taste for it, but of no value to most persons, and by them difficult of acquisition. This book merely leads us to emphasize the fact that by "most persons" we mean women as well as men.

It would be useless and invidious to try to ascertain which sex has the less natural capacity for this particular branch of learning; Mrs. Shattuck thinks that women have far fewer casual opportunities than men to witness and hence to acquire the art of presiding over a public meeting. The plain fact, however, remains, that any woman or any man possessed of the patience and desire which would lead her or him to read, understand, and commit to memory the contents of this book, would be equally competent to digest Cushing's Manual in far less time. Mrs. Shattuck would probably make a very good presiding officer, as she evidently knows and comprehends the principles of the art; but she cannot communicate that power to her reader. There are several manuals in print prepared on this plan, and the only possible excuse for her book is that its title may lead to its purchase by the sex which usually ignores such matters.

For any society or casual assemblage a few rules of order can be briefly formulated:

(1.) Get a competent person for chairman and obey his rulings.

(2.) Remember that the vote of the majority is final.

(3.) Speak in turn, and only after the chairman gives you the floor.

(4.) Keep your temper, and know when you are beaten.

With these four rules kept in mind, a large body will be orderly and can transact business; a neglect of them will turn a dozen ladies and gentlemen into a disorderly mob. All the refinements of parliamentary proceedings are meant to give effect to the transaction of business, when properly used; or else are used, as are the forms of law in courts, merely to thwart the wishes of the majority. But even as a jury is not expected to take upon itself the duties of the judge, so the assembly cannot do its part by debates and votes, and at the same time undertake to question or override the decisions of its chairman.

Biographical Sketches of the Delegates from Georgia to the Continental Congress. By Charles C. Jones, LL.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THE biographical sketches here gathered into a sheaf are of the nature of a light aftermath gleaned by Dr. Jones from the same fields which he had previously harvested in his copious 'History of Georgia.' Whether it be from a dearth of materials appropriate to the uses of biography, or from some new law of parsimony applied to the making of many books, it is certain that Dr. Jones has conceived that he could sometimes best accomplish his work as biographer by making free drafts on his work as historian—and this not only for matter of substance, but also for matter of form. Page after page and paragraph after paragraph are extracted from the 'History' to be reset in these 'Sketches,' sometimes with textual exactitude, and sometimes with slight modifications of phrase which hardly serve to hide the seams of the literary suture. Whatever gain of gross product may accrue from such labor-saving methods in the work of literary composition, it is likely to be attended with some loss of net result on the score of literary ensemble and of rhetorical freshness. Where pieces of whole cloth, originally belonging to another fabric, are selected for insertion into the warp and woof of a new tissue, it is not always easy to effect a perfect juncture between the two products; and this problem becomes specially difficult if, among the passages or paragraphs compelled to pay a double debt, there should chance to be now and then some *purpureus pannus*, better fitted for the singing robes of the poet than for the Quaker garb of pedestrian prose, like, for instance, the passage torn from page 271 in the second volume of the 'History,' to be embroidered in full color on page 67 of the 'Sketches' before us. To most persons it would seem enough to say only once of Button Gwinnett, that, "rising like a meteor, he shot athwart the zenith of the young commonwealth, concentrating the gaze of all, and in a short moment was seen no more." The same lump of Attic salt is liable to lose its savor if used to season too many broths. We notice with a mild surprise that Dr. Jones has not been willing to write even a preface to these 'Biographical Sketches' without laying the body of his 'History' under contribution for a small portion of his prefatory text.

The author makes it clear by the *copia verborum* of his 'History' that any economy on his part in point of literary method does not spring from penury of diction. His style is only too exuberant, and perhaps it is this very fact which explains the overflow from one volume to the other. And he is to be commended for his self-control in not allowing his biographical enthusiasm to get the better of his candor in pronouncing judgment on the men here passed in review. Frankly admitting that the record of the service rendered by the members from Georgia in the Continental Congress "may not be as brilliant or as valuable as that of some of the delegates from other colonies," Dr. Jones is able to show that, with the exception of Dr. Zubly, and perhaps of Gen. Gunn, they were "all good and true men." The biographies of twenty-five men are here given in outline, and we have been specially pleased with the sketches of Dr. Lyman Hall, of Gen. Lachlan McIntosh, and of Chief-Justice George Walton. We venture the opinion that a somewhat fuller sketch was due to the life and services of Abraham Baldwin, and the materials for such a sketch are not far to seek. We notice that in referring to the "Schovilite bandits" who once harried the Revolutionary patriots of Georgia, Dr. Jones gives to the readers of these sketches no sufficient explanation of the origin or significance of that designation. A clue to the predatory gang and to their alliance with the Tories of the Revolutionary period may be found on p. 169 and p. 287 of the second volume of the author's 'History of Georgia,' and on pp. 160, 166, of Stevens's 'History of Georgia,' where the name is spelt "Scophalites."

The Women of the French Salons. By Amelia Gere Mason. The Century Co.

THERE are so many entertaining pages in this book that one regrets the author should have felt compelled to speak, at more or less length, of all the important salons, and thus have treated of personages or epochs less interesting to her personally and consequently represented imperfectly, or at least with much diminished grace and brilliancy. The period which seems to appeal most directly to her is the eighteenth century, and the chapter devoted to it is, with those on Mme. de Lambert, Mme. Geoffrin, and Mme. du Deffand, the best part of the book for *verve* and brightness. The account of the seventeenth-century salons and of those of the Empire and the Restoration is by no means as vivid, and more than one page seems pale and dull. But it is no easy matter to paint a series of portraits of personages not only widely different in character, but of different degrees of attractiveness. This is the weakest part of the book; one feels a lack of appreciation of some of the women spoken of, a haunting sense that the account is "to order." Here and there, also, when the author ventures, which she seldom does, upon a literary judgment, some reservation must be made. But as far as giving English readers not already acquainted with French salons and their leaders a fair idea of the peculiar influence they exercised, and the character of the principal writers who frequented them, the book may be cordially commended. The *Century* articles were much read in magazine form; thus collected into a handsome, well-printed and illustrated volume, they will be reread with interest and consulted with profit, within the limits indicated above.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sir Edwin. Seas and Lands. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Austin, Jane G. Betty Alden: The First-Born Daughter of the Pilgrims. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Bacon, E. M. The Pocket Piece. New York: Walbridge & Co.
Baldwin, Prof. J. Mark. Handbook of Psychology: Feeling and Will. Henry Holt & Co.
Benjamin, S. G. W. Persia and the Persians. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Bolles, Frank. Land of the Lingering Snow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Burnz, Channing. The Through Cipher Code. New York: Burnz & Co. $1.50.
Bouvet, Miss Marguerite. Little Marjorie's Love-Story. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Camp, Walter. American Football. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Chambers, G. F. Pictorial Astronomy. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Conn, Prof. H. W. The Living World. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Cooke, Rose T. Huckleberries Gathered from New England Hills. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Daniell, G. W. Bishop Wilberforce. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Edgren, Prof. A. H. A Brief Spanish Grammar. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 85 cents.
Emerson, Mrs. E. R. Masks, Heads, and Faces. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Farjeon, B. L. The Shield of Love. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Fletcher, R. H. The Johnstown Staze, and Other Stories. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Ford, Paul L. Some Materials for a Bibliography of the Official Publications of the Continental Congress, 1774–1789. Brooklyn, N. Y.: The Author.
Garrett, E. H. Elizabethan Songs in Honour of Love and Beautie. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
Gore, Charles. The Incarnation of the Son of God: The Bampton Lectures for 1891. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Graves, C. E. The Fifth Book of Thucydides. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Hallidie, A. R. S. The Captivi of Plautus. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Harris, Miriam C. An Utter Failure. D. Appleton & Co.
Hellyer, S. S. Principles and Practice of Plumbing. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Henley, W. E. Lyra Heroica: A Book of Verse for Boys. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Holmes, O. W. A Mortal Antipathy. Pages from an Old Volume of Life. [Riverside Edition, Vols. VII. and VIII.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Humphreys, Prof. M. W. The Antigone of Sophocles. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
Jacobs, Joseph. Celtic Fairy Tales. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Johnston, B. T. A Memoir of the Life and Public Service of Joseph E. Johnston. Baltimore: R. H. Woodward & Co.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers in Northern Europe. Harper & Bros. $3.
Krehbiel, H. E. Studies in the Wagnerian Drama. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Lock, Rev. J. B. Mechanics for Beginners. Part I. Dynamics and Statics. Macmillan & Co.
Mansfield, R. Don Juan: A Play. New York: The Author.
Marchant, E. C. Thucydides. Book III. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Martineau, James. Essays, Reviews and Addresses. Vols. III. and IV. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
McKenna, Stanley. Only Skin Deep. New York: Gould Publishing House. 50 cents.
Mills, Wesley. How to Keep a Dog in the City. William R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Norris, W. E. Mysterious Mrs. Wilkinson, and Other Stories. John W. Lovell Co. 30 cents.

Norris, W. E. Mr. Chaine's Sons. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
O'Connor, W. D. Three Tales. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Oliphant, Mrs. The Makers of Florence. Macmillan & Co. $6.
O'Rell, Max. A Frenchman in America. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.
Packard, Prof. A. S. The Labrador Coast. New York: N. D. C. Hodges. $3.50.
Page, Thomas N. Elsket, and Other Stories. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Putnam Eben. A History of the Putnam Family in England and America. Salem, Mass.: Salem Press Publishing Co.
Pyle, Howard. Men of Iron. Harper & Bros. $2.
Robinson, F. M. Hovenden, V. C. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Scherer, Edmond. Essays on English Literature. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Shaler, Prof. N. S. Nature and Man in America. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Smart, Hawley. Beatrice and Benedict. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Sorel, Albert. Madame de Staël. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Stephen, J. K. The Living Languages: A Defence of the Compulsory Study of Greek at Cambridge. Cambridge, Eng.: Macmillan & Bowes.
Stoddard, W. O. Little Smoke, a Tale of the Sioux. D. Appleton & Co.
The Arabian Nights' Entertainments. 4 vols. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $6.
Thompson, E. P. How to Make Inventions. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Tout, Prof. T. F. A Short Analysis of English History. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.
Victor, Mrs. F. F. Atlantis Arisen; or, Tales of a Tourist about Oregon and Washington. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Whittier, J. G. Snow-Bound. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Wilde, Oscar. Lord Arthur Savile's Crime, and Other Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Wildenbruch, Ernst von. Francesca da Rimini. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Wildenbruch, Ernst von. Harold: A Drama. Philadelphia: Poet Lore Co. $1.
Wilkinson, Rev. J. F. Mutual Thrift. London: Methuen & Co.
Winchester, Boyd. The Swiss Republic. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Winter, J. S. Lumley the Painter. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
With the Birds. Selected Poems. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Winter, John S. In Luck's Way. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Zangwill, I. The Bachelor's Club. 4th ed. London: Henry & Co.

NOVEMBER

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—The Policy of the Small College, Wm. De Witt Hyde; The Literature of Education, Wm. H. Maxwell; Teachers' Salaries and Pensions, A. Tolman Smith; Twelve versus Ten, Wm. B. Smith.

DISCUSSIONS.—Women as Teachers, The Editors; City School Supervision, II., J. M. Greenwood; Practice Teaching in Normal Schools, II., Wm. H. Payne; Recent Changes in the Regents' Examinations N. Y. State, Albert B. Watkins; The New School Law in St. Paul, Minn., Chas. B. Gilbert.

EDITORIAL.—Education at the International Congress of Hygiene; M. Gréard on Education as a Science; Educational Progress in N. J.; Resistance to Compulsory Education; Pres. Gilman on the Educational Value of Libraries; The Annual Meeting of the N. Y. Council of School Supts.; The Annual Meeting of the N. E. Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools.

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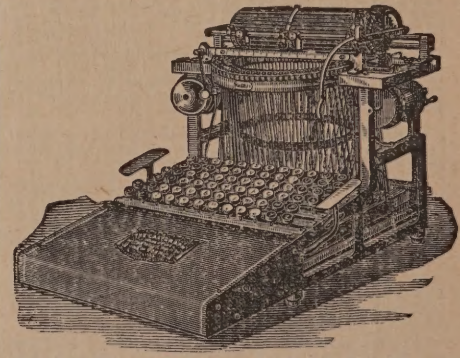

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 12, 1891.

The Week.

Now that Secretary Foster has finished campaigning in Ohio, and has no longer any motive for concealing the facts about the condition of the Treasury, we think he ought to let the public know how serious that condition is. The record of Treasury receipts and expenditures for October completes four months of the current fiscal year, and shows the same alarming falling off in income that has been noticeable ever since the McKinley tariff took full effect. For the last four months the receipts from customs have been but $58,734,456, or $32,504,262 less than for the same period last year. This is at the rate of a reduction in revenue of $97,512,786 a year in customs alone. While the returns on the score of internal revenue show a slight increase for the first third of the year, there is a falling off in other items which brings the total receipts of the Treasury for the period down to $119,746 995, as compared with the corresponding $154,930,894 in 1890. Here, then, is a total diminution of revenue going on at the rate of $105,551,697 yearly. Now it is perfectly futile for Mr. Foster to keep saying, in the face of this showing, that the Treasury is in an "easy" condition. It is in the highly uneasy condition of a man with more debts than money. The appropriations call for an outlay of $166,000,000 during the time when the revenue has been but $119,000,000. That means an annual deficit of more than $140,000,000. Does the Secretary call that "easy"? It is certain he does not do so in his private talks with bankers, whatever he may feel compelled to say on the stump. It is well known that he has been advised by friendly bankers to "hold up" appropriations. That is just what he has been doing, as the figures show on their face. He has been putting off the evil day as long as possible; but he will have to tell the truth in his report to Congress next month, and then the hope of his party that the Democrats may blunder in financial matters will have at least this basis to go upon, that an unsurpassed model of blundering has been set them by the Republicans.

Senator Vest of Missouri, who has been one of the most urgent of the free-silver advocates, follows the lead of Mr. Mills, and puts the silver question in the background till after the next Presidential election. In an interview which was published on Monday, he says that the recent elections make it certain that the Democratic Presidential ticket next year will be "Cleveland and Boies, or Cleveland and Gray, but always Cleveland," and adds:

"You want to know how silver Democrats like myself will stand as to his candidacy? We will support him earnestly and loyally, for we believe him to be wrong, but honestly wrong, and he has as much right to his opinion as we have to ours. The views of any Democrat as to free coinage constitute no test of party fealty, for our party in national convention has never so declared. Above all, however, and this is with me conclusive, Mr. Cleveland can be elected on the issue of tariff reform, and I regard the defeat of the Republican party at the next election as the greatest possible good for the country. Every Democrat should be willing to postpone the silver question, if it be necessary, to prevent Republican success."

This means that there will be no free-coinage bill passed by the next Congress, as Senator Sherman, and every other Republican leader who is longing to get away from the McKinley tariff issue, has been hoping there would be.

The Iowa Republicans are still struggling with the problem of what to do about prohibition. Although the Democrats secured control of the State Senate, the Republicans have a small majority in the lower branch of the Legislature. Gov. Boies will, of course, renew his recommendations for the repeal of the prohibitory law, and the substitution of a high-license and local-option system, and the Democratic Senate will pass a bill embodying these ideas. The question will then be, Shall the Republican House allow this bill to pass that body? The votes of four or five Republicans will suffice to give it a majority and thus abolish prohibition. Gov. Boies expresses confidence that the needed votes will be secured, and there are undoubtedly a great many Republicans who would like to see this happen. The difficulty is, that the Republicans made their campaign on a distinct pledge to stand by the existing law. As their State platform put it: "We submit to the people of Iowa the determination of the issue, recognizing that the control of the next Legislature by the Democratic party means State-wide license, and that the control of the next Legislature by the Republicans means continued opposition to the behests of the saloon power through the maintenance and enforcement of the law."

The Republicans consequently find themselves in a terrible quandary. Three successive elections have shown that they cannot hope to carry the State so long as prohibition remains the chief issue and they stand by the law. It would, therefore, seem the part of wisdom for them to help the Democrats in the Legislature to repeal the law. But they can do this only by breaking the most binding pledges to maintain the law. Moreover, if they do break these pledges, there can be no doubt that many of those Republicans who believe in prohibition will be so much incensed against the party that they will refuse to support it after it thus yields to "the behests of the saloon power." If four or five Republicans had been nominated and elected to the Legislature upon a personal platform of independence in this matter, and with the understanding that they reserved the right to vote as they chose on the question, the case would not be so bad for the party, but there does not appear to be a single such representative. The choice must be made between keeping the party's pledge, and thereby offending again the anti-Prohibition Republicans, and breaking the pledge, and thereby disgusting the Prohibition Republicans, with the cheerful conviction that they "will be damned if they do and damned if they don't."

Mr. Lacey's singular conception of the duties of Comptroller of the Currency has received fresh illustration from the Maverick Bank affair. There is, indeed, a parallel both instructive and disheartening between the action of the Comptroller in this case and in the case of the Keystone Bank of Philadelphia. The Philadelphia Bank Examiner, Mr. Drew, reported to Mr. Lacey on the Keystone Bank's rotten condition fully a year before the collapse came. So far back as last January, Mr. Magruder, the competent Bank Examiner of Boston, notified the Comptroller that the Maverick Bank was virtually insolvent. In both instances the warning of the experts was utterly ignored at Washington. Mr. Magruder continued his warnings as time went on and the bank's condition grew worse. To offset these warnings, the President of the Maverick Bank, a reckless speculator, went personally to Washington. Apparently he, like the dishonest President of the Keystone, was able to apply the screws of political influence, and the Bank Examiner's appeals were calmly pigeon-holed. In the end, the anxiety so worked upon Mr. Magruder that he broke down in health and died, leaving behind him, more fortunate than Mr. Drew, letters and documents fully clearing his official character. While this serene indifference prevailed at Washington, the officers of the Maverick Bank were engaged in violating the fundamental provisions of the National Bank Act. Its President took out on his personal note or endorsement $1,200,000, or thirty times as much as he had a legal right to borrow, presumably to pull him through his own unlucky ventures. Two directors helped themselves to $900,000 more; and all this, be it remembered, months after the Bank Examiner had notified his superior officer that the institution was insolvent. For ten months depositors were left to put their money in the rotten bank, trusting, like all depositors in national banks, that silence by the national banking bureau was equivalent to a guarantee of solvency.

Judge Ross of the U. S. District Court in California has directed a verdict of acquittal in the prosecution of Trumbull, the Chilian agent, and Burt for fitting out the *Itata* in violation of the neutrality laws. The Judge

found that the arms were put on board the *Itata* simply for transmission to Chili, that this did not constitute a violation of the statute, and that the secrecy with which it was done was a wholly irrelevant fact. All this reminds us of the inestimable service which we rendered to the editor of the *Times* last May, when he sent his cruiser, the *Charleston*, after the *Itata*, and said that if she "was blown out of the water," the owners would have themselves to thank, for had they not "violated our laws"? We pointed out respectfully that it would be a terrible thing to blow a ship out of the water for an offence which was at most a misdemeanor, punishable with a short term of imprisonment, and that it would never do to blow her out of the water without trial, and allow the captain of the *Charleston* to be judge, jury, and executioner all in one. At first the editor would not hear of leniency, but we believe these representations of ours at last had their intended effect, and induced our truculent but estimable contemporary to desist from his fell purpose. The "chase" was continued, but, we surmise, with secret instructions not to catch the *Itata*, as she had not left behind any memorandum of the course she would take. Is it too much to suppose that we thus saved him from undying remorse? He cannot be too careful of the way he uses his navy in time of peace.

Judge Ross's decision in this case of the *Itata*, following on his decision in the case of the *Robert and Minnie*, and supported as it is by Judge Blatchford's decision in the *Florida* case in 1871, seems to establish the rule that it is no violation of neutrality to sell arms to a belligerent, or to ship them for transportation to a belligerent port, but simply an operation of lawful trade. We believe the Chilians had good legal opinion to this effect before they purchased the arms in New York. It is a rule, too, which our Government, as one likely to be neutral in nearly all possible wars, ought to have asserted and upheld in the interest of American commerce and manufactures, and would doubtless have upheld if the interest of the Administration in the Chilian conflict had been simply diplomatic. We observe that its organs claim great credit for Secretary Tracy because, on hearing from Balmaceda that he had "outlawed" the Chilian fleet, he did not allow our navy to treat the Chilian men-of-war as "pirates." But suppose President Harrison had dispersed Congress by force of arms, and closed the Supreme Court, and announced that he was going to govern the country dictatorially, and the American fleet had refused any longer to obey his orders, and had transferred its allegiance to Congress as the only surviving portion of the lawful government—should we have thanked Great Britain for not setting upon it and capturing it as piratical?

The creed-revision movement in the Presbyterian Church has brought out a great many surprising views, but we doubt if there have been any advanced anywhere so startling as those in the paper read in the New York Presbytery on Monday in support of the report on revision. Said the speaker: "Election unto eternal life is Scriptural. . . . But no foreordination unto death, passing-by, or non-election, *however logically they may seem to be inferable* from the former, etc." And he added: "Let our poor little *logic* go." After such a complete abandonment of the whole basis of theology considered as a science, the puzzling thing is to find the man who makes it going on to glorify the "system" of which he would not for one moment impair the "integrity." Now, the Calvinistic "system" is nothing if not logical. Whatever may be said about its premises, it has never been charged that their unfolding was not an exhibition of the most rigorous logic. To give up the "logic" while clinging to the "system," is like expecting the Temple of Dagon to stand after Samson has pulled out its pillars. If it were admitted that theology has been wrong all along in assuming airs of certainty and authority to which it had no valid claim, it would be a different matter; but an infallible science repudiating itself and its methods is in danger of losing all respect. A devout traveller in Rome was asked his opinion of certain "new saints" just then in great vogue. His reply was: "These new saints make me distrust the old ones."

An American in London writes to us:

"Do make some reference to Smalley's letter of October 11 in the *Tribune* in regard to Mr. Gladstone's Newcastle speech, and also to a bit in his Parnell letter of the same date, apropos of the alliance with the Gladstonians. It is a shame that he should make such statements to the American public; he would not dare to do it here and take the personal consequences. There is something very revolting in his acceptance of Gladstonian hospitality whenever it is offered to him, and this return behind their backs, as it were."

To which we answer that we do not think Mr. Smalley's views of English politics worth serious reference of any kind. They are, of course, absurd views for an American observer in England to take, but as they make no impression on his own paper, the *Tribune*, which steadily ignores them in its editorial articles, it seems hardly worth the while of any other paper to discuss them. Moreover, they are, in our opinion, mainly intended to draw English "hospitality." "Hospitality" is, in fact, the Squire's chief pursuit. Of course he ought not to accept hospitality from the Gladstonians when abusing and misrepresenting them, but our correspondent must remember that he must do this as a means of securing Tory hospitality, which is undoubtedly better hospitality than that of the Gladstonians. The Tories have more country houses, and give more and better dinners; and the Squire is not the man to despise good victuals and good wine. Of course a paper like the *Tribune* ought to keep an impartial and intelligent observer in London, but nothing we could say would bring this about.

There could hardly be a better illustration of the effect of much politics without any responsibility on an excitable people than is afforded by the "shindy" in Cork over the election of a successor to Parnell which took place on Friday. It has never, since the Union, made any difference to an Irish voter what kind of legislator a candidate was likely to be, what measures he was likely to favor and what to oppose, simply because he was sure to have no influence on legislation. Consequently, as a rule, the candidate's personality has stood in the voters' eyes far above his political capacity, and, as long as he was hostile to English government, he met every requirement of the situation. Nor has the Irish voter ever learned the lesson that violence of any kind would damage his party or his cause, and lead to the defeat of some scheme or policy which he had at heart. On the contrary, he has always seen and heard that violence has procured him from England all the remedial legislation he cared for. Murders and outrages have been his one mode of attracting the attention of the British Parliament to the Irish questions. This being the case, it is open to him, he thinks, to express his feelings during electoral canvasses in any manner he pleases, and out of which he gets most fun. Some may like attending meetings and listening to speeches, but others like to "lay out" their opponents with a blackthorn or shillelah. It has never made the slightest difference in the political arena which taste predominated. The obvious deduction from all this seems to be that the retention in Ireland of the forms of Parliamentary government, without any Parliamentary power or responsibility, has been an unmixed misfortune for the character of the people, and also for the two countries which have had most to do with them, England and America. We have no hesitation in saying that the Irish would be far better off in the matter of political judgment and self-control to-day if they had lived, like the Italians, under semi-military rule during the past century, than living as they have lived, under sham parliamentary institutions. They have acquired under these a taste for politics, and a conception of politics as something which has nothing to do with the public welfare, and out of which each man may lawfully get all he can either in sport or money. If there be anything reasonable in this view, the eulogies heaped on Mr. Balfour for prolonging the tutelary régime, and commending it once more to the English mind, are remarkable displays of fatuity.

Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Morley have been having one of the fiercest encounters in recent English political history. Mr. Chamberlain has distinguished himself for a good while by his criticism of things done by his old associates while he was in the Liberal Cabinet; and his zeal as a convert, as is not uncommon, has been making him more and more reckless in his statements. So he made a speech the other day in which he expressed his belief that if Gladstone got into power again, he would "make an awful mess" of things, as he had done before, and ascribing to the Tory party almost all the social legislation of the last fifty years,

and accusing Mr. Gladstone of having caused the loss of his (Chamberlain's) Shipping Bill for the protection of sailors in 1883. This brought Mr. Morley down on him at Manchester in a savage speech bristling with quotations from Chamberlain's former sayings as a Liberal, reminding him, high Conservative as he now is, of his "ransom" doctrine of 1885, of Lord Salisbury's calling him a "Jack Cade," and of his having deliberately, at Hull in the same year, ascribed the failure of his Shipping Bill to "the Tory party" and Lord Salisbury, and of his extravagant eulogies on Mr. Gladstone so late as 1886, when he again took office under him. But the most serious and damaging part of the recrimination was the criticism of Chamberlain for talking, as if an innocent bystander, of the "awful mess" made of it by the Gladstonian Cabinet of 1880–1886, of which he was himself a prominent member. The combatants subsequently locked horns in the *Times*, Mr. Chamberlain trying to "explain" and Mr. Morley again rending him with bitterness. This last exploit seems to have filled the cup of Liberal hatred of the Birmingham statesman to overflowing, but he has evidently given up all hope or intention of ever returning to the Liberal ranks. One of the good features of English politics appears in the fact that no quarrel with his old party can exclude such a man as Chamberlain from public life. With his talents he is always sure of a seat somewhere. But his chances of office will be small as long as he refuses to call himself a Tory, for the Tories are poor now, and dislike extremely sharing salaried places with any but thoroughbreds of their own party.

To understand the nature of the situation in Berlin, which has developed already into something like a financial crisis, it should be remembered that in Germany, as in Great Britain, the United States, and other countries, the last two years or more have been marked by the efforts of great banking houses to "float" the paper of new industrial and commercial schemes. There, as here, the profits of private bankers had fallen off enormously through the bad times, the decrease in speculative business, and the withdrawal of outside investors from the markets. In Great Britain this same phenomenon was attended by the craze for industrial shares and South American bonds; in Berlin there followed a similarly reckless effort of bankers to grasp at any kind of business, however hazardous, which would bring heavy commissions in return for the risk. Necessarily, this kind of banking, breaking as it did with all conservative precedents, developed weak spots in numerous financial quarters. The collapse of November, 1890, brought down many of the rotten houses in Europe, and Russia's sudden recall of its deposits last spring forced many more to the brink of destruction. If a rich harvest and business revival had followed in Europe this season, most of these houses would probably have been able to save themselves. Instead, they have been confronted with the most disastrous harvest year of recent times. Liquidation has been persistent in nearly all financial quarters. Distrust grew in both Paris and Berlin, and, as if their existing burden was not heavy enough, the French bankers, driven into a corner by the failure of public subscriptions to the new Russian loan, actually assumed on their own account $60,000,000 of the bonds which even the Chauvinist investor would not buy. As a consequence, they have been forced, in order to raise the necessary funds, to throw on the market their holdings of all other securities dealt in upon the Continental bourses. The strain has been too heavy for the weakest Berlin houses, and two or three have gone down within a week. The end of all this is hard to foretell. Particularly interesting is its bearing upon our own finances. The situation, we believe, is wholly without precedent. Its elements favor the American markets so distinctly as to have led already, in many minds, to a belief in a "bull year." Yet it may well be asked if our country, under the present close association of the world's financial markets, can reap the normal benefits of our extraordinary harvest while Europe is sinking in the very slough of financial despondency. Even our heavy imports of gold, which excite daily jubilation here, are wrenched away from business centres which need them far more sorely than ourselves.

The Cardinals are, like ourselves, getting ready for what is their Presidential election. There is no concealing the fact that the Pope is in an almost moribund condition, and, considering the greatness of his office and its importance to so large a portion of the Christian world, it would be false delicacy not to take up the question of the successorship. The Cardinals, therefore, and the higher clergy are discussing it with freedom; but, unfortunately, the Pope himself expects to have a say in the matter, and does not relish any display of independence by those around him. The Cardinal Vicar, Monsignor Parocchi, who has vice-episcopal charge of the Diocese of Rome itself, has fallen under the suspicion of preparing "a boom" of his own, if we may use the expression—that is, of talking of himself and permitting others to talk of him as a candidate—and he therefore either has had to resign or is said to be going to resign his office and get out of sight, owing to the Pope's disapproval. The coming election is likely to be one of unusual interest for two reasons. One is the possibility of the election of a Pope who would come to terms with the Italian Government and finally abandon all claim to the temporal power. This a great many Catholics would consider an immense misfortune and scandal. Some provision, but probably not adequate provision, against this contingency has been made by an oath administered to the cardinals "to maintain the patrimony of St. Peter"; but then nearly every vanished claim and possession has been vainly defended by oaths. The second reason is the growing pressure from the foreign clergy on the Italians to be allowed a chance of accession to the Popedom. The Italians, who organized and indeed founded the Roman Catholic Church, have managed for ages to keep the tiara to themselves, but the foreigners, who are now brought by modern improvements in transportation into such close contact with Rome, are more and more eager for the throwing open of the competition to all nations. At the next election, according to all accounts, the Italians will have some difficulty in holding their own, but many of them would probably look on the success of a Frenchman, or German, or Irishman as St. Augustine looked on the irruption of Alaric through the Porta Salaria. The Barbarians, however, are nearly as irresistible now as they were then.

There is something admirable in the gravity with which Fonseca sets forth the iniquity of the Brazilian Congress, and declares his unalterable resolution to put down all enemies of the Republic. When he gets a truly good Congress, with some of the unfortunate features of the present Constitution knocked out of it, all is to go on as peacefully as before. Very likely, unless somebody should again run athwart the President, when he would undoubtedly rally the army and navy again and proceed afresh to the work of restoring "republican institutions" to their pristine purity. Some idea of his conception of the subservient functions of Congress may be gathered from the way the late crisis was brought on. He promptly vetoed a bill prohibiting the holding of national and State offices at the same time. This was certainly a needed measure, as the practice was most extraordinary and demoralizing. Thus, a member of the Cabinet was at the same time a Governor of a State, other Governors were members of Congress, one Governor held a seat in the Legislature of another State, and men even acted as judges at the same time that they filled executive and legislative offices. In one case a member of Congress was a minister to a foreign country. Fonseca declared the bill unconstitutional, refused to approve it, and berated the Congress for passing it. In his attitude towards the State governments he was equally arbitrary and overbearing, removing and recognizing Governors at his pleasure. So flagrant was his course towards São Paulo that one of its representatives in Congress threatened secession, saying: "If the Government will not yield to reason, it will be made to yield to force, for São Paulo, to resist the encroachments of the Government, can in five or six months put 50,000 men in the field." But it was especially in matters of financial administration that the greatest indignation at the President's usurpations was aroused among the nation's representatives. Fonseca ignored their protest until it began to take the form of a process of impeachment, and then he made his sudden discovery that they were all traitors and monarchists at heart.

THE BOSSES.

THE work of interpreting the elections goes on bravely, and is almost as varied in its entertainment as was the work of predicting the result. We find in the Republican explanation of the Democratic victory in New York a general disposition to ascribe it to "bossism." The Republican voters, says one country organ of the party,

> "feared Tammany, and they had a right to; but between it and Plattism they dreaded the tiger less. The day for Platts, Quays, Dudleys, and their kind is past. The Republican party should throw off its bosses everywhere, and, when it does, the independent voters will flock to its standard and it will again control the States and the nation."

One finds the same sort of moral in a great many other organs, including even the hidebound Philadelphia *Press*, which observes that

> "The Republican voters of New York have plainly taken this opportunity to express their opinion, not of the candidate of the party, but of its leadership. It is idle to forget the causes or overlook the motives which have led Republican voters to abandon a Republican candidate who deserved the support of every Republican. It has again proved easier in New York State to control the organization of the party than to command the hearty support of its voters."

These conclusions are even less valuable than the prophecies before election from the same quarters. In our humble opinion "the day for the Platts, Quays, Dudleys, and their kind" is by no means past. The general adoption of the Australian ballot may somewhat limit their field of party usefulness—that is, it may diminish their opportunities of buying votes and making "deals"; but it by no means destroys their *raison d'être*. The truth is, and each election makes it clearer and clearer, that wherever and whenever the public offices are used to reward party services, or to promote what is considered the party welfare, there will always be, and will always have to be, a "Boss" to superintend the work of distribution. This is true of city, State, and nation, without any exception whatever. We always have a municipal Boss in New York, and always shall have, as long as there are so many fat offices to be used as the spoils of victory after election, with the consent or acquiescence of the public. Bosses come and Bosses go, but the office remains. Kelly succeeds Tweed, and Croker succeeds Kelly, and somebody else of like kind is sure to succeed Croker; and the reason is that the work of selecting, once in two years, the persons who, in payment for their political services, are to get a chance to live on the municipal treasury, necessarily creates a sort of dictator. The system could not be maintained except through the one-man power. "Spoils" are always divided by a chief of some kind, whose will is law and before whom the boldest malcontent has to hold his peace. The municipal Boss, like Croker here and McLaughlin in Brooklyn, differs, however, from the State Boss, in that he is, so to speak, Boss in his own right. He owes his power to strength of will, powers of command, and intimate knowledge of the character of his followers.

The State Boss, on the other hand, has only a delegated authority. He is not self-made. He is a prætor governing a province with forces supplied him by the President at Washington. But he, too, is a necessity of the situation. As long as the President treats the vast patronage at his disposal chiefly as a means of rewarding the people who work for him and his party at elections, and only secondarily as a means of honestly and efficiently conducting the public business—as long, in short, as about 70,000 offices are made to change hands after every change in the party in power in Washington—there must be in each State a Boss to superintend the distribution of the prize money. The spoils system cannot get along without him. In the small States, in which Federal offices are few in number, he will be a small Boss, of little account. But in the large States like New York and Pennsylvania he will be a leviathan like Platt and Quay. There would be a similar leviathan also in Massachusetts, owing to the size of Boston, but for the singularly intelligent and thoroughly democratic character of the voters. The Massachusetts Boss is consequently a much smaller personage than his New York and Pennsylvania congener, and his tenure is more precarious, but he exists and grows stronger.

We ought not to indulge in any illusions in this matter. We might get rid of Platt to punish him for not having carried the election, but he would have to be replaced by somebody else to-morrow. Platt to-day is weak and despised, but why? Not because Bosses are considered bad things, but because he has not done successfully a Boss's work. When he is called to account by his superiors in Washington for his recent failure, what they will say to him is not, "Is it true that you have been debauching the voters of the State by money, and corrupting the Legislature through 'deals' and 'intrigues,' and discrediting the Administration through unworthy promises and base contracts?" but, "What in thunder did you do with the custom-houses and other public establishments which we placed at your disposal? What was the use of giving you the Custom-house and all the Post-offices, and the Sub-Treasuries and the Internal Revenue Collectorships, and every other Federal office in the State, if you can't carry an important State election?"

What is most curious in all this to intelligent lookers-on is, that the offices never do help the Boss to carry elections. In 1882, President Arthur, as a New Yorker, acted as his own Boss in this State, and used the offices remorselessly against the Half-Breeds and Democrats, but Cleveland was elected Governor by the greatest majority in the history of the State. In 1884 the same story was repeated. Blaine had the Bosses and the offices on his side, and was beaten. In 1888 Cleveland had the Bosses and offices on his side and was beaten. On Tuesday week all that one of the ablest, most indefatigable and unscrupulous of the Bosses, Lodge of Massachusetts, could do failed to prevent the reëlection of a Democratic Governor. This, too, occurred in a State in which a brave soldier, a thoroughly efficient city postmaster, had been dismissed from office in the openly avowed and cynical expectation that it would frighten Democrats and encourage Republicans in other States. So that we think we can confidently assure our Republican contemporaries that they cannot get rid of their Bosses without laying the axe to the root of that upas tree, the spoils system; and also, that "of all horned cattle," as Horace Greeley used to say, in politics, a Boss is the least useful, the most deluding.

THE "SCARE" ARGUMENT GONE.

PERHAPS the most striking moral of the late elections is the demonstration that what may be called the "scare" argument of the Republicans is finally gone. This fact is brought out most forcibly by the returns from Massachusetts and Iowa; and no other two States in the whole Union could illustrate the change so clearly.

Ever since the war, the chief reliance of the Republican managers, whenever their party was hard pressed by the Opposition, has been the ingrained fear of the South and of the Democratic party, which was, naturally enough, felt by those who remembered the slavery era and who had lived through the civil war. If corruption ran riot in the Republican party under Grant and a change of Administration was demanded, a scare was produced by loud assertions that the election of Tilden would mean the payment of thousands of millions of "rebel claims" and the pensioning of rebel soldiers; and Republicans who were inclined to vote the Democratic ticket were frightened back into support of their old party. If an unworthy man secured the Republican nomination for the Presidency, and the interests of morality demanded a rebuke of the party by a vote against him, the cry was raised that the "Solid South" stood behind Cleveland and would dictate the policy of his administration if he should be elected, and inflict all manner of harm upon the nation.

In those States which have a number of large cities, a class of Independent voters has long existed which could not be influenced by the "scare" argument, but it has hitherto retained its potency in the rural districts. The Republican farmers in the "back towns" might seem to grow lax in the faith once in a while, but it was only necessary, when an important election approached, to send among them a lot of stump speakers who should yell "Solid South," "rebel brigadiers," and "dangers of Democratic rule," and they could be brought once more to the polls ready to "save the country" by voting the Republican ticket again.

The old dodge was tried once more this year, but it failed to work. The Republican orators in Massachusetts with one accord declared that, however worthy of reelection Gov. Russell might be, he must be beaten because his success would encourage the Democratic party throughout the nation, and help to bring about a Democratic victory in the national contest next year. As

Henry Cabot Lodge said on the day before election:

"They are fighting for Massachusetts for 1892. They want to get the State as a great card in that great Presidential game. Every Republican who gives his vote to-morrow casts it in the Presidential election just as surely as he will cast it there next fall. It is useless to disguise it any longer. The battle has taken such a shape that it has all the importance of the national and Presidential year. I have been all over this State in this campaign—from Berkshire to the Cape—and they are aroused throughout the State. The Republican vote is coming out unless every sign is false and fails—they are coming out all over the State—they are coming here with a great majority for you [turning to Mr. Allen, the Republican candidate]."

The voters *did* come out in the small towns all over the State, but they did not bring the expected Allen majority with them. The farmers went to the polls very generally, but they did not wear the anxious expression of old lest the country should go to ruin if Russell should be reëlected. Not a few of them, life-long Republicans though they had been, helped to reëlect him, and boldly declared that they were not afraid of any harm coming from it.

Iowa is an agricultural State to a far greater extent than Massachusetts, and the overwhelming majority of its voters live in the farming towns. It has always been the secure fortress of the Republicans whenever the "scare" argument was brought out. It was really pitiful to watch the simple-minded farmers as the stump-speakers, winking slyly to each other the while, retailed time and time again the ancient "gags," and frightened them into rolling up majorities which sometimes ran as high as 75,000. They essayed to play the old game again this year, and warned all hesitating Republicans that the reëlection of Boies would make Iowa a doubtful State in 1892, and promote the election of a Democratic President. But to their surprise the voters were not scared this time. One of them, Mr. H. D. Cope, explained why, in a speech at Des Moines giving his reasons for supporting Boies: "He was formerly a Republican. He was a great admirer of Mr. Blaine, and worked hard in the political field during that gentleman's campaign. When Blaine was defeated, he was, as his wife expressed it, 'sick for a week.' What followed?" he proceeded. "I, who believed nothing good could come out of Democracy, saw a four-years' administration by an honest, able, conscientious American citizen, who surrounded himself by a Cabinet of able, representative men. I saw that President leave the chair respected alike by friend and enemy." There were so many Republicans who could not be frightened any more than Mr. Cope that Boies was reëlected by a handsome majority, although the total vote was much larger than that cast in the last Presidential election, showing that the "Republican reserves" did not stay at home.

The downfall of the "scare" argument is cause for general rejoicing. It was never anything but a humbug and fraud, yet for almost a quarter of a century it has been the salvation of demagogues and rascals. Now that it is finally gone, we can have campaigns in which clap-trap will be at a discount, and both parties will appeal to the intelligence of the voters. This is really the most encouraging result of last week's voting.

THE BRIGGS CASE.

THE clearly avowed motive of the New York Presbytery in dismissing the charges against Prof. Briggs on the very first day of the trial last week, was a pure longing for peace at any price. On the merits of the case no opinion was expressed, except in the vague statement, amended into the resolution in order to win the votes of conservatives, that the action was taken "without approving of the position taken in the Inaugural Address." Prof. Briggs himself did not argue the main question. His adroit and able answer was simply a demurrer to the indictment. It may very well have brought a certain amount of shame on the prosecuting committee, as they saw their loose and illogical charges so mercilessly dissected at the hands of the skilful ecclesiastical lawyer, and their childish and futile use of Scripture held up to contempt. But it did not, after all, touch the vitals of the case, and was not intended to. It was only preliminary, and suggestive of the artillery the learned Professor had in reserve for use in the main battle. The dismissal of the case was not determined by this introductory pleading, except in a very small degree.

We say this because it is evident from the proceedings that the advocates of peace had been counting noses, during the time since the charges were presented, and had found that they could reverse the narrow majority by which the prosecution had been originally ordered. And they were all ready with their motion as soon as Prof. Briggs's paper was read, and before the Presbytery was given any chance to act upon it. They could have passed it just as well at the start. The truth is, the New York Presbytery had to be harried into taking up the case at all. Prof. Briggs advanced no new views in his famous inaugural. He had uttered and published them in one form and another many times, and the Presbytery never moved against him, even in the face of his challenge to do so. But when his transfer to a new chair in Union Seminary gave the Presbyterians of the West a chance to strike at him through the relations of the Seminary to the General Assembly, the pressure grew so great that the Presbytery of this city were driven to take the matter up lest their own orthodoxy should be called in question. But they have never had any heart in it, and the decision to drop the whole thing without further discussion was sure to come in time, given the composition of the Presbytery.

It has been a standing and open complaint of Western Presbyterians that the Presbytery of New York was altogether too lax for the good of the denomination. This has been accounted for in many ways. One Western paper waxed eloquent at one time on the doctrinally corrupting effects of associating with the men of great wealth in New York city, and spoke darkly of several ministers it might name who had married rich wives, and were naturally, therefore, somewhat shaky on the tougher doctrines. The commoner explanation, however, has been the influence of New England, and especially of New England Congregationalism, upon the New York Presbyterian churches. There has been no little muttering over the tendency of those churches to draw upon the Congregational pulpit for their ministers. Thus Dr. William Adams, who was so long the pastor of the Madison Square Church, was of New England and Congregational origin. So was his successor, who had no sooner removed to Andover as a professor than he fell violently under suspicion of heresy, even according to the looser Congregational standards. His successor, the present pastor, was also a New England Congregationalist, and has given almost greater offence to Western sensibilities than Prof. Briggs himself, by his audacious repudiation of those parts of the Westminster Confession which he does not fancy. Many other cases of the kind could be cited, and are cited with a great deal of indignation by Presbyterians in the West and in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, as a sufficient reason for the toleration of so dangerous a man as Prof. Briggs all these years. Whatever may be said to this, no well-informed person will deny that if Prof. Briggs had been a member of the Presbytery of New Brunswick or Philadelphia or Pittsburgh, he would have been convicted of heresy long ago.

All these conditions must be taken into account in estimating the future of this famous case. In the present temper of the denomination at large it is perfectly idle to say, as some make haste to say, that this is the end of the whole affair. A great tactical advantage is undoubtedly left with Prof. Briggs, but it will not avail him finally unless the general sentiment of the Church shall undergo a great change before the reviewing ecclesiastical courts have a chance to pass upon the action of the New York Presbytery. We are much mistaken if the immediate effect of that action will not be a burst of anger in the denominational organs of the conservatives, over what they will call the cowardly attitude revealed by it. The peace of the church demands the cessation of the trial? What, then, they will say, becomes of the principle, First pure, then peaceable? The Presbytery has not put Prof. Briggs right, but itself wrong, they will be sure to say. And if they could get their hands on the matter at once, they would make short work of it. Still, the element of time is very strongly in favor of Prof. Briggs. Under the usual methods of procedure, his case could not come before the General Assembly sooner than a year from next May. In the interval many things may happen. Perhaps by that time scholarship and high personal character may win as great a victory in the church at large as they did last week in the Presbytery. Who knows that, in the course of eighteen months, many men may not be found to disclaim, as Dr. Van Dyke did, all knowledge of what takes place beyond the grave, as

long as they are this side the grave, and hence to refuse to prosecute a man for heresy because his guess differs from theirs?

THE NEW COPYRIGHT LAW.

THE so-called International Copyright Act took effect July 1, 1891, and it is a matter of interest to know just what are its practical results. It should be borne in mind that this is not original copyright legislation, but an alteration of our copyright law as codified in 1870 and embodied in the Revised Statutes as chapter sixty, and as amended by the acts passed in 1874 and 1882. It is well, therefore, first to determine what provisions of the old law remain unchanged by the new statute.

In the first place, there is no change as regards the things which can be copyrighted. They remain as before: books, maps, charts, dramatic or musical compositions, engravings, cuts, prints, photographs or negatives of photographs, paintings, drawings, chromos, statues, statuary, and models or designs intended to be perfected as works of the fine arts. The copyright upon any of the above articles is to be secured, also, by the same class of persons, namely, the authors, inventors, designers, or proprietors of any of them, and their executors, administrators, or assigns. The legal period of copyright protection remains unchanged, viz., two terms of twenty-eight and fourteen years respectively, and nothing in the language of the new act would seem to affect the construction heretofore given to the provisions of the law as to the duration of copyright, whereby the second term of fourteen years cannot be acquired by the copyright proprietor (that is to say, the assignee of the author), but accrues solely for the benefit of the author if living, or his widow or children, if he is dead. Coming, in natural sequence, to the formalities required by the statute in order to obtain a copyright, we find important changes resulting from the new legislation, but the following provisions remain unaltered: (1.) A printed title of any article copyrighted, which can be reproduced by mechanical means, and two copies of such article, must be deposited in the Copyright Bureau at Washington; while (2.), of artistic productions wholly or mainly the direct product of the author, a description of the article together with a photograph of it must be sent to the same depository. (3.) The fees for recording copyright entries, for giving a copy of such record (fifty cents in each case), and for recording an assignment of copyright, and for furnishing a copy of such assignment (one dollar in each case), remain unchanged; but by the new law a special fee of one dollar is charged to a foreign author for entering his claim of copyright.

The various provisions of the present law establishing the Copyright Bureau, and defining the duties of the Librarian of Congress in relation to the Copyright Office, remain unchanged, but that officer is given an additional duty to perform, to which reference will be made further on. The provisions concerning penalties for non-compliance with the law, or for making false claim of copyright, or for fraudulent representation of dramatic works, are also unchanged, while all the provisions relating to copyright suits are left in force, as are also the regulations regarding assignments of copyrights and the minor stipulation that postmasters shall, if requested, give receipts for copyright deposits. Section 4967 of the Revised Statutes, which gives protection to manuscripts, is changed only by striking out the words which have heretofore limited the protection to manuscripts which were the property of citizens of the United States or residents therein. This is also the case as regards the two sections of the Revised Statutes (4964 and 4965) designed to protect the proprietor of literary and artistic property against fraudulent reprinting and importation.

Turning to the changes effected by the new law, we have first to notice the difference in phraseology whereby all the words in the existing copyright statute which limited the granting of copyright solely to citizens or residents of the United States, have been struck out. This erasure would virtually extend the protection accorded by the statute to literary and artistic property to the productions of all authors and artists, no matter what might be their citizenship or place of residence; but a final clause was added to the new law by the House of Representatives' Committee, whereby the new act is limited to apply only to the citizens or subjects of such foreign nations as permit copyright to our citizens. The change which is next in importance is that relating to dramatization and translation, whereby authors are granted the exclusive right to dramatize and translate their works for the entire forty-two-years' term of copyright. This is a radical change from the old law, and is the one particular in which the copyright legislation of the United States is more favorable to the author than is that of other nations. The third noticeable change effected by the new law is that certain articles can no longer secure copyright within the United States at all unless they are manufactured in the United States. These articles are books—concerning which it is stipulated that the copies required to be deposited in the Library of Congress to perfect the claim of copyright must be "printed from type set within the limits of the United States, or from plates made therefrom"—and photographs, chromos, and lithographs, of which the copies deposited must be from "negatives or drawings on stone made within the limits of the United States, or from transfers made therefrom." This stipulation of home manufacture applies to the articles named whether they are the productions of foreigners or of citizens of the United States. A minor alteration is that which requires this deposit of copies to be made not later than the day of publication "in this or any foreign country," in lieu of within ten days, as was the case before.

The law as it stood secured the author only against the importation and sale of unlawful reprints, but in order to give full effect to the stipulation of American manufacture it was deemed desirable also to bar the importation of authorized editions made beyond the limits of the United States. To this end the importation of any book, chromo, lithograph, or photograph, or any plates of the same "not made from type set, negatives, or drawings on stone made within the limits of the United States" is prohibited. This inclusive prohibition, however, is subject to certain exceptions of decided importance to book-buyers. Thus the importation is allowed of (a) books, engravings, photographs, maps, and charts printed more than twenty years; (b) books and pamphlets printed exclusively in languages other than English; (c) books and music in raised print, used exclusively by the blind; (d) books, etc., imported for the use of the United States, or for the Library of Congress; (e) books, maps, lithographic prints, and charts for incorporated institutions of learning; (f) books belonging to persons from foreign countries, if actually used not less than one year; (g) books bought (not more than two copies at one time) by persons for their private use; and (h) newspapers and magazines which do not contain any copy right matter other than such as is printed with the author's sanction. To aid in enforcing this prohibition of importation, the Librarian of Congress is directed to prepare weekly lists of all articles entered for copyright, as to which the copyright has been completed by deposit of two copies made or produced in the United States; these being virtually lists of books and other articles whose importation is prohibited except as allowed under the exceptions enumerated above.

The Copyright Act was passed March 3, 1891, and on May 7 the Department of State forwarded two copies of it to each of our Ministers abroad, requesting the transmission of one copy to each foreign Government, with the statement that the benefits of the statute were to be extended to the citizens of foreign States only after a proclamation by the President, to be issued under conditions specified in section 13 of the Act, which reads as follows:

> "That this act shall only apply to a citizen or subject of a foreign State or nation when such foreign State or nation permits the citizens of the United States of America the benefit of copyright on substantially the same basis as its own citizens; or when such foreign State or nation is a party to an international agreement which provides for reciprocity in the granting of copyright, by the terms of which agreement the United States of America may, at its pleasure, become a party to such agreement. The existence of either of the conditions aforesaid shall be determined by the President of the United States by proclamation made from time to time as the purposes of this act may require."

This section was drafted under the impression that a proclamation might issue immediately upon the passage of the act making it effective for the benefit of the citizens of all countries parties to the International Copyright Union, and on May 29 the Swiss Minister made inquiry at the De-

partment of State to ascertain whether this would be done. The reply was that the Department had not been assured that the type-setting requirement in the new law would not be an obstacle to our Government becoming a party to the Berne treaty, whereupon the Swiss Minister telegraphed, on June 21, to the Swiss Federal Council to ask whether the United States could be admitted to the Convention without a modification of the recent Copyright Act. A telegraphic response, dated June 23, was to the effect that it would be difficult to admit the United States into the International Copyright Union with the American-manufacture stipulation in force, and proposed submitting the question to the independent countries of the Union. On June 27, Mr. J. B. Moore, then Third Assistant Secretary of State, submitted a report to the President on the construction of section 13, which, together with the text of the act, and the President's proclamation, has been printed. Mr. Moore discusses the two conditions contained in section 13 at some length. Disposing of the second condition first, he takes the ground that unless the United States can be admitted to the Berne Convention without further legislation, it cannot be maintained that it may become a party to that Convention "at its pleasure"; and as no assurance has been given to the United States that it can become a party to the Berne Convention so long as the type-setting clause is contained in its law, no extension of the Copyright Act to citizens or subjects of the signatories of that Convention can take place until the parties to the treaty shall decide that the legislation of the United States entitles our Government to the privilege of accession at its request.

Under the first (reciprocity) condition of section 13, four countries have applied for an extension of the benefits of the act to their citizens, viz., Belgium, France, Great Britain, and Switzerland, and in the case of each Mr. Moore decides that the act may be declared in force, on the ground that their laws grant to citizens of the United States copyrights identical with or substantially the same as those enjoyed by their own subjects. Accordingly the President's proclamation of July 1, 1891, extends the Copyright Act to the citizens or subjects of the four countries named.

GREENLAND IN SUMMER.

PHILADELPHIA, October 22, 1891.

To the vast majority of summer tourists a diversion in favor of Greenland would be considered as unreasonable as any plan for a summer campaign could well be made to appear. Not even by that class of *voyageurs* who annually trouble their brains in the attempt to discover a land where no travelling brother had previously set foot, has the thought of such a trip been seriously entertained. The name of Greenland, albeit it implies the existence of meadows and pastures green, is in itself repellent—not a name that charms, like Chamounix, the Matterhorn, or the Riviera. In the popular mind, Greenland is a synonym for ice and icebergs, and little else; a journey thither is a journey to a region which offers only hardships of travel and the prospect of a non-return. Doubtless this estimate of a little-known country is derived from the narratives of reliable travellers and the record of disaster which, perhaps more than anything else, has thus far distinguished arctic exploration; but, whether founded on description or merely upon the fanciful web of supposed knowledge, this conception of a country stretching over not less than 1,600 miles of latitude is singularly inaccurate. It is true that there is ice, and much of it, in this great northern land mass; and it is none the less true that in winter (and on the greater elevations also in summer) the temperature descends to the not very comfortable level of —50° or —60° F. But the picture is not complete in this one aspect alone. Contrast with the winter snows the charming meadows of summer, with their delight of mountain pink, buttercup and poppy, of heath and harebell—a vision of loveliness not surpassed even in the far-famed upper valleys of Switzerland. Occasional butterflies, gleaming with the lustre of the poppy and anemone, flit lazily across the mild sunshine, dropping their shadows over forests of diminutive birch and willow. To the ear comes the music of thousands of mosquitoes, mingling with, but not drowning, the sounds of babbling brooks and tumbling cascades, to which the melting snows have given birth. Far and near over the Greenland waters hundreds of icebergs, like huge masses of statuary, dot a surface only less blue than the Mediterranean at Villefranche, while the sky above has the tranquillity and intensity of Neapolitan better days. To all this add a temperature of some 40°–50° in the shade, or 65°–75° in the sun, and we round off the picture much as the writer recently experienced it on the island of Disko, on approximately the 69th parallel of latitude.

Disko is in many ways the garden-spot of Greenland, but there are numerous localities, both north and south, which are only less enjoyable. For hundreds of miles beyond, or nearer to the Pole, the landscape still presents much the same general features that we find in the more favored regions of the south. Bold mountain prominences, broken through at short intervals by the great tongues of ice which radiate off from the distant and hazy ice-fields of the interior, abruptly contour the country. Long slopes of ravine-snow here and there descend close to the water, but more commonly little or none of this "garb of winter" is met with below the 1,500–2,000-foot level. To this altitude, therefore, the Alpinist, or even the mountaineer of most limited resources, will find no impediment to his search after points of view; and even the botanist will not have passed beyond the bounds of his own particular realm. Many are the plants that bathe in the first waters of the melting snows, and not a few have stolen from the rainbow its brightest hues. To the very border of the ice these plants crawl up, contesting each foot in the short period of their struggle for existence.

Beyond all follows the great ice-cap, with its endless sweep of prairie-like rolls and undulations—a picture of lonely desolation probably not matched in any other part of the earth's surface. A series of gentle rises carries the eye far into the interior, until in the dim distance, possibly three-quarters of a mile or a full mile above sea-level, it no longer distinguishes between the chalky sky and the gray-white mantle which locks in with it. No lofty mountain peak rises out of the general surface, and but few deep valleys or gorges bight into it; but roll follows roll in gentle sequence and in such a way as to annihilate all conceptions of space and distance. This is the aspect of the great "ice-blink." It is not the picture of a wild and tempestuous nature, forbidding in all its details, but of a peaceful and long-continued slumber. We tread the snowy mantle much as we should in winter cross over one of our meadow-lots; the foot sinks mildly into the granular névé, but only to find a solid base at some four or five inches beneath the surface. No more delightful wandering can be had than that which is held out, in a clear summer day, by the low-level Greenland ice. To be able to roam about Nature's grandest solitude without either guide or path, in a temperature which is both mild and invigorating, and without a night to mark off periods of light and darkness, is a privilege which even the most travelled of travellers cannot fail to appreciate.

But if this is Greenland, whence originates the popular supposition that the region holds out only terrors to the wanderer to its shores? Is it that travellers exaggerate the dangers of arctic exploration, or merely that the mind has not well read between the lines of their narrations? Probably both conditions are in a measure true. It is but natural that a narrative should deal more emphatically with experiences that are both novel and striking than with things commonplace, and it is therefore not surprising that much of what is of equal importance among the latter is made to give way to the former. Yet the careful follower of Kane and Hayes will not fail to find that these explorers have done full justice to the peaceful aspects of their arctic wanderings, and others like them have but repeated their own experiences. The fact is, Greenland and the arctic north have two phases in their existence—the one of summer, when the cheerful side of Nature is turned uppermost, and the other of winter, when, as almost everywhere else, the cup of Nature yields but an empty draught. It is the winter garb of the icy north that is mainly impressed upon our minds.

A summer tour to Greenland, even to the far North—to the 75th parallel of latitude, or thereabouts—and embodying in its realization neither hardship nor danger, could be arranged annually with much of the certainty of a transatlantic trip. During the latter part of July and throughout the whole of August the coast is mainly free of ice, and even the passage of the much-dreaded Melville Bay can very generally be effected during this season of the year without danger from a "nip," and frequently with not so much as an acre of ice to interfere with the traveller's journey. Once beyond Cape York, the free North Water opens up a passage to the 79th or the 80th parallel of latitude, or to within some 700 miles of the Pole. In the course of such a trip the traveller would see much that is novel and interesting, much that is grandly picturesque, and still more that is striking in its deviation from the rest of the earth. A country inhabited by a race of people so remarkable as are the Eskimos is always worthy of a visit, especially at a time when a greatly increasing interest in the science is fostering the study of ethnology. But merely in the contemplation of the forms of the almost endless number of icebergs, the vacation tourist would probably consider himself amply repaid for a journey to this easily-reached land of the midnight sun, with its almost numberless glaciers, its sky-splitting mountains, and a boundless ice-cap. The artist, too, will find here abundant suggestion for his brush and palette.

The day is probably not far distant when

the tourist will regularly find his way to these supposed inhospitable shores, and if not to a point very far north, at least to some distance beyond the Arctic Circle, where all that Greenland presents can be enjoyed with advantage, from the midnight sun and aurora to the Eskimos, glaciers, fjords, and icebergs. The climate, too, of the lower tracts is somewhat pleasanter, for although even as far north as Melville Bay the temperature at night will, in the summer months, descend but little below the freezing point, around about Disko a delicious 40° or more renders the wearing of an overcoat both unnecessary and undesirable. Neither arctic furs nor sleeping-bags need thus enter into the calculation of such a journey, on which, under ordinarily favorable conditions, the traveller can enter with the freedom of a transatlantic tour to the North Cape or Stockholm. As yet there is scarcely a means of communication with Greenland except by whalers and the vessels of the Danish fleet plying between Copenhagen and Godhavn (or Christianshaab and Upernavik); but a summer demand would soon establish the supply, just as it did in the case of tourist communication with the Nile, Iceland, and the North Cape. Greenland, while perhaps not quite as hospitable as the north of Norway, presents much more of general interest and of that which may be considered absolutely unique than that now much-frequented region.

ANGELO HEILPRIN.

GERMAN SOCIALISTS IN COUNCIL.

DRESDEN, October 26, 1891.

THE German Socialists held their annual Congress at Erfurt, October 14–21, and a remarkable meeting it was for a stranger to see. We speak of "red revolutionists," and the revolutionists accept the color. The hall blazed with red. The presiding officer sat at a table covered with red. Huge red banners hung from the wall. On red shields against the galleries were inscribed the great names and dates of Socialism—the storming of the Bastille in 1789, the Paris Revolution of 1848, and the abrogation of the Socialist law in Germany in 1890. At one end of the hall were busts of Lassalle and Marx, crowned with laurel. Over the stage swung a long banner, on one end of which was the text from Marx: "Workmen of all lands, unite"; and, on the other, this extraordinary adaptation of Scripture proposed by Lassalle: "The working people are the rock on which the Church of the future must be built." Between these two, one read the brief but important commentary on both of them, "Knowledge is Power." At four long tables running down the hall sat some two hundred and fifty delegates from all parts of Germany, representing this year about one and a half million voters. They were for the most part neither long-haired nor wild-eyed persons, nor yet horny-handed sons of toil, but patient and respectable-appearing Germans, quite above the ranks of manual labor. Each, like a bona-fide legislator, had his documents and portfolio before him, and the whole scene was as business-like as a Town Council. Beer was to be had at the sides of the hall, but it was plainly not "good form" even for the most radical revolutionist to have anything before him more stimulating than water. In fact, I saw more water drunk in one session of the Socialists than I have seen in six months together elsewhere in Germany. In the throng might be discerned a half-dozen women delegates, and the well-appearing and well-dressed wives of Bebel and Von Vollmar had conspicuous seats.

At the high table sat the leaders, Bebel, Liebknecht, Singer, Von Vollmar, and a few others, who—as has just been proved—will need all their force and ability to keep the party united under them. Bebel is a fiery little man, of wit and keenness rather than eloquence, and not unreasonably attacked by the Opposition as the dictator of the party. Liebknecht, its most scholarly leader, made a journey through the United States in 1887, which he describes in a pleasant volume called 'A Look at the New World,' and in which—as he writes—his likeness to Mr. Blaine was often observed. He speaks with deliberation and thoughtfulness, and appeals rather to the intelligence of his party than, like Bebel, to its passions. Singer, the President of the meeting, is a strange figure in such company, being a prosperous manufacturer, with a large watch-chain and a waistcoat, where, as the Irishman said of the English Bishop, "every button was doing its duty." Still more striking is the presence of Von Vollmar, an aristocrat among the democracy, a soldierly and eloquent man, perhaps the most effective speaker of them all, and a dangerous person—as was seen in this meeting—to attempt to discipline or suppress. Strangest of all in this strange assembly was the reminder of other days, so lately passed away, when all such free discussion of radical change was a criminal act, and when these very leaders more than once suffered imprisonment and exile for their creed. Close by the side of the presiding officer still sat at every session a sergeant of police in full uniform, and two special reporters for the Government took full notes of the proceedings.

One feature of business method I had already noticed at a Congress of English co-operators, and in this meeting at Erfurt it again added greatly both to decorum and to the advance of business. The whole order of business, with the report of the Council, was put in print before the meeting and distributed to the members. Each man therefore followed the proceedings with prepared intelligence. Any person wishing to speak sends his name to the President, and is called in his turn when the subject of business is reached. No amendment is entertained except with notice given. The method tends strongly to suppress unpremeditated talk and to give plain minds a full understanding of each question. The report of the Council thus presented announced the receipt during the past year of about $54,000, a sum which, in the present poverty of the laboring classes in Germany, is a substantial pledge of their loyalty. Of this sum $8,000 had been spent for agitation, $2,500 for the relief of individuals, $2,000 for election contests, $1,500 for defending legal actions, $4,000 for administration, and $3,800 for the support of representatives in the Reichstag at an allowance per man of $1.50 a day. The report further states that there are now sixty-nine party newspapers in Germany, of which twenty-seven appear daily, twenty-six three times a week, six twice a week, and ten once a week. A new scientific review, *Die Neue Zeit*, is to be endowed, to appear at Stuttgart. There are, still further, a weekly educational journal and two comic papers.

The Erfurt meeting was anticipated with the greatest interest both by the friends and the opponents of German Socialism. Its friends welcomed the Congress as the first opportunity for full announcement of the complete revolutionary programme, and its enemies fervently hoped that this liberty of discussion would bring to light the inner schisms of the party. Both anticipations were justified. On the one hand, the programme was set forth in great detail and finally adopted without debate; but, on the other hand, the whole six days were devoted to hot debate between the wings of the party, ending—no doubt to the great satisfaction of the Imperial Government—in at least one important secession. In preparing the party programme, the Council made one new departure. They abandoned the plan of productive societies with State credit, on which Lassalle laid so much weight; and this enterprise, as Bebel announced, is now regarded as "outgrown." So far the party leaves Lassalle and goes over to Marx, who always opposed this scheme. For the rest, the programme contains, first, a statement of the final goal towards which the movement is directed; and, second, a series of immediate demands in the interest of the working class. The statement of principles, slightly abbreviated, is as follows: "Nothing but the transformation of private ownership of the means of production—lands, mines, tools, raw materials, machines, and food—into common ownership, and the corresponding transfer of production itself to the control and interest of all, can make of modern industry a source of blessing to the workmen instead of a source of misery and oppression." How this transformation is to be made, or how, when the change is made, the new commonwealth is to be governed, is not announced in this report. On these points, which are the subject of so many programmes and romances, the German Socialists are discreetly silent. They proceed at once to what they call "immediate" matters, or methods of temporary relief which they propose to gain through legislation.

In their statement of principles and purposes the two aspects of the movement are formally distinguished from each other, with no plainly indicated plan for uniting the two. On the one hand is the final end of effort, the revolution of the present social order, and on the other hand is the list of palliative measures; but it is a long way from one to the other. Almost all the immediate remedies proposed might be brought to success and yet leave the constitution of society practically unchanged. Most of these measures, indeed, such as woman's suffrage, proportional representation, free education, and elected judges, are already in force in one part or another of the United States, without stirring that country as a whole from its position as the least socialistic of modern States. Here, then, in this distinction between end and means, lay the obvious risk of division in the Socialist ranks. On the one hand, the Radicals might say: "Why temporize with these petty legislative remedies when we set before ourselves a complete social revolution? Why agitate for an eight-hour day, or for free apothecaries, when what we really stand for is universal liberty and communal ownership? The oppressed masses ask for the bread of a new social order, and we give them the stone of parliamentary reform." On the other hand, the Conservative might argue: "If you talk to the average workingman of an ideal Socialist State, it will seem to his ears as far away a blessing as what the preacher tells him of heaven. What he wants is an immediate remedy for his personal distress. In the foreground of the movement, therefore, must be set such things as the most ignorant laborer can see to be for his own good. Give him shorter hours, free education, and a free Sunday, attach him thus to the party by immediate self-interest, and then by degrees indoctrinate him with the large philo-

sophy of society which discloses to us our final goal."

Precisely here came the split at Erfurt. On the one hand was the small group who for four days were the subject of hot attack under the name of the "Berlin Opposition." They prefer, for their own part, to be known as the "Young Democracy," and they concentrate their abuse on the "Old Guard," who thus far hold the power. Bebel they taunted as a dictator. He was, they insisted, in the pay of the Government. The party was held back by him to mere political opportunism. It could no longer be called a Socialist party, it was nothing but a party of parliamentary reform. Each such alleviation of present conditions only strengthened the present social order. It was for true Socialists to have no part in any such political questions, but to agitate directly for the "End-Ziel" of revolution. Bebel, of course, retorted that these irreconcilables were simply conspiring to get power in the party, and wanted to sit on the platform in his place; and this jealousy is more than probable. But the Radicals certainly had the great advantage in debate of being logically right. Thus, for instance, they held the only logical doctrine in a vital question which kept pressing to the front—the question of a possible European war. The Young Democracy maintained that Socialists ought to welcome international war, and should, when it came, refuse to take part in it, but let the resulting wreck of the present order come, and then step in with the new programme. Bebel, on the other hand, defends national unity against international Socialism. If, as he said, the Socialists stand aloof in the next war, they may suddenly find themselves in the hands of Russia, and their hopes would then be further than ever from realization. "Yes!" retorted the extremists, "but if, on the other hand, the war happens to be with France, then among our enemies will be the very men with whom at Brussels, only a few months ago, we swore eternal friendship." It was a clear issue between the logic of the situation and practical politics, and the German Government must notice with much satisfaction the position of the Socialist leaders. Dreams of a new social order may be lightly regarded by Caprivi, but, in the present unstable equilibrium of Europe, the possible contingency of a "strike" of half-a-million of soldiers just when needed for active service is worth consideration. The little group of five who thus for eight sessions of the Congress refused to be diplomatic, and insisted on being logical, were finally disposed of by a vote that they should present their grievances to a select committee. This they refused to do, and with much dramatic effect closed their portfolios and left the hall and the party; and, on their return to Berlin, were received and endorsed by a meeting of several thousand persons, as the anti-Bebel, true-blue—or rather blood-red—representatives of the movement.

At the opposite end of the Socialist problem lay the issue which occupied what was left of the meeting. The eloquent Von Vollmar had lately, at Munich, set forth the opportunist doctrine as the best diplomacy. The party, he had said, must, first of all, increase its members. It must, therefore, capture the whole working-vote. To do this it must emphasize immediate reforms, and it must have little to say of radical remedies from which the uninitiated would shrink. Only when the party was thus vastly larger could it demand the great things which lay beyond. Against this view, as against its opposite, the present leaders held out as long as possible. They regarded it as a new programme, growing out of the repeal of the Socialist law; and they insisted that no such moderate policy should be encouraged. They suggested that the conservatism of Von Vollmar was simply due to his own easy circumstances of life, and that the permissive policy of the present Government was more dangerous to Socialism than the suppressive policy of Bismarck. Liebknecht distinctly said that if he had to choose between using steam or brakes on his train, he preferred steam, and that if he must stand either for the opportunism of Von Vollmar or for the abandoning of all politics, as proposed by the Radicals, he for his part must be counted with the Berlin Opposition. A vote of protest against the view of Von Vollmar was proposed and was defended by Bebel. But the party was not ready to deal with so important a person as summarily as it had with the hot youths from Berlin. In spite of Bebel's personal appeal, the motion against Von Vollmar was defeated, and a second secession from the party was prevented. The Conservatives were held in the ranks by the defeat of the Centre.

Such was the general issue of these prolonged discussions. The result of the meeting is variously estimated by the different political parties of Germany. The Conservative press points out with satisfaction that free speech led to a free fight, but it does not notice the equally important fact that free speech on the part of the Conservatives was not permitted to exclude them. The Socialist newspapers justly dwell on the size and power of the party, and on its capacity for intelligence and self-control, but they do not call attention to its discords. Spectators at the Congress might have been variously moved. Those who were inclined to scoff at such proceedings would have found much to stir their sense of humor. When Bebel, in answer to questions, calmly stated that though he could not tell when the revolution would come, he thought it might happen in three or five years, and that at any rate some of those present would live to see it, one could hardly help smiling at the accepting on such short notice of "so large a contract." When, again, the meeting broke up, there were some amusing scenes at the railway station, which a correspondent of the *National Zeitung* describes. Singer, the President, stood in the crowd, permitting the waiter to bring him a light—most undemocratic conduct, says the reporter—and then asks of his friends, "Are you going with me to Berlin?" The train arrives, and while the working-class delegates clamber into the third and fourth-class compartments, Singer, the leveller of social distinctions, throws himself down on the velvet cushions of a first-class coupé. "So the Socialists, too," says the *National Zeitung*, "are human!"

But, after all, the main impression made on at least one spectator—and, so far as I know, the only witness of the Congress not directly concerned with its affairs—was that of the pathetic isolation in which the working-class in Germany, as in most countries, is placed. Here were the representatives of the great majority of hand-laborers throughout Germany, seriously trying to devise plans for those better conditions of life which their brethren so sorely need. But to whom could they look for guidance? They were almost wholly in the hands of a few men, who may be honest, but who are certainly unfit for judicious leadership—men who are simply agitators and politicians, with no training in the complex questions with which they have to deal. Beyond these leaders the whole movement is either tabooed or unnoticed. Few newspapers had anything to say of the proceedings at Erfurt. Most good citizens spoke of the meeting with horror. No competent adviser has so much as tried to meet the workingmen on their own ground. When the German Socialists meet before elections, they publicly invite their opponents to debate the matter with them; but no one goes. Not a single statesman has the confidence of the workingmen, not a single economist has approached them with counsel. No Christian minister has been able to make his Gospel seem to them a better message than the "good news" they hear of a coming social chaos. It has become a part of the creed of the working-class that Government, religion, and political economy are all alike their enemies. Every man's hand seems against them, and they mass their forces against the whole body of respectable opinion. Such isolation is not only pathetic, it is a reproach to the scholars, statesmen, and clergy of any civilized land.

FRANCIS G. PEABODY.

Correspondence.

THE MASSACHUSETTS ELECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While the election of Gov. Russell is an important event, it is at least equally important that its significance should be clearly brought out. The first thing to be noted is the power of personality as an agent in politics. In spite of the energy of the traditional protest, the people are always much more interested in men than in measures. Instead of railing at them, therefore, for this incurable weakness, the part of wisdom is to provide them with good men instead of bad men to run after—a rule which, simple as it seems, is almost always reversed in our so-called practical politics.

The next lesson is, that the way to carry reforms is to identify them with persons, so as to combine the enthusiasm for men with the enthusiasm for measures. Of course, it is Gov. Russell's popularity which has carried the election; but that he has insisted on the false position of the Governor, has resisted the arbitrary exercise of power by the Council in rejecting his appointments, and has protested against the government of the State by irresponsible commissions over which the Governor has no control—I do not think these things have hurt his popularity, and I am very sure that his popularity has helped the things. The reflex action is to come. Personal popularity is evanescent. The people, having endorsed him this time, will think they have done enough, and will become indifferent. One more term would be the utmost extent of their good will. An election to Congress would change the scene from the State to a district. If he wishes to establish his hold, he must prosecute the reforms in vigorous earnest, and so make them work for him.

It may be asked, Why these particular reforms and not more practical ones, such as civil service, temperance, education, prison or law reform? The answer to that question has suggested itself in reading an article in the *Forum* by Mr. Herbert Welsh on "The Degradation of Politics in Pennsylvania." He narrates with some pride how a vigorous movement of Independents succeeded in showing that the whole Government of the State and of the city of Philadelphia was in the hands of a gang of the most abandoned thieves,

After discussing some mild expedients of remedy, he adds that, after all, everything depends on the people, and that, if they will not come to the rescue, nothing can be done. I protest most earnestly against this implied accusation of the people. I say that the Government of Pennsylvania as well as of Massachusetts, of Philadelphia as well as of New York and Boston, is so organized that the mass of the people have very little voice in the matter, that they do not see what is going on or where the difficulty lies, and, if they did, are wholly unable to apply the remedy. If the ordinary business principles which are in force in every successful commercial house in the country were applied to public affairs, honest men would come into power and the knaves be ejected as a matter of course. Therefore it is that the alpha and the omega of our efforts should be organization; that the reforms which Gov. Russell has taken as his starting-point, and which, if but a first instalment, are the basis of all others, he should adhere to and prosecute for the sake of his own success as well as theirs.

May I point to the third lesson from the election? It is as to how State affairs can—in off years—be made more interesting than national. The burden of the Republican campaign was assumed by the Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge, stimulated, as is well known, by his ambition for a seat in the Senate of the United States. He has strained every nerve to push State affairs into the background, and to divide the voters on strict national party lines. As regards the Council and the Legislature, where there was no serious personal opposition, he carried his point; but, as to the Governorship, Mr. Russell, putting personality and cause together, has beaten him as fairly as ever a man was beaten. Shall we not lay the instruction to heart?

GAMALIEL BRADFORD.

BOSTON, November 7, 1891.

ABBOT AGAINST ROYCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Francis Ellingwood Abbot makes substantially the following charges against Prof. Josiah Royce:

(1.) That Prof. Royce libelled Dr. Abbot, and that maliciously.

(2.) That Prof. Royce used unfair means to stifle Dr. Abbot's reply.

I propose to consider impartially what the verdict of students of philosophy ought to be regarding these public accusations against one of the most eminent of their number.

The charge of libel has two specifications, viz.:

(1.) That Prof. Royce warned the general public against Dr. Abbot as a blatant and ignorant pretender in philosophy.

(2.) That Prof. Royce accused Dr. Abbot of plagiarizing Hegel at second hand.

From the point of view of propriety of conduct in a student of philosophy, the only adequate excuse for the first of these acts would be that the fact proclaimed was so unmistakable that there could be no two opinions about it on the part of men qualified by mature study to pass judgment on the merits of philosophical writers. In case the act were not so justified, the offence would be enormously aggravated if it were dictated by malice. The first question, then, is: Did Prof. Royce, as a matter of fact, so warn the public against Dr. Abbot? He certainly did, unequivocally and with full consciousness of what he was about; that is the unmistakable import of his whole article in the *International Journal of Ethics* for October, 1890. The next question is whether it is so plainly true that Dr. Abbot is a blatant and ignorant pretender in philosophy that it is impossible competent men should think otherwise? So far is that from being the case that philosophers of the highest standing, such men as Kirchheiss in Germany, Renouvier in France, and Seth in England, have drawn attention to the remarkable merit of his work. I am not personally intimate with Dr. Abbot, and am far from being a partisan of his doctrines, but as an humble student of philosophy, endeavoring to form my estimations with the eye of truth, I recognize in him a profound student and a highly original philosopher, some of whose results are substantive additions to the treasury of thought; and I believe that the prevalent opinion among competent men would be that Prof. Royce's warning is an unwarranted aspersion. Next, what excuse was there for such conduct, what motive prompted it? Prof. Royce and Dr. Abbot have their rival ways out of agnosticism. Both start from the same premises to come in the main (at least, so Royce says) to the same conclusion. Shall we say, then, that a passer-by cannot loiter near Dr. Abbot's shop, attracted by the placard, "THE WAY AND THE TRUTH," without Prof. Royce's rushing out and shouting from across the street that he can offer the same article at a lower figure? No; for how far a spirit of rivalry may have influenced him no man can know, Prof. Royce least of all.

Passing to the second specification, we ask: Did Prof. Royce accuse Dr. Abbot of plagiarizing Hegel? No; he only accused him of giving a maimed version of Hegel's theory of universals, naïvely supposing it to be a product of his own brain. That was no libel in the sense now considered. But, says Dr. Abbot, I have stated so clearly the antithesis between Hegel's view and mine that Prof. Royce cannot be sincere in saying they are identical. No matter; the more absurd the accusation, the less injurious; the less the truth, the less the libel. On this count Dr. Abbot is entirely in the wrong.

Passing to the second charge, we ask whether Prof. Royce used unfair means to stifle Dr. Abbot's reply? The ex-parte evidence indicates that he did contrive that Abbot's reply should be first postponed (as postponed it was over two numbers of the quarterly), and at last, as the third quarter was drawing to a close, should be excluded; in which performances Dr. Adler, the editor-in-chief, does not appear as very strong in the practical department of ethics. Afterwards Prof. Royce, through a lawyer, threatened Dr. Abbot with legal proceedings if he published his proposed reply at all.

All this would be abominable to the last degree in the case of a philosophical discussion. But then it must not be forgotten that the contention had never had that character. Prof. Royce's article was written with the avowed purpose, clearly and openly conveyed, though not by direct declaration, of ruining Dr. Abbot's reputation; and what little discussion there was was merely to subserve that purpose, not to ascertain or prove any truth of philosophy. Thus, it was a brutal, life-and-death fight from the first. Prof. Royce clearly perceived this, for he ends the article *by saying that he shows no mercy and asks none!* That's ethics. And his subsequent proceedings make it, in my judgment, as plain as such a thing can be, that his cruel purpose never left his heart. Dr. Abbot, on the other hand, stood like a baited bull, bewildered at such seemingly motiveless hostilities.

It is quite impossible not to suppose that Prof. Royce conceived it was his duty thus to destroy Dr. Abbot's reputation, and with that the happiness of his life. A critic's stern and sacred duty, and all that! Besides, it must be remembered that he is a student of ethics; and it is not to be imagined that a person can study ethics all his life long without acquiring conceptions of right and wrong that the rest of the world cannot understand.

C. S. PEIRCE.

SOME MORE "SOCIALS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The East is not disposed to acknowledge the superior fertility of the inventive mind of the West in the direction of "socials." Your article of October 15 on this subject shows that you have formed your opinion too soon; not from Chicago but from New York are to go forth the plans that will make "stiffness" impossible. In the *Christian Union* for this week, a writer tells of the means of developing the "Social Element in Church Life." I make a few selections in support of my position.

Under "impersonations" we are told: "It is quite possible to select incidents and qualities not generally known. For instance, the child life of Mahomet, or his business career, may be dwelt on. After each impersonation there should be a short recess . . . for the guessing of the name of the unknown."

Magazines are to be turned to account: "And the advertisements at the end of the magazine make a bit of fun. Sozodont, cod-liver oil, shaving soap, and cocoa are suggestive subjects."

The Chicago authoress will blush to think that she never imagined "a smelling contest: A dozen or more quart black bottles are used. Turpentine, vinegar, Pond's Extract, wintergreen, peppermint, coffee, bay rum, rose water, clove, cinnamon, ammonia, tar, and camphor are suitable for use. Each member of the company 'sniffs' and makes a list from memory."

The climax is the "Wrong-side Sociable: All the people are dressed wrong side before, with the hair drawn over the face, and a mask, home-made or otherwise, placed on the back of the head."

And thus we develop the social element in church life.

C. E. W.

BUCKING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read once more in your No. 1372, p. 296, in a valuable account of Kluge's 'Etymological Dictionary,' Heine's etymology of *Bücking*. The fact is, that the inventor of herring pickling was Willem Beukelsz, *i. e.*, Beukel's son. Whether Beukel stands for *pekel* (Dutch for *brine*), and was a name afterwards given, or whether *Beukel*, *Bückling*, *bokking*, *bokkem*, etc., are next of kin, is rather difficult to ascertain. The fact is, that long before Willem Beukelsz was born, as early as the fourteenth century, there was a word *bucking*, meaning smoked herring, a fish quite different in kind from pickled herring.—Yours truly,

TACO H. DE BEER.

AMSTERDAM, October 26, 1891.

Notes.

PROFESSOR NORTON is preparing for the press a volume of essays by Mr. Lowell not included in the Riverside Edition of his works. It

was in Mr. Lowell's mind to do this before he died, but his strength failed him. Papers on Milton, Gray, and Landor, on Keats and Walton, and an address before the Modern Language Association, will make up the contents. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be the publishers. They also announce 'Odes, Lyrics, and Sonnets,' selections from Lowell, Whittier, Longfellow, Tennyson, the Brownings, and Wordsworth, in their "White and Gold" series; and 'The Spirit of Modern Philosophy,' Harvard lectures by Dr. Josiah Royce.

'The Hours of Raphael in Outline,' by Miss Mary E. Williams of Salem, Mass., is announced by Little, Brown & Co., Boston. During her many years of residence in Rome, Miss Williams kept up a search for material upon "The Hours," and, as a result of her quest, there is now presented to the public for the first time a reproduction in folio of "The Hours" taken from tracings from a book in the Romani-Sarti Library, lately bequeathed to the city of Rome. This book, or old folio pamphlet, consists solely of "The Hours" in outline, done by three old engravers who worked in concert, each producing four of the "Hours." Miss Williams discovered it simply sewed into blue paper covers, without title-page or date, with the inscription "Raf. d'Urb. inv." at the left-hand side, and the name of the engraver at the right-hand side, of each plate. Further, she found this book unknown to all the dealers in old engravings at Rome, to the curators of the Imperial Galleries at Vienna and Berlin, at the Louvre, and at the British Museum; and M. Kanka, director of calcography at the Louvre, is authority for the statement that Raphael's "Hours" in outline were absolutely unknown among the merchants of engravings in Paris. The import of this discovery is thus apparent. The new publication will also contain a reproduction from a unique old engraving, in the Royal Stamperia in Rome, of the hall in the Vatican in which the "Hours" are shown in their original position on the ceiling. This engraving was originally published by Montagnani about 1750, and its reproduction has been kindly allowed for the present work. In all there will be sixteen plates, and enough accompanying text to explain the history and detail of the new material here brought together.

A. C. Armstrong & Son, in conjunction with Elliot Stock, London, will publish "The Camden Library," a series of volumes "concerned with the antiquities of Britain," and edited by G. Laurence Gomme and T. Fairman Ordish. The first volume is already completed, and deals with the 'Antiquities and Curiosities of the Exchequer,' containing numerous illustrations from original MSS. and the various relics preserved in the Public Record Office. Antiquities of the stage will be looked after in 'Old London Theatres,' and yet other volumes will be entitled 'English Homes in the Past,' 'Monastic Arrangement,' 'English Armor,' 'Folk-Lore,' 'Church Plate,' 'The Streams of London,' 'Miniature Portrait Painting,' etc., etc. The issue will be quarterly in three styles.

Charles Scribner's Sons will bring out the second volume of H. Morse Stephens's 'History of the French Revolution,' and 'Jesus, the Carpenter of Nazareth,' by a layman.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'The Modern Aladdin; or, the Wonderful Adventures of Oliver Munier,' written and illustrated by Howard Pyle.

The Cassells are to publish this month, simultaneously in America and England, 'Henriette Ronner: The Painter of Cat Life and Cat Characters,' by M. H. Spielmann. The volume will contain twelve full-page photogravures by Goupil; there also will be a small *édition de luxe*.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately a new edition, in two volumes, of 'Historical Memorials of Westminster Abbey,' by Dean Stanley, with thirteen full-page photogravure reproductions of Railton's etchings; 'The New York Obelisk, Cleopatra's Needle,' by C. E. Moldenke; 'Dr. John Brown and his Sister Isabella'; 'A Cyclopædia of Nature's Teachings,' with an introduction by Hugh Macmillan; 'Friendly Talks with Boys' and 'Friendly Letters to Girls,' by Miss Hawley; 'Women's Thoughts for Women,' compiled by Rose Porter; and 'Unknown Switzerland,' with nineteen photographic illustrations.

Lee & Shepard have nearly ready a volume on the battle of Gettysburg, by Samuel Adams Drake, and 'Wood Notes Wild,' by the late Simeon Pease Cheney, edited by his son, John Vance Cheney, librarian of the San Francisco Public Library.

In D. Lothrop Co.'s "Story of the States" series, the volume on Massachusetts, prepared by Edward Everett Hale, will speedily appear.

The Shelley centenary, which comes next year, is already beginning to be productive of books. One of the earliest to arrive is 'Pictures from Shelley' (Macmillan). The volume, which is of folio size, contains twenty-four wood-engravings after designs by E. E. Dell. Twelve of these are suggested by "The Cloud," and the others by landscape passages in "Queen Mab," "Alastor," etc. Something has been made of Shelley's broad horizons, vagueness, and etherialization of the elements, but the work is not very satisfactory, yielding only weak and watery Turneresque effects. A portrait of Shelley, which is the frontispiece, is the best thing in the volume.

Prof. Albert S. Cook edits, with introduction and notes, Shelley's 'Defense of Poetry' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), for use in schools and colleges. The plan is the same as that of the previously issued Sidney's 'Apologie,' but the more modern language of Shelley requires of course less annotation. The editor discusses in his introduction the character of melodic prose, the resemblance between Sidney and Shelley, and the question of labor versus inspiration as the method of genius. Peacock's 'Four Ages of Poetry,' which was the occasion of Shelley's work, is given in full; and there are the usual indexes and notes grammatical and literary.

William Davenport Adams adds another to the volumes of short, gossiping miscellanies which have been popular with desultory readers, under the title 'With Poet and Player' (Armstrong). The papers are divided between literature and the stage, and are readable, though not so distinguished by out-of-the-way anecdote and quotation as some of the earlier issues. "Defoe's 'Crusoe's Reflections,'" "Mrs. Shelley's 'Last Man,'" "The Stage Rustic," "Botany on the Boards," and "Horace in England" are characteristic titles. The book is issued in the style of the "Book Lover's Library," but does not bear the name on its title-page.

Richard Malcolm Johnston publishes nine miscellaneous articles, with no great pretension to either substance or style, in a small volume, 'Studies, Literary and Social' (Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.). "Belisarius," "Madame de Staël," "Franklin," "Shakspere," and "The Schoolmaster" are titles that show the range of the book, which is, however, of a very flimsy kind, and quite out of touch with either modern scholarship or criticism.

'Elizabethan Songs in Honour of Love and Beautie' (Little, Brown & Co.) is an elegant holiday volume, perfect in paper and typography, and characteristically illustrated by E. H. Garrett, who also made the selections. Mr. Lang furnishes an introduction, in which we find nothing noticeable, but it serves its purpose well enough by indicating the relation between verse and song, and showing that they were more closely allied in the Elizabethan time than now. "Elizabethan," however, is used with a laxity of application for which there is no excuse: it is extended over the whole seventeenth century, and includes Cowley, Herrick, and Waller. The selection is very closely confined, except in Shakspere's case, to the poetry of gallantry. The illustration is meant to be decorative, and succeeds admirably in what was intended; six of the photogravures are printed in sepia, and the head and tail-pieces are often happily designed. The total effect, however, is to render the men and women theatrical, and to give to the world of the Elizabethan lover and his mistress an atmosphere of unreality—of opera, almost—that easily blends with the verse of artifice and conceit, of which the volume is mainly made.

We can now extend the list of new editions begun last week. Two works peculiarly susceptible of illustration have been elaborately treated in this manner, viz.: Howells's 'Venetian Life' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) and Wallace's 'Ben Hur' (Harpers)—each in two volumes. Mr. Howells has been assisted by several of our well-known artists, or perhaps has simply profited by their already extant drawings in water-color; and in each of his volumes we find nine aquatint copies of such originals. Their size precludes these dainty vignettes from being much more than mere ornament, and the general effect of them is undeniably pleasing. The red initial letters at the beginning of chapters are by contrast too pronounced in color, as the arabesque head-pieces suffer in comparison with the letter-press. The buff and gold binding, on the other hand, is in the best of taste, and one must be fastidious not to choose or to welcome these volumes as a gift.

It is a "Garfield Edition" of 'Ben Hur' which the Messrs. Harper have undertaken, and it is so denominated because of President Garfield's praise of the story, which is attested by a facsimile of the letter containing it. For every page Mr. William Martin Johnson has supplied appropriate marginal pen drawings of scenery and antiquities, which are sometimes truly decorative, but have on the whole a distracting effect. Much more valuable are the photogravures, twenty in all, mostly from nature, including a portrait of the author. These have been well selected and are not hackneyed. The binding is a satin-like cloth of a deep orange, not unbecoming an Oriental work, and a hinged box in leatherette has been provided as a case.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. send us an abridged edition of the 'Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah,' by the late Dr. Edersheim. The work of condensation has been done by Prof. Sanday, and the omissions seem to impair the value of the full form but slightly for the general reader. Moreover, this edition is illustrated.

'The Swan of Vilamorta' is the latest of Señora Bazán's novels to be translated by Mrs. Serrano (Cassell). Of the story itself it is to be said that it is not one of the author's happiest, she herself being witness, while the translation bears marks of haste. In a pretty care-

ful comparison of a single chapter, we have noted only one bad blunder, but a great many failures to give the true shadings and transitions of the original. There can be no question, of course, of Mrs. Serrano's knowledge of Spanish, but she seems to make the mistake of thinking that style in a translation will take care of itself.

Mrs. Ellen M. Mitchell's 'Manual of Greek Philosophy' (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.), dedicated to the "Kant Club of Denver," shows careful study of German authorities, and is based chiefly on the works of Zeller and Hegel. The results are, of course, largely colored by Hegelian phraseology and nomenclature. "The quotations are from the original German," as the preface states; and it does not appear from the preface or the book that any study was made of the original Greek. In this respect the work suffers by comparison with Dr. Marshall's sketch recently noticed by us, which has about the same size and scope, but is much clearer and fresher, more readable and authentic. Such mistakes as νοὺς, δοχα (for νοῦς, δόξα), Miletus (for Meletus), "homoumeria," and "diarœtic," are symbols of occasional crudeness and inaccuracy which are almost inevitable under the circumstances. Mrs. Mitchell's is, for her opportunities, a praiseworthy study; but it is second-hand in its sources and its criticisms, and the exacting standards of education are no longer content with this kind of work, even in manuals for the beginner.

The complexion of 'Lyra Heroica: A Book of Verse for Boys,' compiled by William E. Henley (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Scribners), may be inferred from the title. Fighting by land and sea is the theme of much more than half of the selections, which begin with Agincourt. The patriotism, militant or peaceful, is mainly British, but Longfellow's "Building of the Ship" is admitted, together with war lyrics by Whittier and Walt Whitman and Bret Harte, and Mrs. Hemans's "Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers." There are mixed with these, somewhat incongruously, more elevating pieces, like "Lycidas," Wordsworth's "Ode to Duty," Wotton's "How happy is he born or taught," Ben Jonson's "It is not growing like a tree," and Sir Alfred Lyall's "Theology in Extremis," besides Herrick's "A-maying," Keats's sonnet on reading Chapman's Homer, Coleridge's "Kubla Khan," etc. As a whole, the collection is fresh and evinces poetic discrimination. Among sources overlooked, Clough should have been drawn upon for pure love of country as well as for adventure by sea and battles on land. For his "Green fields of England!" his "Peschiera," his "How in Heaven's name did Columbus get over," we could well have spared the two selections from Kipling, especially the last, "The Flag of England," which is, as Mr. Henley lets out in his note upon it, an anti-Home-Rule tract, and is by all odds the most whimsical of his choices, especially "for boys." A truly noble ending could have been furnished him from this side of the Atlantic in Mr. Woodberry's Gibraltar sonnets.

'American Football,' by Walter Camp (Harpers), is easily the first treatise on that now popular game. It is not only eminently readable, even to the tyro, but it contains suggestions based on such profound experience in the science of football that no captain or coach of any first-rate team can afford to miss the consideration of them. No one can read Mr. Camp's chapters on the historical evolution of the present American game without in a certain measure appreciating its present semi-military character, that makes its matches at once so difficult to understand and so thrilling to witness. Mr. Camp has written not only wholly without bias, but without giving himself the least credit for the present perfection of the game, though this is almost entirely due to his theoretical grasp of the possibilities and limits of football and he has at the same time made the "Yale game" famous above all others for subtle and unlooked-for strategy. The book is fully illustrated with photogravures of the most famous players of Yale, Harvard, and Princeton, who are an exceptionally fine-looking group of young men.

'A Summer in Kieff' (London: Ward & Downey), by Isabel Morris, is a fresh and lively description of a visit to a city in southwestern Russia. An attractive picture is drawn of the new town, with its "magnificent buildings, churches with Moorish domes splendidly gilt, mansions tastefully designed, universities, clubs and hotels beautiful in architecture, but all profiting by their natural setting in every shade of green, and intersected by acre on acre of gardens." Especially interesting is the account of the famous Petcherek Monastery, the Mecca of the Russian Church, with its singular catacombs and its rarely shown treasury, wherein are cloths studded with most precious diamonds; crosses, golden cups, and crowns, one of which contains five and three-quarters pounds of the finest pearls. The household life of the people, their servants, markets, places of amusement, and country-houses are all treated in an entertaining way. The book would have had a greater value if the trivial chapters relating to the author's journey to and from Kieff had been omitted.

Le Français, founded and edited with exceptional taste and skill by the late M. Jules Lévy of Boston, was published for the five years 1880–'85. Mrs. Lévy, whose address is Lexington, Mass., has a few sets and odd volumes to dispose of, and they are still perfectly available for self-instruction or for use in schools or in study circles. We have never met with any periodical so good for this purpose.

The third Year Book of the Brooklyn Institute has lately been issued, giving, among other things, a brief history of the Institute and an account of the work for 1890–'91. The membership now reaches about 1,500; 310 lectures were given, with a total attendance of about 56,000 persons, and all departments exhibited a healthy growth. The Institute will hereafter be known as the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. Although it is nowhere clearly stated, we understand that an account of the conditions of membership, and a list of the extended series of lectures on a large variety of subjects as arranged for the coming winter, may be obtained by addressing the Secretary.

The October Harvard University *Bulletin* contains Mr. Tillinghast's most recent "Harvard Necrology," which takes account not only of deaths of the current year, but of such as have not heretofore been recorded. In this instance it fixes for the first time the date of death of a member of the class of 1653! In the same number Dr. Charles Gross gives a classified list of books relating to British Municipal History—a selection from his bibliography, comprising nearly 4,000 titles, now almost ready for the press.

Prof. Skeat reports, in the *Athenæum* of October 24, his discovery of the source of Chaucer's translation of Boethius. The problem has been to trace the explanatory sentences and glosses with which the translation abounds; and, acting on a hint of Prof. Ten Brink's, and the English text of a MS. contained in the Cambridge University Library, already printed by Dr. Furnivall, Prof. Skeat ran down a Latin text which contains side-notes and interlinear glosses wherein is revealed "the whole of Chaucer's sources of information as to this treatise" ('De Consolatione Philosophiæ'). He gives two or three convincing specimens of the way Chaucer used both text and scholia, and concludes that, though the manuscript "cannot possibly be the very MS. which Chaucer used" (because his own translation is intercalated with the Latin text, chapter by chapter), "it is clearly a careful *copy* of it, containing all the same explanations. Only Chaucer himself, or some one keenly interested in his work, would have ordered this to be done. We here have, practically, the authentic copy, original and translation, notes and all."

Joseph Thomson, the well-known African traveller, has just returned to England, having been engaged during the last eighteen months in exploring the plateau between Lakes Nyassa and Bangweolo, in the interests of the British South African Company. He reports very favorably upon its great agricultural value and fitness for European colonization, though this he believes to be out of the question at present. By his observations he was able to correct some errors on recent maps in the situation of Lake Bangweolo, the scene of Dr. Livingstone's death. This he found to be simply a shallow backwater of the Chambesi, the source of the Congo, and to vary greatly in extent according to the season of the year. He gives an enthusiastic account of the condition of Blantyre in the Shiré Highlands, to the south of Lake Nyassa, the headquarters both of the Scotch missions and the trading company now merged in the South African Company. A large area is devoted to the cultivation of coffee, which commands the highest price in Mincing Lane, while successful experiments have been made in raising tea, sugar, tobacco, and other crops. Much attention is paid to the industrial education of the natives, who come from great distances to seek employment upon the plantations.

—A valuable contribution to political science is made by Prof. F. M. Taylor of Albion College in his Doctor's thesis entitled 'The Right of the State to be.' The problem considered by Prof. Taylor is the theoretical justification for the use of force by one or more human beings in controlling the acts of others. He plants himself firmly on the solid ground that the central conception in all ethical, political, and social philosophy is the concrete individual person. All good is measured ultimately by reference to this standard. The right of the individual to free self-determination being original, primordial, and essential, every act limiting this right demands special justification. The State is not a metaphysically necessary social entity, nor a natural organism, nor an independent person, but a group of human beings existing in certain relations to one another. There is no State-consciousness, no "group-psychology," but only the psychology of individuals as determined by their relations to the group. At the same time, there is a jural order which is absolute in the sense of not being relative to the opinion or will of any thinking subject. The solution reached by Prof. Taylor involves the principle that to every person belongs the prerogative of rule, and that among a number of persons the prerogative of final authority belongs to the fittest. As persons acting collectively are better fitted to exercise authority than isolated individuals, the right of the State is established. We cannot here undertake to criticise

this solution, but must content ourselves with saying that it is developed with great ability, and that it is preceded by an admirable examination of the other theories that have been propounded. We have no hesitation in advising all students of political science to possess themselves of this essay, which may be had for twenty-five cents at Schoenhof's in Boston, or of J. Sheehan, at Ann Arbor, or E. W. Griffin, at Albion, Mich.

—In this connection we may call attention to an essay on the Law of Nature by the same writer, which has been reprinted from the April number of the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, and may be had from the dealers named above. This essay is complementary to that just noticed, and is marked by equally careful scholarship as well as by more literary finish. Prof. Taylor comments upon the disrepute into which the *jus naturæ* has fallen in these latter days, remarking that "when one reminds himself that for nearly twenty-two centuries this doctrine had practically universal acceptance, that it was the creed of Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, Marcus Aurelius, Gaius, Augustine, Aquinas, Grotius, Hooker, Locke, and Kant, its present forlorn state is certainly somewhat noteworthy." Even reformers, who in every other epoch have appealed from the iniquitous law of man to the righteous law of nature, now insist that the State is the only source of right. "An unsympathetic observer might be tempted to remark that, so long as there remained anything of the old order to demolish, the reformer very piously appealed to eternal right against the artificial wrongs of that order; but when he has disposed of the last vestige, has perfectly cleared the ground for himself, then he promptly casts aside the conception of an order which claims ultimate supremacy, lest it should set some limit to the exercise of his own sweet will in the proposed reorganization of society." Against this prevalent tendency Prof. Taylor argues with great power that the concept of natural law is indispensable, that it is reconcilable with both intuitional and utilitarian ethics, and that the name itself is on the whole the best that can be employed. His exposure of the principal misconceptions and misrepresentations of the doctrine is clear and vigorous. Prof. Taylor would do well to work over the matter of these two essays into a volume. Such a work would constitute a most important contribution to political science, and for many reasons the views for which he contends ought to receive a formal statement in this country, such as we are convinced he is qualified to give them.

—In the report on the Canadian Archives for 1890, prepared by Douglas Brymner, is to be found much of interest to students of American history. The internal government of Canada from the peace of 1763 to the Revolution was of great importance to the colonies to the south of that province, and the Quebec Act of 1774 was one of the strongest factors in producing a revolt against the tyranny of the mother country. The formation of a constitution for the province after 1783 was of less moment to the United States at the time, but has had a far-reaching effect since. The efforts to develop the fur trade, the retention of the posts after 1783, and the preliminaries to the canal system of Canada, are among the other subjects treated. Mr. Brymner's strongest claim to our commendation is the publication of the despatches sent to Lord Dorchester by George Beckwith, the confidential agent of the British in the United States from 1787 to 1792. Beckwith had been in charge of the "secret intelligence" of the British Army during the Revolution, and was thus well fitted for the delicate mission now intrusted to him. The suspicion, on the part of the executive of the United States, of bad faith in the English made negotiation difficult. What Mr. Brymner prints, taken in connection with what is to be found in Hamilton's and Jefferson's writings, gives both sides of this informal mission, and shows the intimacies the agent formed with members of the Executive and of Congress. Beckwith's despatches are curious and interesting.

—The *Figaro* of October 24 has an article upon the emoluments of an Academician which may be read with amusement as well as with a certain interest. Each of the Forty Immortals, it appears, receives a salary of 1,200 francs a year. It makes no difference to how many of the Academies one belongs, he gets but one salary. M. Pasteur or M. Duruy receives the same *traitement* as M. Pierre Loti. The Perpetual Secretaries, however, have a slightly better chance to accumulate wealth. They have 6,000 francs a year, and some of them have lodgings also. Besides these running salaries there is a payment for attendance at each meeting, and this is arranged in a very curious fashion. *Jetons de présence* are given to each member who is in attendance and who signs the record of the day. These jetons have no fixed value, but represent that portion of 200 francs which would be expressed by a fraction having 200 for its denominator, and for its numerator the number of Academicians who were present at the séance. In other words, 200 francs is divided equally at each meeting among those who attend. If all are present, they have five francs each; if one only, he has 200. But it is not within the memory of man that only one member has appeared at a meeting. Once, however, during the war of 1870, only three were present. On an average, Academicians receive in these attendance fees not more than two or three hundred francs a year; and, in all, not more than fifteen hundred. The Academy makes no great figure in the budget.

—'Rapports inédits du Lieutenant-Général de Police René d'Argenson (1697-1715)' (Paris: Plon) is a valuable contribution to the social, political, and religious history of France during the last eighteen years of the reign of Louis XIV., and throws additional and by no means favorable light on the system of government pursued by the Grand Monarch. What we now regard as the chief functions of the police, namely, public security and the protection of life and property, was deemed by d'Argenson and his *mouchards* a matter of secondary importance. His official reports to the Minister, Count Pontchartrain, which Paul Cottin has published in full for the first time, with annotations and an admirable historical introduction, show that he was far less zealous in preventing and punishing crime than in persecuting heresy, and in promoting marriages by which the property of wealthy Protestants could be inherited by Catholics. In order to accomplish this purpose, the most arbitrary measures were adopted, innocent persons were arrested and incarcerated, their estates confiscated, and their children taken away to be educated in cloisters. If a Protestant offered his house for sale, he was immediately suspected of a desire to emigrate; a detective was commissioned to dog his steps and apprehend him in case he should attempt to leave the country. Another very important duty of the police was to watch over public morals, and especially to hush up scandals affecting the reputation of the clergy and the monastic orders. In this capacity D'Argenson was an ardent and energetic defender of the faith, but is forced to confess that many of the cloisters are "séminaires de débauche." Dissolute abbés and nuns of noble birth were the most difficult subjects he had to deal with. The first and most essential point to be considered in any case of crime was the rank of the criminal. Woe to an evil-doer of the bourgeoisie, especially if he added to his transgression the sin of heresy.

—Prof. Hoskins sends us a rejoinder on *vis viva* too long and irrelevant to print, nor is the discussion, by its nature, exactly suited to our columns. Instead of showing how he could maintain that growth is not an irreversible process in the sense in which the action of viscosity is irreversible, he holds that an irreversible process does not violate the law of *vis viva*. But an irreversible process is such that if the final velocities have their signs reversed, the equations of motion will not be satisfied by the movement of all the particles back over their previous paths with the same (reversed) velocities. Now the equations will be so satisfied unless the forces are changed by this reversal of the velocities—that is, unless they depend on the velocities. Further, if the accelerations depend on the velocities, it is easily shown that the *vis viva* cannot always be the same in the same configuration, and thus the equation of *vis viva* is violated. Therefore growth, so far as it is an irreversible process, violates this principle. It is true that the kinetical theory explains not only irreversible processes (for which it was needed), but also reversible ones (which is supererogatory). But our correspondent is surely mistaken in saying that a similar apparent violation of the law of *vis viva* admits of any acceptable explanation not based on probabilities. Friction, viscosity, diffusion, conduction, in all states of matter must be so explained.

HISTORY OF THE TITLE-PAGE.

Last Words on the History of the Title-Page; with Notes on some Colophons, and Twenty-seven Facsimiles of Title-Pages. By Andrew Pollard. London: John C. Nimmo. 1891. Royal 4to, pp. 39.

THIS entertaining book is the expansion, with new matter and illustrations, of papers previously published in the *Century-Guild Hobby-Horse* and the *Universal Review*. Its illustrations of the first substitutes for printed title-pages, as they appear in the colophons or certificates of the illuminators who completed the work of the printers, are enough to explain this feature of the usage of book-makers in the fourteenth century. The earliest colophons in printed books were made not by their printers, but by their illuminators. Our surest clues to the origin of the three early Bibles (the thirty-six-line, the forty-two-line, and Eggestein's) are furnished by the rubricators who certified in the last leaf of each book that they had completed their work on a certain date. The modesty of the printer in declining to put his name on his book may be explained by the hypothesis that the impersonality of the copyist or maker of the text was already an established usage. The copyist of the manuscript was a clerk or a

drudge; the illuminator was the artist who alone had a right to announce his name and magnify his office. Consequently, the printer meekly followed in the path laid down by the copyist, and began the work as he did, without title-page or preface. Nor does it appear that the reader or buyer of the book needed a title-page. He could identify at a glance the few books he owned or read. Why should he demand that they be named or labelled? A separate leaf of paper for a title-page would have been a waste of material; the advertisement or personal explanation of the printer an impertinence. He wanted the text, and that only.

The printer's period of self-effacement was brief. Even before 1470, printers began to abound in the larger cities; there were rival editions of the same book, and their printers were often at variance. To get and keep the credit that was his rightful due, each printer put his name and device on his books. To recoup what he had lost by previous modesty, he asserted himself with vehemence: in poetry, and often with puns, he praised the greater accuracy of his texts and the superior beauty of his types and paper; he sneered at the scandalous workmanship of his rivals. It was soon found that the compact and unobtrusive colophon at the end of the book did not arrest the attention of the careless observer. Some printers transferred it from the last to the first leaf of the book, where it would certainly be noted, but its form was not changed. It remained, as before, a solid paragraph in small types without display.

The first title-page proper, on a separate page, bears the imprint of Ratdolt, Venice, 1476, of which Mr. Pollard gives a good illustration. This title is enclosed in an outline border; it has a red initial and a red imprint, but not one line is in capital letters. Its simplicity and beauty should have commended it to his rivals, but they were slow to imitate this model. Title-pages on separate leaves were not common before 1520, but the decorative border, with its typical illustrations, was eagerly adopted, for this was a time-honored fashion of the early illuminators. Following the practice also of the block-book printers, the borders and initials were largely in outline, so that the buyer of the book could paint them in bright colors. These outline borders and white-centred initials mark the downfall of the professional illuminator. After 1500 he disappears, and the engraver on wood takes his place. In this field the Italian engravers were undisputed masters, and Mr. Pollard does no more than justice in giving them the greatest praise.

The simple Italian style was transplanted and successfully practised in Paris by Geoffrey Tory, but French engravers had already developed a style of their own, largely based on monastic patterns, as may be seen in the borders of their 'Books of Hours,' which did not need further development by color. The French style leaned to strong contrasts of black and white, or to closer engraving on cribbled backgrounds. The bold devices of Kerver, Eustace, Levet and Vostre must have severely taxed the weak hand-press of this period. Judged by modern standards, the first pages of the French printers were not title-pages, for at least one-half (and often three-fourths) of the page was given up to the device of the printer, who was more intent on showing his own name and advertising his office than he was in defining the book or the name of its author.

The simplicity, or, as some may call it, the boldness of the modern title began with Aldus Manutius of Venice. In his 'Statius' of 1501, we find the device of the dolphin and anchor alone on a separate leaf, the title-page in plain capitals on the following leaf. Then comes a preface on a separate page. The work ends with the list of signatures and the imprint on the last leaf. This separation of the different parts of the book seems to have been promptly imitated by many printers of classic texts in Lyons and Paris. The titles of Robert Stephens of Paris had a small device on the title page, but in their simplicity and freedom from bold display his titles are thoroughly Aldine as to style.

The French printers of romances never adopted this plain style. To catch the eye of a possible buyer, it was necessary to make use of a striking design on the first page. A huge sprawling initial, decorated with grotesque heads, was a favorite device. Bits of engraved border, often of the most incongruous description, were put about the trade-mark of the printer, and printed in flaring red ink. Printers who had no devices made their title-pages noticeable by arranging the types of their titles in a fantastic form, as of an inverted pyramid, of a cross, and sometimes of a coffin or a goblet. Before 1550 the lines that separated books of study from books of amusement or of devotion were fairly drawn. The practised buyer at a glance could discern the frivolous from the classic or the religious.

Early French and Italian titles have received adequate treatment from Mr. Pollard. Nor have the earlier English titles been neglected, although they have few noticeable features. Much more might have been written by him concerning the grandiose titles of the early Spanish printers, and the forbidding solemnity of the old German black-letter titles, almost unreadable through their gloominess and excess of flourish. It is a disappointment to note the neglect to mention titles in engraved architectural framework, which became so common in Flemish, Spanish, and English books of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The noble pictorial titles of Christopher Plantin, many of which were designed and engraved on copper by artists of renown, deserved more than a passing notice. Nor was the English title of the sixteenth century altogether undeserving of illustration. Cranmer's 'Great Bible' of 1540 and the 'Arcadia' of 1598 show titles that distinctly mark a development of typography. Here it may be said that English engraving on wood during this and a later period has been unjustly depreciated. It was not of a high order, but it compares favorably with that then done on the Continent. It needed, what it did not get, more skill in presswork to show the merit of engraved titles that are now hopelessly muddled with excess of dirty ink.

For the typographic titles of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Mr. Pollard has a most justifiable dislike. The graceful borders, the bold initials, the elaborate devices were then out of fashion. Artists had properly refused to draw on wood designs that were sure to be butchered by incompetent engravers or pressmen. If the printer of that time wanted a good illustration for a title, he must have it done by the copper-plate process. If he attempted wood, he regretted the venture, as any one may readily see who examines any of the monotonous and spiritless woodcuts that were then used by French, German, and English printers. The hideous basket of flowers was a stock device among all. The title-page entirely in type, or with a very small device added, marks a new feature of development. It has been shown how the illuminator had suppressed the printer; the engraver on wood, the illuminator; the publisher, the engraver on wood. Now came the turn of the author, who claimed and got at least three-fourths of the title-page, and sent the publisher and his imprint down to the foot. The change so made was proper enough, but the manner in which the title-page was composed was often absurd. To make up for the blackness of the excluded woodcuts, the printer selected his biggest capital letters, or the boldest black-letter, for one or more of the lines of display. If the word or words so selected would not come in the line, he divided them without remorse. For this practice he had high authority. In many famous early books one may see words of display chopped, mangled, and dislocated, apparently with serenest composure. For example, the first half of the word Commentaries may appear in capitals one-half inch high, and the other half in minuscules not one-eighth inch high. As the titles of the seventeenth century were usually prolix, this treatment made them look like handbills or posters.

In claiming the title-page as his own, the author usually undertook to assign to each line its relative degree of prominence. Not clearly understanding the inflexibility of types, he assigned too many letters to one line and too few to another. These orders compelled the printer to use many sizes of types. Mr. Pollard is in error in thinking that the resulting confusion was the consequence of the printer's desire to show the variety of his stock. It really came from the poverty of his stock. He did not have, nor did the type-founder make, sizes enough to meet the author's notions of a nicely graduated display of words. The author pitched his tune too high. The printer did his best with insufficient supply, spacing out the short lines with wide blanks, huddling the words that were too long in types that were too small, and filling up unsightly gaps with ruled lines. The average title-page of the eighteenth century, whether made by Didot or Baskerville, or any printer of minor importance, is always artificially arranged without sense or reason, and is usually a monument of bad taste.

Nor was much improvement made in the titles of books printed during the first quarter of this century. To English printers must be given the credit of the earliest tasteful composition of titles in letters of small size. They were the first to lower the scale of poster-like display, and to arrange the distinct clauses of a title in separate lines. Yet this improved style was often pushed to its extreme. A full or complex title was divided and subdivided in so-called "display-lines" and "catch-lines." When the display-lines were weak, the catch-lines were so small as to be almost unreadable, and the general effect was that of feebleness. French printers have always clung to big types for title displays. They evaded the difficulties of inflexible type by their introduction of condensed capitals, which allowed the use of more letters in one line. The impropriety of using types that are pinched with those that are of regular proportion, does not seem to be perceived.

Pickering of London seems to have been the first to apply a little common sense to the selection of types for titles. In his later years he rejected all forms of condensed letter, and set his titles in plain types of established proportion. He discarded the arbitrary rules of the printers of his time, and the equally mischievous notions of authors as to the relative prominence of lines, and set his titles as he believed Aldus and Stephens would have set them

if they had had modern materials. Robert Clarke of Edinburgh and Houghton of Boston show, though not by the same methods, equally praiseworthy attempts at the simple and direct method of composing book-titles. They are exceptions. The book-title of the average printer of to-day, whether he is in England, France, or America, is usually the worst page in the book as to composition. Some of them are as disgraceful as those of the seventeenth century. Our modern printer works in self-imposed fetters in the difficult path laid out for him by the critical author or publisher. This line must be large, and that small; this long, that short. Here must be italic, there black-letter. The meaning of the author is subordinated to stiff typographical rules that serve no good purpose. It follows that the title of the modern book is, as a rule, unsatisfactory to all concerned. It seems to be made not to help the reader, but to show the craft of the compositor.

Titles would be simpler, more satisfactory to the reader, and a real grace to their texts, if there were a proper supply of suitable types. Although type-founders' specimen books are filled with a wonderful variety of ornamental letter, there is no type-founder, either here or abroad, who makes a carefully graded series of Roman capitals of harmonious face. There are only two or three faces that approach completeness; the best show serious gaps. It is largely for the want of these needed sizes that our book-titles are so imperfect. Something, too, needs to be said about the quality of these title types. Following the French fashion, all our founders make title types of thin face, sharp hair-line, and feeble effect. Even the reproduced old-style faces are emasculated with razor-edged lines. The strong, virile types of the old printers are to be found only in old books. Mr. William Morris of London had good reason for rejecting all the modern faces. For two of his books he had new types made, after the models of the early Italian printers, and these seem to be the only text types that have been made for the convenience of the reader, and not for the glorification of the type-founder.

NORTON'S TRANSLATION OF DANTE.—II.

The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. I. Hell. Translated by Charles Eliot Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THE characteristics apparent in the Francesca fragment pervade Mr. Norton's work from the first page to the last. We have applied to it two sorts of tests: we have read many of its cantos line by line with the Italian in order to judge its literalness, and we have read other cantos freely, as we should any new work, with our mind fixed on the story and the style, in order to get its literary quality. In both cases the result has been most satisfactory; the translation is not only exact, it is literature. We can recall no other work of similar importance in which the translator has been equally successful in excluding all paraphrases and all words which had no correspondence with the original. We used to think that Dr. John A. Carlyle's version of the 'Inferno' was a marvel of exactness and lucidity; but a comparison of this version with Mr. Norton's shows that the latter is invariably more concise and more exact, and not less lucid. Mr. Norton has, besides, what Dr. Carlyle had not—style, that quality which gives distinction to single sentences, cements one sentence to the next, rounds out the paragraph to its full proportion, and makes each canto harmonious and symmetrical. Dr. Carlyle often chooses words of singular strength and picturesqueness, and in those cases where he has not been able to improve upon them Mr. Norton has retained them, as, for instance, "clucking voice," for "voce chioccia" (vii, 2); but in the construction of his sentences Dr. Carlyle does not sustain the excellence of his choice of words. For an example, let us take the description of Geryon's descent, with Dante and Virgil on his back, to the Eighth Circle (xvii, 100–105):

"As the bark goes from its station backward, backward, so the monster took himself from thence; and when he felt himself quite loose, there where his breast had been he turned his tail, and stretching moved it, like an eel, and with his paws gathered the air to him."

This is Dr. Carlyle's rendering of one of Dante's most compressed yet very vivid descriptions. Mr. Norton's is as follows:

"As the little vessel goeth from its place, backward, backward, so he thence withdrew; and when he felt himself quite at play, he turned his tail to where his breast had been, and moved it, stretched out like an eel, and with his paws gathered the air to himself."

This excels the other not less in literalness than in style. It is, of course, impossible to point out within the space allotted to a review many of the felicities of expression; we therefore limit ourselves to mentioning a few, each of which, however, will be found to be typical of the way in which Mr. Norton has overcome difficulties of different kinds. What could be better than "Ivy was never so *bearded* to a tree," for "Ellera *abbarbicata* mai non fue Ad alber" (xxv, 58-59)? Longfellow has "Ivy was never fastened by its barbs," and Dr. Carlyle contents himself with the epithet "rooted," whereas "bearded" gives the definite picture of the original. Admirable is the phrase "the brief *jest* of the goods that are committed unto Fortune" (vii, 61); admirable, too, this other (xxx, 91-92), "the two poor wretches that are smoking like a wet hand in winter." In all the 'Inferno' there is perhaps no more complicated passage than that in which Dante describes how a serpent fixed itself on the body of Agnel Brunelleschi, how the man and the reptile were merged in one, and how finally they separated, each being metamorphosed into the other's form. The passage (xxv, 50-141) is much too long to quote, but those who would see how Mr. Norton surpasses previous translators would do well to read it carefully. In the following well-known simile he has triumphed over the difficulties of an unusually long sentence, and he has chosen words most fit:

"As in the Arsenal of the Venetians, in winter, the sticky pitch for smearing their unsound vessels is boiling, because they cannot go to sea, and, instead thereof, one builds him a new bark, and one caulks the sides of that which hath made many a voyage; one hammers at the prow, and one at the stern; another makes oars, and another twists the cordage; and one the foresail and the mainsail patches—so, not by fire, but by divine art, a thick pitch was boiling there below, which belimed the bank on every side." (xxi, 7-18.)

In the Italian, with its inflected endings, it is comparatively easy to follow the meaning of a long passage like this, but to render it clearly in English—where endings and genders are less clearly marked, and where pronouns have to follow their substantives more closely, if ambiguity is to be avoided—is a noteworthy feat. We cannot too highly commend the entire version of the twenty-second canto for its vividness, ease, and vigor; and Count Ugolino's story, in the thirty-third, is equally fine in a different way. Dante invariably chooses words appropriate to the theme; like the Greeks, he intends that each episode shall be so expressed as to produce one predominant effect on the reader—thus, Francesca speaks in another key from Ugolino's. In this respect, also, Mr. Norton has been more successful than his predecessors; the modulations in language of the original are reflected in his translation.

We have marked a few words which we think might be improved, although we are aware that where it is a question of taste rather than of exactness, opinions must necessarily differ. In prose, we prefer *between* to *'tween* (i, 105). *Silvestro* (ii, 142) doubtless means by implication *savage*, but would it not be better to translate literally, and allow the reader to infer what connotation he might choose? *Dire* for *duro* (iii, 12) is another case in which the generic word of the original has been limited to a specific, derived meaning; *hard* exactly represents *duro*, and is preferable to *dire*. *Everything is confessed* (v, 8) is a paraphrase of *tutta si confessa;* here *tutta*, of course, refers to the *anima* in the preceding line—the meaning being that "the *whole soul* confesses itself." *Perso* (v, 89) is translated *lurid*, but further on (vii, 103) we have *perse*, a legitimate old English form. *Pluto* is translated *Pluto* (vi, 115, vii, 2), instead of *Plutus*. We are aware that this word has caused much discussion, but since *Plutone* is the regular Italian form of *Pluto*, and *Pluto* of *Plutus*, it seems best to observe the distinction, and not to imply, as some critics have implied, that Dante confounded the two. *Sucide* (viii, 10) carries with it an idea of filthiness, and so is hardly represented by *turbid*. *Stipa* (xi, 3) means rather 'a multitude huddled together' than the *pen* in which they are. *Opizzo* (xii, 111) should be *Obizzo*, and *Bergomasques* (xx, 71) should be *Bergamasques*. On p. 65, note 2, occurs the form *Aretians*, instead of *Aretines*, used elsewhere. *Lembo* (xv, 24) is *hem*, and can figuratively only be rendered *skirt*. *Smorte* (xvii, 86) means the opposite of *livid;* it is correctly translated *pallid* in iv, 14, and xxx, 25. *Annegava* (xix, 20) should be not *stifling* but *drowning*. *Vêr* (xxxi, 70) should be *towards* instead of *to;* a slight difference, perhaps, yet one which Dante evidently intended. The Carisenda tower is the shorter, not the taller, of the two leaning towers at Bologna (p. 173, note 3). Would it not be well to translate *babbo* (xxxii, 9), and to omit *the* before *Caprara* (xxxiii, 82), the English form of which, by the way, is usually the same as the Italian, *Capraja?*

It will be observed that most of the changes suggested make for greater literalness. That Dante can almost always be best represented by a literal rather than by a free version, that his words should be taken in their primary and not in their figurative sense, we have sufficiently illustrated by the quotations above. Mr. Norton never falls into the easy vice of translators who get round a difficulty by manufacturing unidiomatic compound words. His notes are few and brief, but, on the whole, sufficient. Reticence among Dante annotators is so rare that it deserves to be specially commended. The reader of this version will look in vain for any discussion of the many doubtful passages; he will not be bothered with a summary of the views of those critics who insist that the line, "Poscia, più che'l dolor, potè il digiuno," implies that Count Ugolino ate his sons (xxxiii, 75), or with the wasted diligence of other grubbers who think that they have discovered in Arabic or in Syriac a meaning for Nimrod's gibberish (xxxi, 67), which Dante expressly states is unintelligible.

Mr. Norton wisely restricts his explanations to the needs of the average person who takes up the 'Divine Comedy' for the first time and wishes to know what Dante has to say, regardless of the philological and antiquarian puzzles which the text has furnished. The arrangement of paragraphs, not less than the punctuation in the translation, will be of further assistance, nor should we omit to call attention to the preface, in which Mr. Norton states concisely the general purpose of Dante's epic. To the list of works to be consulted we would add Carlyle's lecture on the "Hero as Poet."

In conclusion, we repeat that this is altogether the best English translation of the 'Inferno,' outranking Dr. Carlyle's version as easily as that outranks all the metrical versions. Other translators will doubtless strive to transmute the Italian *terza rima* into English verse—since to strive after the unattainable is a deep-rooted instinct in human nature—but we believe that this translation of Mr. Norton's will become the classic and favorite translation. How great a service he has rendered in thus placing the 'Divine Comedy' within reach of English readers, we may endeavor to point out when we speak of the other canticles.

Thomas Sopwith. By Benjamin Ward Richardson. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891. Pp. 400.

THE subject of this memoir was born in 1803 and died in 1879. From 1822 until the year of his death he kept an elaborate diary contained in one hundred and sixty-eight small and three large volumes, and, under the supervision of Dr. Richardson, this vast mass of material has been reduced to a moderate-sized volume. In these days of the making of many books and of consequent weariness of the flesh, we should have felt indebted to the Doctor if he had still further reduced the size of the book; if he had not always referred to Weber's opera as "Der Frieschütz"; if he had not misquoted Dryden's line as "Great genius is to madness close allied"; if he had omitted such an absurd heading as "The Ascent of Chamounix"; and if he had in many other respects used what lawyers call "due diligence."

Although not known to fame outside of a limited circle, Thomas Sopwith was, in some ways, a remarkable man. He was a musician, an architect, a distinguished engineer, connected with important mines and with some of the early railroads; and in the course of a long and active life he was brought in contact with the Stephensons, with Faraday, and with a great many other famous people. Every day for fifty-seven years he wrote down his impressions of people and places, together with reflections on a great variety of subjects. Judging from the specimens here given, his impressions are often interesting, but his reflections are of the trite and commonplace character peculiar to people who habitually overestimate the originality of their ideas.

In 1828, during a visit to Scotland, he called on "Christopher North," whom he describes as "carelessly dressed in a large and coarse great coat and waistcoat, no neckcloth to a shirt seemingly worn two or three days, and a beard neglected for the same period." Dress seems to have made considerable impression on Mr. Sopwith, for he describes William IV., whom he saw in the chapel at Windsor in 1833, as dressed in a very shabby coat, and Queen Adelaide sitting by him, "plainly dressed in a green hat and a white feather, blue sleeves and a white gown"—which cannot be considered an expert account of such important matters, but shows an intelligent interest. Owing to the nature of his business, he was a great traveller, and he gives a multitude of figures showing that the cost of travelling by coach was twelve cents a mile, and the average speed 8.15 miles per hour. In January, 1834, he spent sixty-four hours in travelling between Newcastle and the Forest of Dean mines, eighty-two hours in resting or detentions, and only five hours in the business of the mines which necessitated the journeys. In 1838 he visited Ireland, and came to the conclusion that the chief faults of the people were improvidence and love of gayety among the rich, and improvidence and love of whiskey among the poor. He found, as he had expected to find, much misery, and he says: "Imagination, however fertile, will never picture the sad and horrible and gloomy aspect of these dwellings of the Irish poor." He was a great admirer of Dr. Buckland, and tells a story of his riding towards London with a friend on a very dark night and losing his way. The Doctor dismounted, and, taking up a handful of earth, smelt it. "Uxbridge," he called to his friend, his geological nose having enabled him to hit the precise locality. A better-known story of the Doctor is his brief but comprehensive criticism of Mrs. Probyn's picture of the Queen, "Deplorably like." Mr. Sopwith corresponded with Mrs. Somerville, and tells of her introduction to Laplace, who greeted her as the *second* most learned lady in the world. "I give the first place," said he, "to Mrs. Grieg." It was under this name—that of her first husband—that she had published her translation of Laplace's 'Mechanism of the Heavens.' When this wonderful old lady was in her ninety-third year, she wrote as follows: "I am quite deaf but see well, and my memory is only good in mathematics, so I amuse myself solving problems by the method of quaternions in the morning, and Martha beats me unmercifully at bézique in the evening."

Much has been written about the mechanical inventions and improvements of the first half of the present century, but we seldom hear of the multitude of more or less ingenious schemes which came to nothing. Mr. Sopwith had a great reputation for caution as well as for engineering skill, but we find him in 1840 warmly approving a plan for an atmospheric railway, of which nothing more has been heard from that day to this. In this same year, 1840, there were in use on the Gloucester and Cheltenham Railway twice as many American as English engines, although the first cost of the former, including duty, was somewhat higher. It is to be presumed, therefore, that the American engine of those days was more efficient than the English, and this is all the more interesting because some recent experiments go to prove that the superiority is still maintained.

Mr. Sopwith was one of those fortunate individuals whose daily occupations are entirely congenial to their tastes. He was successful, in the ordinary acceptation of the term, his health was excellent, and he seems to have been equally happy with the three ladies who successively assumed his name and looked after his household. Perhaps if he had been less uniformly fortunate, the story of his life would have been more interesting. He was, no doubt, a most estimable and well-informed person, and it may be that his friends fancied that, by publishing this book, they would save him from the fate of Mr. John Gray, as described in that saddest of epitaphs:

> "Poor John Gray, here he lies,
> Nobody weeps, and nobody sighs.
> Where he's gone, and how he fares,
> Nobody knows and nobody cares!"

The writing of diaries for domestic consumption is a harmless, and possibly a useful, occupation, but their publication, even in condensed form, is a matter for serious consideration.

Conduct as a Fine Art: The Laws of Daily Conduct, by Nicholas Paine Gilman; Character Building, by Edward Payson Jackson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

IN the fall of 1889 the American Secular Union offered a prize of $1,000 for the manual best adapted to assist teachers to instruct boys and girls in the principles of morality without at the same time "inculcating religious doctrine." Although the two essays which are bound together under the title of 'Conduct as a Fine Art,' did not exactly meet all the requirements of the competition, the prize was divided between them. Mr. Jackson's essay is put in the form of a dialogue between a certain Dr. Dix of Freetown Academy and his pupils. Naturally, a discourse on morals appearing in this guise arouses a certain expectation of dulness to come; but one has to read only a few pages before discovering that Dr. Dix's ten-minute talks are the contrary of tedious. It is the author's enthusiasm and his bright, incisive way of writing that redeem them from the common fate of the didactic conversation. Occasionally, however, the conditions of the dialogue betray him into a little stageyness; as, for example, when a boy asks the Doctor one of the standing questions about justifiable lying, and the Doctor makes his reply "[*rising, and speaking with deliberate emphasis*]" It is hard to see what there is in the circumstances that calls for the exhibition of any such restrained excitement. Not infrequently also the Doctor answers "[*coldly*]." It would be better if his depression of spirits were inferred from what he says: the effect is certainly weakened by the insertion of the explanatory parenthesis. But this is after all a minor matter.

Mr. Gilman has endeavored to develop and discuss topics which belong to practical ethics in their logical order. He consequently begins with familiar illustrations of the fact that we live under civil and natural law, in order that he may show also how there is a moral or social law to which we are equally subject. He then talks about obedience and the self-control that makes obedience possible, after which follow in their natural order chapters on Truthfulness, Justice, Work, Personal Habits, and the like.

It is the purpose of both these essays to enable teachers—and especially the more inexperienced of them—intelligently to train their pupils in practical morality. Few persons are satisfied with what is being done now in the schools, or rather what is not being done. Although conduct is three-fourths of life, many schools teach it only as such teaching is implied in the daily maintenance of order. Indeed, Professor Bain goes so far as to say: "For boys and girls above twelve we may as a rule pronounce that moral lecturing, except in actual discipline, is misplaced." By "moral lecturing" he appears to mean any formal attempt to give instruction in morals. But thoughtful teachers feel, in theory at least, that their work with their pupils would be much more effective if they could succeed in raising or completing the moral standards of school-children. The child's imperfect and one-sided sense of honor is responsible for that barrier of actual, though often unconscious, antagonism which turns many a boy's

attentive guide and instructor into his severe and watchful master. Moreover, comparatively few boys and girls realize what a teacher is for; they seemingly look upon him as a daily examiner and meter-out of rewards and punishments, and consequently as the object against which small conspiracies may be plotted. Their imagination is too weak to grasp the large idea of the school's real interests, and the need that each of its members should shape his conduct accordingly. If it were common to find schools where such a broadly intelligent spirit prevailed, children would be receiving even now the best possible moral preparation for actual life.

How much the regular teaching of morals which Mr. Gilman and Mr. Jackson urge will aid in creating the true standard and spirit, it would be difficult to say beforehand. They are wise in leaving to the individual instructor the particular way their essays are to be used. In fact, Mr. Gilman modestly limits the aim of his book to the "much-needed service of clearing the mind of the common-school teacher as to the nature and limits of the moral training which may advisably be given in the schoolroom." Undoubtedly if he had enlarged the scope of his explanations a little, he would have made his chapters more interesting and enlightening. Morals have been talked and written about to such an extent that scarcely anything can be said which has not been said before, though perhaps in a slightly different way. But there is so much to be found in sociological studies which make clear, as well as give freshness and interest to, such subjects as truthfulness and justice and honor, that it is surprising to discover merely a few references to these facts in Mr. Gilman's pages, or even in his notes. When he comes to speak of moral progress, he draws upon this unfailing source, and consequently his pages then furnish a positive diversion after some that have gone before. It is unfortunate, also, that, in writing of self-control and of habit, he says nothing about their physical basis in the structure of the nerves, which Dr. Carpenter, and more recently Prof. James, have so well brought out. As Prof. James says: "Could the young but realize how soon they will become mere walking bundles of habits, they would give more heed to their conduct while in the plastic state."

There are several comparatively unimportant statements in both essays which might easily be questioned. For example, Mr. Gilman's assertion that "representative offices should not be sought by the private citizen" implies a modesty decidedly finical, unless it be intended to arouse a feeling of contrition in the breast of the average Tammany brave. Again, if it be true in these days, why is it necessary or wise to teach children that "the husband and father is the natural head of the family"? To turn briefly to Mr. Jackson, one detects here and there a tendency to over-emphasis and exaggeration, which worried teachers sometimes permit themselves when trying to impress the mind of a dull pupil. Furthermore, when Dr. Dix inculcates fidelity by indulging in an analogy beginning with, "No, things are never unfaithful," he simply bewilders the minds of his listeners by a vicious course of reasoning. Even his alleged facts are not facts, for the "lower animate creation" is not always faithful to its duty, as every one knows who owns a hunting-dog. But such slight blemishes do not seriously mar either essay, filled as each is with true and helpful thoughts forcibly expressed. The combined work will certainly call attention to the subject, and prompt educators to a more intelligent consideration of it than has been customary.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balch, Thomas. The French in America during the War of Independence of the United States. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Bancroft, George. The Battle of Lake Erie, and Miscellaneous Papers. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Barrie, J. M. The Little Minister. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Bazan, E. P. The Swan of Vilamorta. Cassell Publishing Company. $1.
Bertrand, Prof. H. French Speaker. Harrisburg, Pa.: E. K. Meyers.
Brady, Rev. J. B. The Saengerfest Sermons. Newark, N. J.: *Advertiser* Printing House. $1.50.
Bramston, M. A Village Genius. Thomas Whittaker. 90 cents.
Byers, S. H. M. The Happy Isles, and Other Poems. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Carey, J. B. The Oddities of Short-Hand. New York: Excelsior Publishing Co.
Child, Theodore. Art and Criticism. Harper & Bros. $6.
Craddock, C. E. In the "Stranger People's" Country. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
Croly, Mrs. J. C. Thrown upon her own Resources; or, What Girls Can Do. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Danilevski, G. P. The Princess Tarakanova: A Dark Chapter of Russian History. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Debeenham, Mary H. Mistress Phil. Thomas Whittaker. 90 cents.
Drummond, Henry. The Programme of Christianity. James Pott & Co.
Edersheim, A. Jesus the Messiah. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. $3.50.
Edwards, Miss A. B. Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers. Harper & Bros. $4.
Ely, Prof. Talfourd. Olympos: Tales of the Gods of Greece and Rome. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Evelyn's Career. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Faber, Rev. F. W. The Church for the Times. Westfield, N. Y.: The Lakeside Press. 25 cents.
Farquhar, A. B., and H. Economic and Industrial Delusions. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Fernald, Rev. J. C. The New Womanhood. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Flügel, Felix. English-German and German-English Dictionary. Part II. B. Westermann & Co.
Fraser, Mrs. Alex. A Fashionable Marriage. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Friendship: Cicero, Bacon, Emerson. Chicago: Albert, Scott & Co. $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1891.

The Week.

THE action of the Republicans of the Pennsylvania Senate in dismissing on a technicality the charges of irregular conduct against the General Auditor and State Treasurer is in accordance with the fitness of things in Quay's State. The election is over, the Republican ticket has been elected by about 60,000 majority, Quay says the result at the polls was a personal "vindication" of himself, and his Republican Senators now follow his example and say it was a "vindication" of the entire party, including the State officials who allowed Bardsley to rob the State of several millions of dollars. It did not trouble these Senators at all to contradict themselves flatly in reaching their final decision. They based that decision on the ground that the Senate had no jurisdiction, yet they had already assumed jurisdiction by taking evidence in the case. Of course, they assumed it before election in order to present an appearance of sincerity in the matter. When the election had been held, and the people of the State had shown that they still "stood by" the Republican party, the Senators turned squarely about, and declared that though they had had sufficient jurisdiction in the case to permit them to take the evidence, they had no jurisdiction which would permit them to pronounce judgment upon it. They even thought at one time that they would adopt a resolution specifically vindicating one of the accused officials, but for some unaccountable reason they refrained.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia in the Newton case is the worst blow the spoilsmen have yet received. It makes unlawful and punishable not only the solicitation of money for political purposes by a Government official of other Government officials, as in the Curtis case in this city, but it makes unlawful and punishable the collection of money for political purposes, "in any manner whatsoever," by anybody from anybody, "in any room or building occupied in the discharge of official duties by any officer or employee of the United States, or in any navy-yard, fort, or arsenal." One Newton in 1888 wrote letters to Government clerks from Virginia, soliciting money to help elect Mahone. On these letters he has been indicted. To the indictment he demurred. His demurrer has been overruled and the case ordered for trial. As the facts are not disputed, he will probably be convicted, and even if he has not to go to jail, he will doubtless be fined and thoroughly warned. The decision goes so much further than that in Curtis's case that it will probably spread terror among all the "workers." They may under it, of course, attack the clerks in their boarding-houses, but this will be much more difficult and troublesome.

Senator Saxton is in the field already with proposals for amendments to the Ballot Law and Corrupt-Practices Act, and announces also that he will reintroduce his joint resolution for an amendment to the Constitution transferring disputed election cases from the Legislature to the courts for settlement. These are all most deserving reforms, and the Senator ought to receive the hearty co-operation of all friends of honest elections in his work. He says he shall favor a blanket-ballot amendment; and that while he thinks the alphabetical arrangement of candidates' names on such a ballot, as is provided in the Massachusetts law and in several others, is the best, he would be willing to accept the party-group plan of arrangement which is provided in the Indiana, Ohio, and many other laws. This is the proper spirit in which to go about the work. Opinions differ as to the relative merits of the alphabetical and party-group forms of the blanket ballot, but all authorities agree that both those forms are superior to our present system of separate party ballots and "paster" ballot. We trust that the Senator, profiting by his somewhat unfortunate experience of last year with amendments, will allow nothing to swerve him from his championship of the blanket ballot this year, and that he will accompany his amendment embodying that change with other amendments which will remove the unfair obstructions that his amendments of last year put in the way of independent nominations.

The two other proposals of Mr. Saxton are of no less importance than the Ballot Act amendments. The Corrupt-Practices Act must be amended so as to compel the committees and bosses to make itemized statements, and, in addition to this, not only should all assessments upon judiciary candidates be prohibited, but all payment of assessments by them also, under penalty of disqualification for office and some form of criminal punishment; and a maximum limit should be placed upon the expenditures which any other candidate, either by himself or his agent or any committee, can make. Two States, Colorado and Michigan, have made a corrupt-practices act, calling for sworn publication after election by candidates and committees of itemized accounts of all money received and expended, a part of their ballot-reform laws, thus recognizing the fact that the two reforms belong together in any general system of electoral reform. Other States are certain to recognize the same fact.

Massachusetts has just removed the last restriction of a money sort upon the exercise of the suffrage—at least in elections for State officers. The charter of 1691 allowed no one to vote who did not possess an estate of freehold in land to the value of 40 shillings per annum, or other estate to the value of £40. The constitution adopted during the Revolution allowed the suffrage to "every male inhabitant of twenty-one years of age and upward having a freehold estate within the commonwealth of the annual income of three pounds, or any estate of the value of sixty pounds." This restriction was abolished in 1821, but payment of a poll-tax was still required before a man could vote. Of late years, as the State has grown closer in politics, the politicians of both parties have paid poll-taxes by the thousands, until a large fund came to be requisite for this purpose in Boston. For a long time the question of abolishing this tax has been agitated, and an amendment to the Constitution for that purpose, having gone through the preliminary stages, was ratified by the voters on November 3. The Democrats have led in the movement, and expect to reap considerable advantage from the change—an expectation which seems to be justified by the bitter opposition to it which has been manifested all along by some of the shrewdest Republican managers.

Secretary Foster's letter to the American Bankers' Association last week was the most pernicious utterance on the silver question that he has yet made on that subject—which is saying a great deal. We are very sure that it did not meet the concurrence of the bankers to whom it was addressed, although most of them are members of the same political party as the Secretary. Mr. Foster took ground in favor of the present silver law, with its monthly purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver, as a good thing in itself—not as an alternative to free coinage, but as a desirable permanent national policy. At all events, he did not hint that a time would ever come when it should cease. He told the bankers present that this law had proved beneficial by furnishing a currency to take the place of the $72,000,000 of gold exported last summer. Mr. George S. Coe at the same sitting read a paper showing that the exportation of this gold was rendered necessary for the most part by the Government's purchases of silver—that is, the Government went into the market and bought nearly $70,000,000 worth of an exportable article (silver), which would otherwise have entered into our international trade balance. Consequently, we had to pay our debts to a corresponding amount with gold. In other words, Mr. Coe showed (unintentionally perhaps) that Secretary Foster had put the cart before the horse. In other particulars Mr. Coe demonstrated the extreme danger of continuing the purchase of silver on Government account.

Harper's Weekly for November 14 contains a statistical article by David A. Wells con-

cerning the amount of useless silver now held on storage by the Government, with pictorial illustrations. The amount is now $400,000,000, and it is increasing at the rate of *seven tons* per day. The amount now on hand would make a column one foot in diameter and six and one-half miles in height. The most adventurous balloonist the world has ever contained would not be able to reach the top of it. To haul this mass of silver would require 1,000 freight-cars, or 5,500 two-horse wagons, or an army of 220,000 men, each man carrying 100 pounds of it on his shoulder. The cars, the teams, and the army are all shown in the illustrations. To count all the silver dollars in the Government warehouses would take the time of one man working eight hours a day for eleven years. The patient toiler is shown in the cartoon, with visibly advancing age at the end of his labors. This is not the first time that Mr. Wells has sought to teach the principles of finance by pictorial illustrations, as in the case of 'Robinson Crusoe's Money,' where he had the coöperation of Thomas Nast. Of this book the Harpers have recently issued a new edition. It is to be hoped that it may have a new and wider circulation, since nothing better adapted to the explanation of money to the common people has ever been published in this country.

The "arithmetic men" are at work upon the Electoral College as it is likely to stand next year, in the light of the results of the recent elections. One calculation divides the electoral votes by States according as the States have been carried in the latest elections held in them. That is to say, the eleven States which held elections this year are classified according to the results of November 3. The other States are classified according to results of most recent elections. This gives the Democrats 242 electoral votes and the Republicans only 202. But this calculation does not take into account the fact that Michigan is to choose electors by Congressional districts, and that instead of the entire fourteen electoral votes of the State going to the Republicans, as the calculation contemplates, at least four of them would go to the Democratic candidate. This would make the division stand Democratic 246, Republican 198. In this estimate Indiana is classified with the Republican States and Massachusetts and Iowa with the Democratic States. If Indiana were to be changed to the Democratic column and Iowa and Massachusetts to the Republican column, the totals would be Democratic 233, Republican 211. If Massachusetts, Iowa, and Indiana are all placed in the Republican column, the totals are, Democratic 218, Republican 226. Any one who studies the various calculations judicially will be forced to the conclusion that while the odds are unmistakably in favor of the Democrats on the "face of the returns," there is nothing in the outlook which justifies the assertion that either party has a "sure thing of it."

We find in recent copies of the *Texas Farm and Ranch*, an agricultural journal published at Dallas, Texas, much amusing information concerning Gen. Dyrenforth's rain-making experiments in that State. The editor says that since these "so-called experiments were made under the supervision of the Government and paid for by the people, the people are entitled to reliable information regarding them," and this he has been endeavoring to obtain. As a result he has become convinced that all the reports of success are false, that the experiments were ridiculous failures, that clouds came up and threatened rain before any explosives were used, that some of the heavy rain claimed to have been caused by the explosions fell the day before the General had unpacked his materials, and that "it is probably true that more atmospheric concussion was made by the jack-rabbit hunters in the vicinity in one day than was caused by the combined efforts of the rain-makers." The editor offers $100 reward for proof that his reports of the experiments are not true in every essential statement, and we advise Uncle Jerry Rusk to see if he cannot win it. Of all men in the United States, he ought to be interested in demonstrating that the experiments have not been the entirely idiotic performances which all respectable authorities represent them to have been, for he is the officer of the United States Government in charge of them, and of the $12,000 spent in making them.

It is as yet too soon to obtain expressions on the Briggs case from the most significant religious quarters—the organs of Presbyterianism in the West. Meanwhile, there is food for thought in the attitude of the *Presbyterian* of Philadelphia, which says "unhesitatingly" that the action of the New York Presbytery does not "restore Prof. Briggs to the confidence of the Church," and asserts that the vote at Detroit in veto of his appointment still represents the prevailing sentiment of the denomination. A very important comment upon the case is to be found in the Cincinnati *Herald and Presbyter*, a denominational paper of great influence. It says:

> "The Church has never expected help from the Presbytery of New York in this case. . . . To the prosecution it is a Bull Run defeat, but there were battles after that, and complete victory to the nation in the end. So it will be in this case. The decision of the New York Presbytery only inspires the adherents of the action of the Detroit Assembly to greater zeal in protecting our theological seminaries from unsound instruction. . . . New York Presbytery may inscribe on its banner 'Let us have peace,' but the motto of nine-tenths of the Presbyteries will be, 'First pure, then peaceable.'"

Some allowance is no doubt to be made in such expressions for the first smart of disappointment; yet they unquestionably speak the feelings of a large section of the Presbyterian Church.

The action of the New York Presbytery on Monday appears strange enough alongside the fact that the vote of the General Assembly, approving of revision of the creed, expressly provided that no changes should be made impairing "the Reformed or Calvinistic system." With preterition out, and the salvation of all infants and moral heathen in, the original Calvinistic system is no longer recognizable. But there is no likelihood that the changes desired by the Presbytery, or any others, in fact, will be made in the Westminster Confession for a long time to come. In face of the conflicting recommendations made by the different presbyteries, the next Assembly will do nothing, it is almost certain, except to call for more light and remit the whole question to the churches again. It has been shrewdly suspected that this continuous game of battledore with revision was precisely what its opponents intended, who would be quite content to demonstrate the impossibility of agreement on a new symbol, and then use that fact as a convincing argument for retaining the old one. The entire affair, too, threatens to be complicated by the Briggs case, which may now come up next spring by direct appeal to the Assembly. Prof. Briggs could probably demand, if he chose to, the more orderly course of first appealing to the Synod, but as he has all along been eager to get a decision from the highest court, he will presumably interpose no objections.

The really serious points in the accusations made against Admiral Brown were not met by his published letter, and they are not met by his telegram from Acapulco in reply to Secretary Tracy's despatch. He has never given any reason for his steaming up to Quintero Bay in the *San Francisco* on the eve of battle. No call of duty took him there, and our naval commanders charged with the delicate mission of maintaining American neutrality and protecting American interests in a foreign country where civil war is raging, are not expected to put themselves in a most suspicious situation out of mere idle curiosity. He has never explained why he did not show the ordinary naval courtesy to the insurgent vessels in Quintero Bay, but gave them the impression that he was there as a hostile observer of their movements. Most important of all, he has never accounted for the fact that, immediately after his return to Valparaiso, a Balmaceda newspaper came out with big headlines telling of "the trustworthy news" about the insurgent forces "brought by the United States man-of-war *San Francisco*." Of what avail is it for the Admiral to say that he gave strict orders that no information should be carried ashore, in the face of this positive and as yet uncontradicted evidence that the news actually did leak from his ship somehow? Secretary Tracy's telegram of inquiry is a gratifying proof that the Administration is properly sensitive about the affair, and we hope that Admiral Brown will be subjected to a searching examination when he reaches this country. His explanations thus far do not explain.

The result of the polling in the South Moulton division of Devonshire is all the

more significant because in the southwestern shires the Liberal Unionists were in 1886 proportionately more numerous than in any other section of England, with the possible exception of Birmingham. In that year in some of the constituencies in these counties, such as the South Moulton and the Totnes divisions of Devonshire, and the Bodmin, St. Ives, and Truro divisions of Cornwall, very much more than half of the Liberal electors refused to vote for the Gladstonian candidates. In 1885, in a total vote of about 217,000, the then united Liberals had in Cornwall, Devon, Somerset, and Dorset a majority of nearly 16,000, and carried twenty-one out of the thirty-four seats. Of the twenty-one Liberals then elected, ten, or almost half, declined to support the second reading of the Home Rule Bill; and at the succeeding general election nine of these ten were again returned as Unionists, the other being defeated by a Conservative. Five of the eleven Gladstonian Liberals were beaten at the polls, the net result being that the counties which in 1885 had chosen 21 Liberals to 13 Conservatives, the next year elected 20 Conservatives, 8 Liberal Unionists, and only 6 Gladstonian Liberals. The Liberals in 1885 in the constituencies which were contested in 1885, had a majority of 13,000, and in the same constituencies in 1886 the Unionists, Conservative and Liberal, had a majority of 22,000, the total vote at the earlier election having been 162,000, and at the later about 145,000—a ratio of change equivalent to more than 250,000 votes in the State of New York. The result in the South Moulton division last Friday seems to indicate that the majority of those who were in 1886 dissentient Liberals in southwest England have become reconciled to the party programme and will support its candidates. If such shall prove to be the case, the gains the Gladstonians will make at the general election in these four counties alone will wipe out more than a third of the present Unionist majority.

The French do not feel as pleasantly towards England just now as Lord Salisbury intimated in his speech the other day at the Lord Mayor's dinner. M. Ribot, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, had occasion, some weeks ago, to discuss the question of Egypt in the Chamber, apropos of an attempt by the Anglo-Egyptian Government to submit a French apothecary at Cairo to the local police regulations. The French chargé at Cairo set up the "capitulations" with the Porte as the Suzerain of Egypt, reserving jurisdiction over all French citizens and interests to the French consuls, and the Anglo-Egyptian authorities thereupon backed down. In explaining all this to the Chamber, M. Ribot distinctly declared that France still considered Egypt a vassal of the Porte, and considered all the treaties with the Porte touching the status of French residents as entirely unaffected by the English occupation. He then went on to say that this continuance of the occupation was still deemed a grievance by France; that she still looked for its termination at the earliest possible moment, and that it constituted a cloud in the relations between France and Great Britain, in spite of the eager desire of France to make them friendly as well as peaceful. All this Lord Salisbury appears to have ignored at the Lord Mayor's banquet, and hence a considerable amount of irritation in the French press. This irritation has been prepared and fomented by the way the Tories have received Mr. Gladstone's observations touching the Egyptian occupation in his late Newcastle speech. He said in substance that Salisbury ought to get out of Egypt as soon as possible, and that its occupation was a dangerous burden. This has brought down on him a storm of Jingo abuse both from the Tories proper and from the Liberal Unionists. But the truth is that this is the doctrine which both parties held when the occupation began, as has been shown by many quotations. Occupation was to cease as soon as order was restored and Egypt was able to maintain order and protect herself from invasion on the side of the desert. Order has been restored, and the reorganized Egyptian army has thrashed the Dervishes over and over again on the southern frontier, and the question whether it is worth while to stay there at the risk of offence to France becomes more and more pressing.

This question is forcing itself on British attention all the more urgently because there is a growing feeling in England that the Suez Canal is, as a line of military communication with India, more or less of a delusion and snare. The approach to the canal would in time of war have to be protected by a great fleet; not only this, but the canal itself would have to be protected night and day by a large force, for fifty men, by sinking something in it or throwing earth into it, could make it impassable in fifty minutes. These considerations are made the more important by the great improvement which has taken place in communication with India by the Cape of Good Hope. The gain of the canal route in time over the Cape route is so small since the late improvements in steam navigation that fewer and fewer military men are disposed to claim superiority for the canal, considering the serious cost of protecting it during a war with any European Power, and especially France. In fact, the military value of canals in foreign territory must always be trifling, because it is so easy to damage them. Any injury done to a railroad is a comparatively small matter. Rails are soon put down again, and even breaches in embankments restored; but a canal well cut, or filled up at a good place, is, for practical purposes of warfare, hardly repairable.

Sir Charles Dilke, who is probably the best civilian critic of military affairs in Europe, and was a close observer of the operations of the Franco-German war, has followed the late French autumn manœuvres as a privileged guest—the one person to whom no information was denied and no place forbidden. He has published the results of his observations in the last number of the *Fortnightly* in a long article, in which he boldly declares that the French army is now the first in Europe, and that the issue of another struggle with Germany would be extremely doubtful, with the odds against the Germans. This was the impression made on nearly all the foreign officers who witnessed the manœuvres, but Sir Charles Dilke has worked out the conclusion in detail, in an extremely interesting paper. He places the French generals now in command in the very front rank of strategists, and evidently rates their capacity for handling large masses of men above that of the Germans, now that Moltke and the other paladins of the war of 1870 are gone. He restores the French infantry of the new generation to its old place under the first Napoleon as the finest fighting material the world can show, ardent, eager, intelligent, and thoroughly disciplined, and first-rate marchers. Of the artillery he speaks in praise nearly as high; but, while praising the horses and men of the cavalry, thinks it the weak point of the whole force, for want of proper leadership. The men in high commands in it are too old, cavalry leadership needing above all things bodily vigor, quick decision, and courage tinged with rashness—qualities which begin to decline after forty.

This astonishing revelation of the vitality of the French people he does not think an immediate menace to peace, but he does think that the present condition of the French army will make accidental occurrences more dangerous—that is, such as slight offences or mistakes for which an apology will be expected and refused. He thinks it was the old Emperor's knowledge of the improvement in the French military organization which made him so ready to make excuses for the Schnaebelé incident, for instance, but doubts if the present Emperor would be equally ready, as the military men on both sides are growing touchier and touchier. This is made the more serious by the passion of the young gentleman who now fills the German throne for making speeches on all sorts of subjects, in which he shows a good deal more valor than discretion. His allusion to the first Napoleon the other day as "a Corsican parvenu," besides being in bad taste, was a kind of thing of which the French would not stand many repetitions. No rôle is so dangerous for a man in any high place, and especially a man in command of a great army, as a habit of indiscriminate speech. Moreover, the Emperor evidently thinks he is Frederick the Great, and can get back a century and a half by simple proclamation. On a recent visit to Bavaria he wrote in the "Golden Book" at Munich "Suprema lex regis voluntas"—the old maxim, more tersely expressed, of the Roman lawyers, which has been used so much in historical literature in illustrating the despotism of the later Emperors. The Bavarian press is naturally indignant, and says there is no law of that sort known in Bavaria, or, in fact, in any part of Germany.

THE TRUE INWARDNESS OF THE TREATY WITH BRAZIL.

Nearly two months ago we called attention to the charge, publicly made in Brazil, that the reciprocity agreement with that country had been obtained by Mr. Blaine through a deception. He was said to have promised the Brazilian negotiators that our Government would not enter into a treaty with Spain affecting Cuban sugar, and it was alleged that, but for that promise, since broken, Brazil would not have accepted the arrangement in anything like the form actually adopted; moreover, that the Brazilian Government was indignant at the fraud practised upon its good faith, and had sent for its Minister to this country to come home and explain how he had been imposed upon. We are now in possession of information which enables us to set the whole matter in its true light.

In the first place, there is no doubt whatever that the Brazilian Government went into the reciprocity agreement upon the distinct understanding that it would be given advantages in the matter of sugar which Cuba was not to obtain. It was so stated in the hearings before the committee of Congress inquiring about the matter. Thus the *Jornal do Commercio* of October 16 expressly states that the Government met the obvious objections to the treaty, namely, that Brazil would lose her only advantage under it through the concession of similar terms to Cuba, by saying that, "in fact, the Government of the United States promised our Minister, Salvador de Mendonça, that it would not make a similar treaty with Spain." This is in line with the same paper's former declarations on the same subject, and with its assertion that four ex-members of the Brazilian Cabinet stand ready to vouch for the fact of the promise made to Mr. Mendonça by Mr. Blaine. Here, too, comes in the significant statement of the Brazilian Consul at Havana, in his letter to the *Tribune* of October 24: "The treaty with Cuba . . . had a tendency to destroy the benefits *we expected* to reap from the negotiation."

We are enabled, moreover, through information coming to us from the most authentic sources, to affirm that Mr. Blaine did, in fact, give Mr. Mendonça his "word of honor" not to negotiate a treaty with Spain affecting Cuban sugar, and that he even told him that he thought the Cubans would, in consequence, rise and seek their independence! We also have positive information that when the Brazilian Minister appeared before the committees of the Brazilian Congress investigating the question of the treaty, he could defend his conduct only by saying that Mr. Blaine had deceived him. He also said that Mr. Blaine had saved the letter of his promise by being sick and away when the President and Mr. Foster actually closed the reciprocity negotiations with Spain. And he finally said that the President had agreed to make some modifications in the Brazilian treaty, in consequence of its having been obtained under false pretences. It was to secure those modifications that Mr. Mendonça returned to this country.

There is no lack of corroborative evidence to back up these assertions. Mr. Blaine's confidential organ in this city accurately reflects the course of the whole negotiation. His first official note to the Brazilian Minister was dated November 3, 1890, and a favorable reply was received on January 31, 1891. But in the meantime, on January 3, and while the Brazilian negotiators were relying upon his pledge not to treat with Spain, Mr. Blaine wrote to the Spanish Minister to broach the matter to the Spanish Government. On January 28 the *Tribune* referred to the pending negotiation and said: "There is nothing for Cuba to do, if she is robbed of our market, but to go into bankruptcy or to *raise the flag of revolution.*" And even after the Spanish arrangement was made, the same paper expressed regret that the Spanish West Indies had not been, "like *free and independent* Brazil, dealing directly with the United States," and added, "Without reciprocity, bankruptcy and ruin was before it [Cuba], and probably *revolution and civil war* in the end." This is pretty good confirmation of what Mr. Blaine told Mr. Mendonça about his proposing to force Cuba to break with Spain.

But as soon as he had got his agreement with Brazil, thus dishonorably obtained, he began to brandish that as his most effective club to compel other nations to make similar arrangements. So the faithful *Tribune* said as soon as the success of the Brazilian negotiations was announced: "The act of Brazil puts powerful pressure upon other nations. . . . It is not difficult to understand that Brazil might soon push Cuba from the foremost place," etc. And the Brazilian Consul, in the letter before referred to, suggestively said: "I hardly see what he [Mr. Blaine] is after, unless his object was to make that treaty with Brazil facilitate his long and cherished negotiations with Spain, alias Cuba." Still further confirmation of this view of the case is to be found in the undoubted fact that Brazil has already demanded a modification of the treaty. A Rio correspondent of the *Herald*, in a letter published last week, said such a demand was to be made, though he gave no reasons for it. Minister Mendonça himself, on his return to this country, cautiously said, in an interview, that he expected the treaty to be modified very soon. The Brazilian Consul at Havana said the same thing. Why should the treaty be modified? It has been in operation only seven months, and has been reported as highly beneficial to both countries. Why this haste to modify it?

Plainly, only because Brazil knows that she was duped, and proposes to have redress. As the *Jornal do Commercio* says: "The Brazilian agreement has been a golden key to the Americans." But it was a stolen key. The Brazilians want it back, or some equivalent. The paper just quoted—which is the London *Times* of Brazil—says further: "It is true that, so far, we are not losing much by it [the treaty]; but we have gained nothing except a reputation in diplomacy as the tool of Blaine, without the slightest equivalent—and that is not a very proud rôle, to tell the truth." Meanwhile, we in this country are left to reflect upon that great gain in dignity and decency which has, we have been told, marked Mr. Blaine's diplomacy during his second term as Secretary of State.

THE SALE OF THE JUDGESHIPS.

It is not often that a law falls so completely in attaining its object as our Corrupt Practices Act. The Democrats, it is but just to them to say, in their last State platform, demanded an extension of its provisions, and what has been already seen of its working in two elections shows that an extension is absolutely necessary. The section which is made 41d of the Penal Code obliges every candidate to file "an itemized statement" of his expenses, showing all the money expended by him directly or through other persons "in aid of his election," and giving "the names of the various persons who received such moneys." But as there is no limitation put on the sums so contributed, and no prohibition of any class of expenditure except direct bribery of voters, "the itemized statement" is, of course, valueless. What the candidates do, or may do, under the act, is to give, in a lump sum, the amount they have paid to the Campaign Committee; but the Campaign Committee is under no obligation to render any account whatever, so that the law is practically futile. It can contribute nothing to electoral purity until a limit has been put on the amount which a candidate may spend, and his committee or agents are compelled to specify what they did with the money which he put in their hands.

The statements filed by the candidates in the late election have in most cases a touch of burlesque about them. But there is nothing humorous or amusing in the returns made by the candidates for judicial offices. Nothing can better illustrate the deadened state of public opinion in New York than the calm with which these revelations of the open sale of the judicial offices of the city are received. Judge Ingraham has been long on the bench, and is well known as an able and upright judge. There was not the smallest doubt of his reëlection. The commendation bestowed on this and other judicial nominations of Tammany Hall was used during the canvass to show the groundlessness of fears about Tammany by Mr. Fairchild and others, who were working for the success of the Democratic State ticket. But it now appears that Judge Ingraham was actually made to pay $7,000, or nearly one-half of his salary, in order to obtain it. We do not like to characterize this transaction as a sale in which Judge Ingraham appeared as vendee; we think the correct description of it is, that it was ransom levied on a judge of the State of New York, on his way to the bench, by a gang of foot-pads. This enormous sum was actually, as appears by the returns, paid over to Croker, and by him pocketed and in no way accounted for. Mark well, that no orator stumped, or was needed to stump, for Judge Ingraham. He needed no man's praise and no man's defence against attacks of any description on

his personal or professional character. There were absolutely no expenses properly incurred on his behalf except the cost of printing and distributing the paster ballots. For this, one hundred dollars would probably have amply sufficed. Croker had no more claim on him by right, therefore, for anything beyond this than any blackmailer or confidence man who besets simple-minded travellers in the neighborhood of the railway stations. The seven thousand dollars was pure extortion practised on a judicial officer by an adventurer who holds no office of any description, and pursues no recognized calling or industry. But the misery and shame of it is that this practice has gone on openly for years, in the full light of day, has never been prohibited or punished, and is not now legally punishable.

There is much the same story to tell about Judge Pryor, who has been elected on a Tammany nomination to the Common Pleas. This nomination, euphemistically speaking, was sold to him for $10,000, probably because it was the first time he had been elected. This sum was pocketed by McQuade, the Tammany Treasurer, in the same way. The expenses of the canvass were no greater in Judge Pryor's case than in Judge Ingraham's, and yet he has had to surrender two-thirds of his first year's salary, and neither he nor any outsider knows what was done with it.

Some of the smaller judicial offices cost still more in proportion to the salary. Judge McCarthy, the Tammany nominee for the City Court, paid Croker $6,150 for a chance at a salary of $10,000, and paid to others $1,748 No one knows what became of the money, in what barrooms it was spent, and by what foul creatures it was guzzled or gambled away. Mr. McCrea, who got the Republican nomination for the Civil Justiceship in the Tenth District, actually paid to various organizations $6,500 for his nomination, though the salary of the office is only $6,000. Is it possible to conceive of a more diabolical preparation for the proper dispensation of justice among the poor than a load of debt incurred in purchasing the judicial office?

The cheap way in which the candidates for political offices, according to their own story, got their places, is curious and interesting, and will excite many a smile among the judicious. The noblest Roman of them all, Mr. Bourke Cockran, the Tammany "Custos Mores," got returned to Congress for the beggarly sum of twenty-five dollars —ten dollars less than his monthly receipts from each Deputy Sheriff when he was counsel for Sheriff Grant. Mr. Fassett got defeated for $8,450, but gives the items pretty minutely. Mr. Flower, on the other hand, paid, he says, only $5,000, although his nomination must have been worth to him, one would say, on the basis of the judicial scale, about $500,000—that is, it must have cost at least seventy times as much to elect him as it did to elect Judge Ingraham. The whole story is most instructive. We commend it to the serious attention of all patriotic men, and especially to those who are comforted by the reflection that if Croker's present kindly "mood" lasts, he will give us ballot reform in the State of New York. Hamilton and Washington, we see, did not drive Sir Guy Carleton out of the State for nothing.

TAMMANY APOLOGISTS.

THE very worst consequence of Tammany rule in this city is not the actual corruption and disorder it produces, but the connivance or condonation which it imposes on the press and the bar. As soon as a Tammany man gets possession of the leading city office, a sort of conspiracy of apology seems to be entered into by nearly all the agencies that do most to shape or control public opinion. The lawyers find that in the course of their practice they encounter Tammany influences, for weal or woe, at almost every step they take, and have, perforce, in the interest of their clients, as well as in their own, to keep on good terms with the mammon of unrighteousness. The newspapers, in like manner, either are direct recipients of what "Fatty" Walsh calls "favors," or else are under obligations to Tammany for support given to party candidates at the polls. From these conditions there almost invariably results, especially soon after an election in which Tammany has played a prominent part, either dead silence about the conduct of Tammany officials, or else bold and outspoken praise of its worst appointees. The general effect of these apologies and justifications on the moral and political standards of the city population is, of course, about as bad as bad can be. We do not believe that any Christian community has, in the whole history of free government, been exposed to influences so debauching and so well calculated to make corruption permanent and ineradicable. The process began about 1867, when Tweed was rising into power, and it nursed him finally into the excesses which came near making a revolution necessary to oust him. It is on this subserviency that Tammany has again risen into power and expects to keep in power.

There could not be a better illustration of what we mean than the treatment by the press of Mayor Grant's appointments. They are in the main the worst ever made in a modern civilized community. The mere spectacle of some of his men, and indeed of himself, in high office is a bit of education for the younger generation against which Church and school would have hard work to contend, even if there were nobody but the Tammany General Committee to approve of it. But what is the younger generation to say or think when it finds them defended or praised or kept silent about by what is now almost the only literature of the bulk of the population in this city—the newspapers; and not the lowest kind of newspapers either, but newspapers of the best class, possessing a certain amount of moral and intellectual influence? Take the case of Grant's police justices, of whom he has now appointed eight, the last two being "Paddy" Divver and the more notorious Grady. There are few, if any, Tammany politicians whose unfitness, not only for any judicial office, but for any place of trust or emolument, is better known than Grady's. The bestowal on him of a police magistracy was a shocking offence against public decency. Yet the New York *Times*, as the fatal consequence of its alliance with Tammany in the last canvass, was obliged to refrain from one word of comment on it, and, worse than this, was obliged to give a sketch of Grady's career which might have been written about any one of the most reputable members of the bar in this city.

But the Brooklyn *Eagle*, another Democratic paper of wide influence and circulation, and which every now and then has intervals of sobriety and political morality, does better for Tammany than shut its eyes and hold its nose. It boldly defends Grant's police justiceships, as appointments eminently fit to be made and justified by the results. It says:

> "There is no mystery about what constitutes efficiency in a police justice. He is the most effective justice who hears the largest number of cases in the shortest space of time and decides them in a way satisfactory to justice, conducive to the decrease of complaints in the region over which he presides, and helpful to the recognition of law and authority among those who are brought before him. By these standards, which are as exact and which are as capable of precise formulation in figures or other terms as a civil-service examination is, Patrick Divver is proving to be the most effective justice that New York city has had in a great many years. Clarence W. Meade and Edward Hogan nearly equal him in efficiency, and the other men named as ranking next are making an excellent record. Justice Taintor is doing as well as he knows how, just as Justice John B. Cochrane undoubtedly did, but he does not know how very well. In these instances newspaper comment and public expectations have not been met. The one has been reversed and the other refuted by events. The 'good' men have made poor justices. The 'bad' men, so called by the press, have made good ones."

The answer to all this is easy. The account given of the administration of criminal justice by Paddy Divver and others is pure romance. It is the concoction of the editorial imagination. Nobody knows how justice is administered in the New York police courts who does not watch the proceedings regularly from day to day, as some of the police do, and who does not know the relations of the magistrates to the persons brought before him, as the police generally do. The difficulty in officering police courts in large cities is very like the difficulty of getting fit men for Indian agencies. It consists in the absence of observation by an intelligent public. Nobody fit to form a good judgment on the administration of a police court frequents such places. There is seldom any audience but policemen, criminals, and semi-criminals. The justice is monarch of all he surveys, and protects his cronies, punishes his enemies, and baffles the law—as in dealing with liquor-dealers, gamblers, and throwers of rubbish into the streets—with perfect impunity.

All civilized communities that we know of, except our own, make some effort to compensate for this absence of public super-

vision by means of the guarantee afforded by the life and character of the men put on the bench. They apply to the administration of criminal justice the principle of selection which they apply to all other useful and responsible work. They refuse judgeships to the Divvers and the Gradys, for the reason which would make it impossible for Grady to get the conduct of an important suit, or Divver the cashiership of the *Eagle's* counting-room or the editorship-in-chief, even if he had the literary qualifications, his reputation in other respects being what it now is. The doctrine that character is of no importance for such places, and that the commonest street ruffian one can pick up is, on the whole, more likely to prove a good magistrate than a lawyer of good standing in the community, because he has lived in closer contact with the criminal classes or has been a criminal himself, is a novelty; but it is the natural product of Tammany politics. The rule of a great city by the remarkable band who have now got control of our city government is in itself an absurdity, and, if defended, has to be defended by absurdity. But it cannot be defended, even by absurdities, without inflicting serious injury on the moral sense of the community. We doubt much whether the mere sight of Tammany rule has not already inflicted on the city an injury from which it will take a long time to recover. But the injury becomes more serious, and more likely to be permanent, when the moulders of public morality begin to tell the voters that the spectacle is on the whole edifying and hopeful; that the belief that birth, rank, and wealth were necessary qualifications in legislators or administrators or judges, was not the only mistake of past ages (another and greater mistake being the belief that some little knowledge, and a clean, decent, and honest life, were necessary for the discharge of public trusts); that the greatest discovery of democracy was that bummers, rowdies, drunkards, gamblers, pugilists, bilks, shysters, and dead-beats were the coming men, and that the State was happiest which had the best supply of them for its vacant offices.

THE WRECK OF THE DESPATCH.

THE approval by Secretary Tracy of the report of the court of inquiry exonerating all the officers of the *Despatch* from blame for her loss must have been accorded in pursuance of the very natural and proper habit of leaving professional questions to be decided by professional men. But the circumstances are so extraordinary that the matter should not be allowed to rest where it is. Wrecks from collisions, from treacherous currents, gales, deviations of the compass, from losing the way in a fog, and from sudden accidents of all kinds, are common enough. But we should have to search long and widely to find another case of a ship in perfect command steaming ashore at full speed in fair, clear weather, on a familiar coast and in the full blaze of a first-order lighthouse only four or five miles away. The only excuse was, that the officer in charge of the watch thought that this brilliant white light was the red light of a lightship which he had actually passed without seeing it an hour and a half before. That such an excuse should be accepted by a court of inquiry seems most astonishing, even to a landsman, and becomes yet more so when we consider what must have been the circumstances as present to the mind of the officer directing the course of the ship. It is true that we cannot speak with confidence as to all details. On minor points the testimony, as reported in the newspapers, is confused and contradictory, and the cross-examination of the officers concerned seems to have been anything but critical and searching. But the known location of the lights and the course of the ship, as afterwards worked out, enable us to fill in all that is wanting to complete one of the most singular stories in the history of navigation. Let us place ourselves, in imagination, on the deck of the *Despatch* on the night of the wreck, and think out what we should have seen.

The hour is one o'clock A. M., the ship steaming nine or ten knots. Within an hour two lights are to be sighted, unless the weather is too thick to permit it. The first is at the masthead of the Winter Quarter Shoal Lightship, a small red light; the next, fourteen miles farther on, is Assateague Light, a white light of the first order, 153 feet above the sea level. Being so much higher and brighter than the other, it is visible seven miles farther. In the clearest weather the lantern of the lightship can be seen at a distance of twelve miles from the deck of an ordinary steamship, and at eleven miles from that of the *Despatch;* for the other light the distances are nineteen and eighteen miles. In spite of the two lights being fourteen miles apart, the second should be sighted about forty minutes after the first, not only because of its greater range, but because its direction is so oblique to the course that it is only about twelve miles farther away.

Just about the time the officer expects to see the red lantern, the lookout reports a light on the starboard bow. It is a common weakness of men that, in doubtful cases, one thinks he sees what he expects to see; and it is well known that a white light may have a lurid tint when first sighted on the sea horizon. We cannot, therefore, blame the officer that he thought the light was red, that being the expected color. But it is a little surprising that, in that suspicious frame of mind which is the only guarantee for safety at sea, the fact that the light was not ahead, which was the expected direction, but in the direction of Assateague, should have called up no question whatever of the identity of the light. The only explanation which suggested itself to his too confiding mind was, that the ship had drifted two or three miles out of her course, which was now altered accordingly, and directed nearly towards the light.

The strange part of the story begins one hour after the light was sighted. The officer knows well that he could not possibly see the red light at a greater distance than ten or eleven miles; to bring this knowledge to his mind a circle on his chart shows it to him. On his theory, he must, at the end of one hour, about 2:30 A. M., have been close upon the lightship, and in full sight of Assateague light. Still, no question presents itself to his mind. The minutes pass on; if he has the use of his faculties he knows that he must be miles beyond the lightship, yet he chases the *ignus fatuus*, and never once asks, Where is Assateague? Had he obeyed the Captain's orders to rouse him in case of anything unusual, he would have awakened the Captain with the announcement, "There is indeed something unusual and unheard of. We have been steaming toward the Winter Quarter lightship for nearly an hour and a half, and her light is still in the horizon, though it is invisible at distances of more than eleven miles. And nothing is to be seen of Assateague, though we have been within range of it for an hour!" The reader can imagine the emphasis with which the Captain would have exclaimed, "Oh, fool! if you have been chasing a light for an hour and a half without reaching it, that cannot be the lightship; it can be nothing but Assateague itself." But the officer saw nothing to disturb his serenity, although the fancied red light must long before have developed into the brilliant white of a first-order light, 150 feet above the sea and only a few miles away; nothing to impair his confidence that he was only approaching the red lantern of the lightship; never thought of Assateague—until a rude shock and the coarse grating of the ship on the bottom brought him to his senses! He had steamed twelve miles past the lightship and never suspected it.

The exoneration of the Captain, Lieut. Cowles, and his executive officer, Lieut. Noel, was quite justifiable. The latter had been relieved by Lieut. Mulligan at two o'clock. But the conclusion that no court-martial was necessary in the case of Mulligan looks quite too lenient unless the reported evidence of the actors is egregiously in error. For the credit of the service we hope the official report will show some extenuating circumstances to justify its conclusions; but the only excuse so far offered is not encouraging. It was weakly claimed that, through some peculiarity of the lenses, the Assateague light often looked red or pink. No one who knows how scrupulous is the care with which all lenses and lights are tested by the Lighthouse Board, will believe this to be possible.

Apart from all questions of the possible color of the light, the following three conclusions seem well established:

(1.) That the ship steamed fourteen miles towards a supposed light which could not be seen more than eleven miles, or twelve at the utmost, without the officer in charge thinking there must be something wrong.

(2.) That Assateague Light was well known to be in full sight for forty-five minutes before the ship struck, and yet the officer never looked for it.

(3.) That by the dead reckoning itself the

ship should have run ashore very shortly after the time she grounded, but a little farther north.

THOMAS PAINE'S MILITARY SERVICES IN THE REVOLUTION.

NEW YORK, Nov. 14, 1891.

THE influence of Paine's pen in "the times that tried men's souls" so eclipsed his other services that these appear to have been little known to the public in his time, though appreciated by officers cognizant of them. In August, 1807, Paine was driven to defend himself against an attack by James Cheetham, editor of the New York *American Citizen*, who spoke of him as having "stuck to his pen in a safe retreat, and never handled a musket offensively." Paine answered that soon after the Declaration of Independence he marched with a Pennsylvania division of the Flying Camp, under Gen. Roberdeau. "We were stationed at Perth Amboy, and afterwards at Bergen; and when the time of the Flying Camp expired, I went to Fort Lee, and served as aide-de-camp to Greene, who commanded at Fort Lee, and was with him during the whole of the black times of that trying campaign." This is but a very small part of what Paine might have stated, for he participated in the capture of the Hessians at Trenton and in the affair at Princeton. This may be gathered from a journal of these events published in the *Pennsylvania Journal*, republished in Almon's *Remembrancer*, 1777, p. 28, which his contemporary (hostile) biographer "Oldys" (George Chalmers) says "was plainly written by Paine." On January 21, 1777, Paine was appointed by the Council of Safety in Philadelphia to accompany a commission sent by Congress to treat with the Indian tribes. The treaty was negotiated in the German Reformed Church at Easton, Pa., and for this service Paine was paid £300. On April 17, 1777, Congress constituted the "Committee of Foreign Affairs," and Paine was chosen its secretary. Among the Franklin Papers in the Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, there is a long letter from Paine (dated May 16, 1878), which amounts to a journal of his movements from September 19, 1777, when Gen. Howe was approaching Philadelphia, which he occupied September 26. Paine had sent the chest of papers connected with the Foreign Affairs Committee to Trenton in a shallop and followed it on the 21st. On the 29th he set out for Gen. Greene's headquarters ("John Wince's"), reaching camp on the third day, and on October 4 he travelled on to Germantown, reaching Washington's headquarters after some rough experiences. Having remained in camp two days after the Germantown action, he crossed over to Trenton and went to the forts at Mud Island and Red Bank.

"I laid the first night on board the *Champion* Continental Galley, which was stationed off the mouth of the Schuylkill. The enemy threw up a two-gun Battery on the point of the river opposite the Pest House. The next morning was a thick fog, and as soon as it cleared away and we became visible to each other, they opened on the Galley, who returned fire. The Commodore made a signal to bring the Galley under the Jersey shore, as she was not a match for the Battery, nor the Battery a sufficient object for the Galley. One shot went thro' the fore sail, which was all. At noon I went with Col. [Christopher] Greene, who commanded at Red Bank, over to Fort Mifflin. The enemy opened that day 2 two-gun Batteries and a Mortar Battery on the fort. They threw about 30 shells into it that afternoon, without doing any damage; the ground being damp and spongy, not above five or six burst; not a man was killed or wounded. I came away in the evening, laid on board the Galley, and the next day came to Col. Kirkbride's [Bordentown]; staid a few days and came again to Camp. An Expedition was on foot the evening I got there in which I went as Aid de Camp to Gen. [Nathanael] Greene, having a Volunteer Commission for that purpose. The occasion was—a party of the enemy, about 1500, lay over the Schuylkill at Grey's Ferry. Gen. McDougall with his Division was sent to attack them. . . . As I knew the ground I went with two light horse to discover the enemy's Picket, but the dress of the light horse being white made them, I thought, too visible, as it was then twilight; on which I left them with my horse, and went on foot, till I distinctly saw the Picket. . . . But the enemy either on the approach of McDougall, or on information of it, called in their party, and the expedition was frustrated."

Col. Greene and Paine went to Fort Mifflin (November 9) in an open boat, under a severe cannonade, Paine having been sent by Gen. Greene, charged with defence of the Delaware, to discover whether the fort could hold out. This Paine does not mention in his letter to Franklin. It is evident that most of his movements were to obtain or carry information; and that he had impressed the leading men by his competency and courage appears by the following letter from Timothy Matlack, Secretary of the Pennsylvania Assembly:

"LANCASTER, Oct. 10, 1777. Sir,—The Hon'ble house of As'y have proposed and Council have adopted a plan of obtaining more regular and constant intelligence of the proceeding of General Washington's army than has hitherto been had. Everyone agrees that you are the proper person for this purpose, and I am directed by his Exc'y, the pr't [Thomas Wharton, jr.], to write to you hereon (the Pres't being engaged in writing to the Gen'l, and the Express in waiting).

"The Assembly have agreed to make you a reasonable compensation for your services in this business, if you think proper to engage in it, as I hope you will; as it is a duty of importance that there are few, however well disposed, who are capable of doing in a manner that will answer all the intentions of it—perhaps a correspondence of this kind may be the fairest opportunity of giving to Council some important hints that may occur to you on interesting subjects.

"Proper expresses will be engaged in this business. If the expresses which pass from headquarters to Congress [in session at York, Pa.] can be made use of so much the better;—of this you must be judge.

"I expect Mr. Rittenhouse will send you a copy of the testimony of the late Y. M. by this opp'y, if time will admit it to be copied—'tis a poor thing. Yours &c, T. M."

There are various entries in the Assembly's accounts of the time showing that Paine promptly engaged on the work thus confided to him. (Pa. Archives 1779. pp. 659, 693-94.) On the Pennsylvania Treasurer's books there is a note of £2,355 paid Paine "for his services." The date is March 27, 1780, but no doubt the payment was for the services requested by the Assembly through Matlack. It was paper money, and much less than it appears, yet too large to be paid for Paine's services as Clerk of the Assembly.

Dr. William H. Egle of the Pennsylvania State Library informs me that the plan was suggested by Congress, though the expresses were paid for by the State. There had been, he adds, frequent false alarms, the Associated Battalions being summoned only to disband again. So often did this occur, owing to the trepidation of the eastern counties, that at length hardly a corporal's guard of the "Associatoes" would assemble when summoned. Paine seems to have passed a good deal between Valley Forge and York and Lancaster, but his mission extended, apparently, to all the camps in Pennsylvania and New Jersey. His fifth "Crisis" is dated at Lancaster, March 21, 1778. But neither in this, nor in any of his writings, is there any allusion to this commission from the Pennsylvania Assembly or to his services under it.

Among Paine's military services should perhaps be included his journey to France with Col. John Laurens to obtain from France the millions which wrought such wonders in 1781. It was a perilous voyage for Paine, whom the English cruisers would have been glad to get hold of. They left Boston in February and returned with the money, clothing, and stores in August (25th). Washington learned on May 26 that the relief was coming, and it is hardly doubtful that his movements which culminated in the capture of Cornwallis, were largely determined by this timely subsidy. Col. Laurens highly valued Paine and his services; he wrote him a letter (April 18, 1782) presenting him with his war-horse:

"I entreat your acceptance of him, more especially if you will make use of him in bringing you to a country [South Carolina] where you will be received with open arms, and all that affection and respect which our citizens are anxious to testify to the author of, etc. . . . Adieu—I wish you to regard this part of America as your particular home, and everything that I can command in it, to be in common between us."

Gen. Nathanael Greene, also, on whose staff Paine had served, wrote to him from South Carolina (November 18, 1782):

"Many people wish to get you into this country. I see you are determined to follow your genius, and not your fortune. I have always been in hopes that Congress would have made some handsome acknowledgment to you for your past services. I must confess that I think you have been shamefully neglected, and that America is indebted to few characters more than to you. But as your passion leads to fame and not to wealth, your mortification will be the less. Your fame, from your writings, will be immortal. At present my expenses are great; nevertheless, if you are not conveniently situated, I shall take a pride and pleasure in contributing all in my power to render your situation happy."

Although both of these letters emphasize Paine's writings, there is a personal cordiality in both, an accent of *camaraderie*, suggestive of affection for the soldier as well as the man. Paine, it will be remembered, was trained a Quaker. He was probably a non-resistant, personally; at any rate, when grossly and gratuitously assaulted on one occasion, in Philadelphia, he did not resent it. No power could have induced him to enter into any war except for a cause he held sacred. He was careful to say that he would not have thrown himself even into a struggle for independence, had it not been associated with republican equality and the rights of all men.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

MARBOT IN THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.

PARIS, October 29, 1891.

UNEXPECTED pleasures are the greatest pleasures. Unexpected memoirs, like those of Gen. Marbot, give us a more intense satisfaction than the long-expected memoirs of Talleyrand. Very few people knew of these memoirs of Marbot; they had been read in the manuscript by only a few persons—by Marshal Canrobert, who is a relative of Marbot; by the Duc d'Aumale, who had as a young man known Marbot, who was an aide-de-camp of the eldest son of Louis Philippe; by M. Thiers, who used the memoirs largely, especially in the account of the campaign in Portugal. Since their publication the memoirs have positively been devoured; they are the great literary event of the moment. They are discussed and cited in every drawing-room. The name of Marbot, which was really obscure,

notwithstanding the great part he had taken in great events, is on everybody's lips.

The third volume, which, unfortunately, is the last, has just appeared; it equals in interest the first two. At the beginning of this volume Marbot marries and the Emperor signs his contract; he is almost immediately afterwards sent, not as colonel, as he had every right to hope, but merely as chef d'escadron to the first regiment of chasseurs à cheval, to a garrison in Germany. He bids adieu to Masséna, and, on this occasion, he gives us the biography of that famous Marshal, one of the *preux* of the new Charlemagne. Masséna was born on the 6th of May, 1758, at Turbia, a village in the small principality of Monaco. He was really an Italian, and afterwards he was very anxious that people should pronounce his name as Massène, not as Massèna. In 1814 the Duc d'Angoulême made him Commander of Saint-Louis, but did not put his name among those of the peers of France, under the pretext that, having been born in foreign parts, he was not legally naturalized; "as if," says Marbot indignantly, "the victories of Rivoli, of Zurich, the defence of Genoa, and a series of glorious actions for France, had not as much value as letters of naturalization often paid for by foreign intriguers." When the Revolution of 1789 began, Masséna was at Antibes, where he kept a small shop in which he sold olive oil and fruits of Provence. Revolutions give fair play to what a Darwinian might call the natural selection of men: Masséna entered as a private the first battalion of the volunteers of the Var; his advancement was rapid, he became a general. We find him at Lodi, at Milan, at Verona, at Arcole, at Rivoli, where Gen. Bonaparte baptized him as "the beloved son of victory." The campaign in Switzerland will ever be famous; Masséna inflicted a severe defeat on the Russians at Zurich and saved France from invasion.

We cannot follow Masséna to all the battle fields where he showed his valor. His glory was obscured by his inordinate love of money; during the Continental blockade, which Napoleon invented and organized so as to prevent England from selling her goods to Europe, Masséna sold licenses which allowed some people to import these goods. Bernadotte had set him the example at Hamburg and in Denmark.

"The Emperor, having been informed that Masséna had deposited a sum of three millions with a banker in Leghorn, who had received also a sum of 600,000 francs from Gen. Solignac (Masséna's chief of staff), had a letter sent to Masséna, in which he asked him to lend him a million, and asked 200,000 francs from the chief of staff. It was just the third of what they had made out of the licenses; so the Emperor did not bleed them too much. But on receiving this command of a new sort, Masséna, cursing as if his entrails had been torn from him, answered that, being the poorest of the marshals, having a numerous family, and being covered with debts, he regretted not to be able to send him anything."

Masséna and Solignac were congratulating themselves on having deceived the Emperor, when, during the siege of Gaeta, Masséna was advised that a French inspector of finance, with some gendarmes, had presented himself at the banker's in Leghorn, had seized the three million and six hundred francs and given his receipt. Masséna fell ill with rage, but did not dare to complain to the Emperor, who was at the time in Poland. Masséna afterwards became very rich. The Emperor gave him an allowance of 300,000 francs a year, as Duke of Rivoli; when he was made Prince of Essling, he received a fresh allowance of 500,000 francs a year; as marshal and commander of an army, he received 200,000 francs. He received, therefore, in all a million a year; nevertheless, he was never tired of saying of the Emperor: "Cruel man! while I was fighting for him, he had the audacity to despoil me of my little economies which I had placed at Leghorn!"

Under very rude forms, Masséna was a true courtier. His Italian nature served him with the Emperor. One day Napoleon, who thought himself bound to live the life of the old kings, was shooting pheasants in the forest of Fontainebleau. He was a very bad shot, and a grain of lead flew into Masséna's left eye. The Emperor was evidently the guilty party, but Masséna turned towards Berthier, and taxed him with carelessness, though Berthier had not fired. The Emperor understood perfectly his intention, and so did Berthier. Masséna spent the latter part of his life in solitude, at Rueil, and died on April 4, 1817, at the age of fifty-nine years. It is curious to see how young most of the companions of Napoleon were, and how comparatively young most of them were when they left the theatre of the world, which they had filled with amazement.

Let us return to Marbot. Joining his regiment at Stralsund, he found it in superb condition. He declares he never saw a finer body of cavalry than the Twenty-third Chasseurs. It soon became evident that Napoleon would shortly go to war with Russia; in the summer of 1811, Napoleon drew many old soldiers from the Peninsula and placed them in his Old Guard. Russia had engaged at Tilsit, in 1807, to shut all her ports to England, but practically she had evaded her promise. Alexander feared being assassinated like the Emperor Paul, his father; he did not dare to destroy the Russian trade completely. Napoleon threatened him; he could enroll all the German forces in his "grand army"; all the kings were at his feet. He thought so lightly of his adversary that he only asked Austria and Prussia to give him 30,000 men each, of which he made the wings of his army, and did not weaken these two Powers as much as prudence required. Austria still kept 170,000 men, all ready to turn against us if we were defeated; Prussia kept a reserve of 60,000 men. Marbot's criticism on the preparations for the Russian war is very just. He never hesitates to criticise even Napoleon, notwithstanding his unbounded admiration for the greatest soldier the world has ever seen. It was very unwise to mix, as Napoleon did, Germans, Spaniards, Italians, Portuguese, Swiss, Poles with the French troops. Marbot considers this confusion of nationalities, races, and languages as "one of the principal causes of our reverses."

Napoleon left Dresden on the 29th of July, and the great army marched towards the Niemen. The Emperor kept the centre with 220,000 men, commanded by Murat, Ney, Oudinot, Lefebvre, and Bessières. Marshal Macdonald with the Prussians was on the left wing, on the right were Prince Schwarzenberg, King Jerome, and Prince Eugène de Beauharnais. The army counted at the passage of the Niemen 325,000 men (155,400 Frenchmen and 170,000 allies). Marbot was in the second corps under Oudinot. The Russian army was divided, and King Jerome ought to have destroyed Bagration, but Bagration succeeded in escaping. Napoleon ordered Jerome to leave the army immediately and return to Westphalia. The Düna was reached on the 15th of July by the French columns. Dünaburg was attacked without success. Marbot succeeded in precipitating two Russian regiments into the Düna; his corps became separated from the Grand Army and joined it again only during the winter at the passage of the Beresina. Oudinot, on leaving Polotsk, marched against Prince Wittgenstein. In a charge Marbot was wounded, but he had his usual luck; his wound would have been mortal if his thick epaulet had not diminished the velocity of the ball which pierced him.

"I will confess," said he, "that if I had been colonel I would have followed the numerous wounded of the corps who were sent towards Polotsk, and, once across the Düna, I would have gone to some town in Lithuania so as to be better cared for. But I was merely a chef d'escadron; the Emperor might have come in a post-chaise to Vitebsk and passed the corps in review, and he never bestowed any favors except on the men *present* under arms. This usage, which at first seems cruel, was based on the interest of the service, for it stimulated the zeal of the wounded, who, instead of lingering in the hospitals, tried to join their corps as soon as their strength permitted."

Marbot remained with his regiment; he had, however, to be lifted on his horse, and suffered acute pain in one of his arms, which was kept in a sling. In this condition he had to command a charge a few days afterwards against the forces of Gen. Kulneff. "General Kulneff, who was drunk on his horse, attacked the maréchal des logis, Legendre, who thrust his sword through his neck and killed him at once. M. de Ségur, in his narrative of the campaign of 1812, makes the dying Gen. Kulneff pronounce a fine speech, like the heroes of Homer. I was a few steps from Legendre when he thrust his sword through Kulneff's throat, and I can certify that the Russian general did not utter a single word." And thus is history written!

After the battle, Marbot buried all his soldiers who had been killed.

"I saw under a tree a young chef de bataillon supported by two grenadiers, and making up with much difficulty a small package, the address of which was written in blood—it was his own blood. This officer had, in the attack on the Russian camp, received a horrible wound made by a bayonet in his intestines. The wound was mortal; he knew it. Before dying, he wished to make his adieus to a lady whom he loved; but, after having written, he was at a loss to whom to confide this precious deposit, when I arrived near him. We only knew each other by sight; nevertheless, feeling death approaching, he begged me with a broken voice to render him two services. Bidding the two grenadiers go off a few steps, he gave me the package with tears in his eyes. 'There is a portrait.' He made me promise to leave it secretly in proper hands if I was so fortunate as ever to return to Paris: 'There is no hurry; it is better she should receive this long after I am no more.' I promised to fulfil this painful mission, which I could only execute two years afterwards, in 1814."

As for the second prayer of the young officer, it was executed at once. He did not like the idea of being torn to pieces by wolves; Marbot saw him buried near the captain and another officer of the Twenty-third.

Correspondence.

ALARMING SYMPTOMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To-day's paper contains some facts that deserve attention.

(1.) A Judge of a Supreme Court (New York) announces that he expended $7,000 in order to be elected to that office. If the office were filled by appointment, to print this statement would be deemed a libel of the most atrocious character. It was customary in France before the Revolution to buy the judicial office, and the result was that a right in the pur-

chaser to compensate himself somehow was developed. Must this not ultimately become recognized with us when *a price* is recognized by law as properly payable, as it is in New York, and published with no sense of shame?

(2.) The second is, that there is no jurisdiction in a court to address the Governor of a State to remove a State Treasurer from office for connection with a connivance at, or concealment of, misappropriation of public money by a collector of the revenue; the jurisdiction being given the court in these words: "*for* [in case there is] *reasonable cause.*"

This judgment of a *judicial* tribunal was pronounced by twenty-eight persons belonging to the party accused, and denied by nineteen of the opposite party.

The only comment that can be of any value is, that party allegiance blinds, or misleads to the extent of perverting the intellect, even those administering justice according to law; for it is quite impossible that opinion should thus be divided on a subject which had never been mooted as a party question, unless the mind was influenced by considerations for party that had no relation to the subject.

It is to be observed that the tribunal did not decide that there was *not a reasonable* cause, or whether the accusation *set forth* a reasonable cause, but that they, the Court, had no jurisdiction *to inquire* whether the accusation *was material*, or, if material, sufficiently proved under the grant of the jurisdiction to inquire if there was reasonable cause. It may be added that the arguments for the majority prove either an incapacity to think or a biassed mind. Take, for instance, the claim to the right to a trial by jury as his reason by one judge, and the bad motive of the Governor in calling the Senate to consider the question as his reason by another. The other side was nearly as bad when they replied that the charge was no ground for impeachment or indictment, and therefore, etc.

These arguments prove only that the minds of the judges were so perverted by party considerations as to be unable to think at all. Do not such facts disprove the silly statement that we are not responsible for our belief because we cannot control the effect of evidence on our minds? Are they not a striking illustration of the eternal truth, set forth by St. Paul, that God will send upon men that have pleasure in unrighteousness a strong delusion —that they shall believe a lie even where the unrighteousness is merely party allegiance that compels voting as a party dictates?

R. C. M.

PHILADELPHIA, November 12, 1891.

JOHNSTON'S EDITION OF JAY'S CORRESPONDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The writer of the review of vol. iii. of the 'Papers and Correspondence of John Jay,' which recently appeared in your paper, found occasion to criticise rather sharply certain errors in the rendering of proper names, which he considered as evidence of "inexcusable carelessness." It seems to us to be in order to make clear to your reviewer and to the readers of your paper that the larger portion of these so-called "errors" were due, not to any carelessness on the part of the type-setters and proof-readers, or to any editorial oversight, but to the editorial decision that these manuscripts should be printed precisely as written. This has been the policy pursued in the companion sets of the writings of Hamilton, Franklin, and Washington, and while it has subjected the editors and publishers to a certain kind of criticism, it has, we think, met the approval of the larger portion of the readers and critics of the works in question. We add examples of some of the proper names referred to: "Ciracchi" is printed precisely as Jay wrote it; "Canzwort" is printed precisely as Mrs. Jay wrote it; "Hudon" is printed precisely as T. Franklin wrote it (twice); "Varville" is printed precisely as Jay wrote it; "Montiers" is printed precisely as Jay wrote it, unless the *n* should be read as *u*, which would have been correct. It is, however, *n* in the old edition.

In addition to the above-referred-to criticisms of the spelling of proper names, your reviewer charges our editor with having suppressed "everything of importance in regard to the Spanish negotiations in 1785-88." In reply to this criticism, Prof. Johnston reports to us as follows:

"The reviewer misreads the letter of May 19, 1785, mentioned, by regarding it as 'a slap at Spain,' when in reality Jay was only trying to better our infant trade in a new way. His original instructions (p. 250, vol. i.) urged him to obtain (from Spain direct) the Honduras trade. As Spain did not grant it, Jay pushes for its participation with England.

"In the second place, I have given the one or two important letters respecting the negotiations (p. 240 et seq.), and to have loaded the volume with more would have opened it to the criticism of dulness or overweight of the Spanish matter, when vol. ii. had had so much of it. I paid special attention to our national matters, as more important, and put in every reference to the adoption of the Constitution, New York elections, and the Supreme Court. These are points which I assumed a critic would at least casually notice."

Asking that you will kindly find space in your columns for the above statement, we are yours respectfully, G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS.

NEW YORK, November 12, 1891.

[We should be sorry to have even the appearance of being unjust to Prof. Johnston, or to his publishers, and had carefully considered our criticisms before making them. The fact that Mrs. Jay did write "Canzwort," and Temple Franklin did write "Hudon," disposes of the doubts we expressed, and we will accept the fact that Jay wrote the other names as printed. But it seems to us that the examples of errors in criticism thus selected were not selected happily, being in every case names infrequently met with; and that the editor's plea of following "copy" is inconclusive, as he has taken strange liberties with the text throughout, and nowhere states that he intends to print exactly as written. When in the first two volumes we came across omissions, transpositions, etc., we concluded that the editor was exercising a certain control over the manuscript record, and a large number of such changes only confirmed us in this opinion. Or how else could he have omitted, without any mark of omission, such a phrase as the italics in the following sentence: "I find that in France great men, like their predecessors of old, have their bards. *Yours seem to have mounted high mettled Pegasus, and to have been inspired (if Brydene's doctrine be right) by electrised muses.*" Written to Franklin, there was a fitness in the allusion.

As to the Spanish negotiations, we must maintain our opinion. Denied by Spain a participation in the trade of Honduras, Jay sought to obtain it indirectly of England, who herself enjoyed her privileges in that trade only under a treaty with Spain. If this was not a slap at Spain through England, the proposition must certainly be capable of an interpretation in "a new way." Prof. Johnston will hardly claim that Jay was intent upon doing a favor to Spain. Then, as regards the negotiations with Gardoqui after the Revolution, we do not hesitate to say that they were of far more importance historically than Jay's entire career in Spain. The single report of Jay proposing to waive the right to navigate the Mississippi, of which no mention is made in Prof. Johnston's volumes, produced results of general import, worthy to be called "national" had the nation then existed. It was a vital incident in Jay's career; it is essential to an understanding of the national history. Prof. Johnston gives one letter on the negotiations, and a very unimportant letter, too, for what was regarded at the time as Jay's surrender to Spain is not noticed. It is because we differ with the editor on what constitutes a "national" matter that we did not so much as casually notice the minor contributions the volume contains.—ED. NATION]

ABBOT AGAINST ROYCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Peirce's letter on this subject in your last week's issue unfortunately brings it before the larger public; and, since Mr. Peirce professes to be a neutral judge, it may leave on your readers an impression unfair to Prof. Royce if nothing more gets said. May I take a little of your space to record my opinion of the merits of the case?

First, the facts. Professor Royce, one of the editors of the *International Journal of Ethics*, wrote, in its first number, a review, seventeen pages long, of Dr. Abbot's 'Way Out of Agnosticism.' This review was altogether technical in character, but hostile in content, impugning both the value and the originality of Dr. Abbot's philosophy. Reviews of philosophical books in technical journals are apt to be destructive—that is what philosophers expect of each other; and in this review there was nothing unusually intolerable, as reviews go, till the page before the last, in which (set in some sentences of a rhetoric characteristic of Prof. Royce) the following passage occurred:

"But Dr. Abbot's way is not careful, is not novel, and, when thus set forth to the people as new and bold and American, it is likely to do precisely as much harm to careful inquiry as it gets influence over immature or imperfectly trained minds. I venture, therefore, to speak plainly, by way of a professional warning to the liberal-minded public concerning Dr. Abbot's philosophical pretensions. And my warning takes the form of saying that if people are to think in this confused way, unconsciously borrowing from a great speculator like Hegel, and then depriving the borrowed conception of the peculiar subtlety of statement that made it useful in its place—and if we readers are for our part to accept such scholasticism as is found in Dr. Abbot's concluding sections as at all resembling philosophy—then it were far better for the world that no reflective thinking whatever should be done. If we can't improve on what God has already put into the mouths of the babes and sucklings, let us at all events make some other use of our wisdom and prudence than in setting forth the 'American theory' of what has been in large part hidden from us."

This passage is Dr. Abbot's chief ground of complaint. It contains the expression "professional warning," which certainly has a conceited sound. Dr. Abbot assumes that by "professional" Prof. R. meant *professorial*, and that he claimed the authority of Harvard

University for the warning conveyed. This is the basis of his application to the President and Fellows of Harvard to punish in some way their employee.

That an author should feel sore at being so handled by a critic is inevitable. That he should wish to reply is natural. Dr. Abbot replied. Mr. Peirce says that the editors first postponed, then excluded this reply, and finally threatened legal proceedings if it were published apart. A falser impression of the facts cannot be imagined than this statement gives. The editors were liberal as few editors are. An editor's first duty, if controversy must be, is to restrict it to one number so that it may not disgust the readers by trailing its slow length along. Dr. Royce and his colleagues, accordingly, in accepting Dr. Abbot's reply (although it was some thirty pages long and bitterly personal), insisted that a rejoinder from Prof. R. should appear after it *in the same number*. Dr. Abbot agreed to the rejoinder, but stoutly protested that it should not appear *in that number*. On condition, however, that the rejoinder should have appended to it a retort from him which should close the controversy, Dr. Abbot agreed that one number might contain both his own and his reviewer's words. These negotiations and the documents they demanded could not be finished in time for the then pending number of the review, which consequently appeared without the controversy in it. Mr. Abbot charges the editors with wilful delay; one as familiar as Mr. Peirce with the conditions of getting a "number" out might easily imagine less far-fetched reasons.

The July number was then in order, and the editors, who had not yet got Abbot's retort, now claimed that it should "not exceed Royce's rejoinder in length," that it should "not raise new issues," and that, since the twenty-eight-page reply was full of personal aspersions, these last words from Abbot "should not assault Royce's personal character, and should be parliamentary in form, and free from personally abusive language." To this proposal Dr. Abbot's reply was, to quote the words of his memorial to the President and Fellows, "a short and dry rejection *in toto*."

Then came rumors of a lawsuit and a pamphlet on the part of Dr. Abbot. Is it wonderful that Dr. Royce should now consult a lawyer as to how the growing tide of unpleasantness might best be minimized? The lawyer warned Dr. Abbot that to publish a pamphlet might make him legally liable, this being of course an ordinary routine precaution against future legal trouble of any sort. Mr. Peirce, following Dr. Abbot's *ex-parte* statement, treats it as part of a plan to "stifle" the latter's reply. Now Dr. Abbot (though in general correct in his record of the facts) has omitted the important fact that in the very letter in which the lawyer conveyed the warning as to liability, he also made an offer to Dr. Abbot from Prof. Royce to print his long reply in the next *Journal*, with no editorial comment in that number, provided Dr. A. would prune it of degrading personalities, leaving the argument untouched. The *quid pro quo* seems fair enough; yet the sacrifice demanded was intolerable to Dr. Abbot, and he published his memorial to the Harvard Corporation instead.

A more grotesque accusation of unfair editorial treatment than that made by Dr. Abbot and echoed by Mr. Peirce was consequently never made.

Now as to Mr. Peirce's talk about Prof. Royce's "cruel purpose" of "ruining Dr. Abbot's reputation." When did a critic ever deny the value of a book *without* the purpose of ruining the author's reputation—his reputation, namely, for competency in that field? That Prof. Royce had any animosity to Dr. Abbot's reputation in *other* relations of life is too silly a charge even for denial. And what Mr. Peirce means by the affair being a "brutal life-and-death combat from the first," I confess is too dark a thing for me to understand. Had *I* written a book with such ambitious aims as Dr. Abbot's, I should expect my differently-thinking compeers to handle me without gloves, and should despise them if I suspected that the fear of wounding my feelings stayed their hand. Were Prof. Royce's review one of *my* book, I should probably be considerably stirred-up by his low opinion of me, and should feel the genial latitude of his style, when expressing the same, to be peculiarly exasperating. At the same time I should recognize the inevitableness of such differences of understanding, and should feel that I had no avowable *grievance*, since, unlike those critics who dismiss a volume of poems or a novel with a sneer for which no grounds are given, Prof. Royce had given his own reasons for all that he had said. My only remedy would lie in beating down my critic's philosophy and strengthening my own. Mr. Abbot's remedy of heaping personal outrages upon Prof. Royce and his motives, admits of no excuse but a pathological one. It is truly deplorable that the quarrel should spread beyond the academic world. But since Mr. Peirce has served it up for your readers in what they also may imagine to be an "impartial" statement, it seems but fair that one with a less *ex-parte* knowledge of the facts should also be heard.

WILLIAM JAMES.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, November 15, 1891.

DISFIGUREMENT OF FRENCH CHURCHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A grave abuse has lately been working its way into French churches, without protest or notice so far as I have observed, which has already brought about serious disfigurement of some of the most interesting and beautiful structures in the world, and now threatens still further and rapid degradation.

No one at all susceptible to sentimental impressions can ever have seen the chapels of favorite saints decorated, as they are still in some Roman Catholic countries, and as they used to be in all, with the *ex voto* gifts of grateful worshippers, without romantic and even reverent emotion. There hang the crutches of restored cripples; waxen models of the leg or arm that has been healed dangle in groups *in rei memoriam;* pictures, of less than moderate artistic merit, remind at once the protecting saint and the casual visitor of the runaway or the shipwreck from which a sudden prayer and vow have rescued the imperilled believer. Elaborate models of the ships themselves, in seaport churches, are dimly descried swinging above in the dusk of the groined vault; and all concur in adding a quaint and touching picturesqueness to architectural beauty and historic interest.

From most French churches, whether through thoughtless iconoclasm or the necessities of restoration, long accumulations of such pious memorials have been completely swept away. With this I am not now finding fault—if for no other reason, because to find fault with their destruction would not bring them back. Nor have I one syllable to utter in support of the shrieks which continually arise, especially from English tourists and critics, in denunciation of the dealings of the French with their architectural monuments. I believe, Mr. Ruskin and his hysterical following to the contrary notwithstanding, not merely that if it had to be done, it has been done with absolute archæological fidelity, with exquisite artistic sense, and with the most reverent historical feeling—qualities in regard to no one of which do the French need education or stimulation from any English authority that ever existed—not merely this, but I am penetrated with a sense of the expediency and necessity of the restorative work which has been so extensively carried on throughout France, under the Commission which once had Prosper Mérimée for its inspector, and Viollet-le-Duc for director of its ecclesiastical work. "I wish," screams Mr. Ruskin, that combination of Jeremiah with Shimei, "that the French Government could leave these cathedrals alone for ten minutes!"—forgetting, or not caring, that the destroyer Time cannot be induced to stay his hand from them for five. I have nothing less than earnest gratitude, on the contrary, to the Commission of Historical Monuments which has protected and saved, for us and for the future, everything in France of the greatest historical value, from Celtic megalith and Roman arch down to the florid product of the Renaissance.

Not from a godless Government, nor from ignorant restorers, but from grateful piety, comes the injury of which I complain. Some time within thirty years, somewhere in France, some devotee who fancied his prayers to a favorite saint had been answered, conceived the new notion of inscribing upon a pretty little white marble slab a private memorandum of acknowledgment, and fixing it upon the church wall, in the chapel or near the altar of the saint. The device seems to have commended itself first as new and original, and to have grown from that into an established convention. Other devotees came on, each with his own little private acknowledgment for the public eye, and new little polished slabs began to glimmer in the dusk. Then sacerdotal supervision came in to regulate pious zeal and to organize revenue; the slabs were controlled to a uniform shape and size of about ten inches long by eight high; they were set in actual contact; wall spaces and piers began to be covered by them; and now one may see large areas of wall marked out in advance to receive future enamelling.

Nothing more atrocious, from an æsthetic point of view, can be imagined than these bits of glittering marble; nothing more *banal*, more offensive to the religious sense, could easily be contrived without set purpose. There is some little variation of verbal form, but not much. It is sometimes: "Reconnaissance à Marie! 16 Août, 1889. A. B.," or "Notre Dame de la Garde, vous avez exaucé mes prières! 1 Avril, 1890. C. D.," or even "Merci! E. F. 30 Mai, 1891," as a waiter might acknowledge a "tip." Sometimes there is a more exact announcement of the help received, as in the Church of Notre Dame at Boulogne: "Procès gagné. Merci à Notre Dame. 16 Mars, 1881. C. F."; nothing said, however, as to the manner in which the Virgin Mother intervened to decide the law suit. In Notre Dame at Châlons-sur-Marne, a town so religious that my hotel, a few weeks ago, bore the name "de la Haute Mère-Dieu," successful students acknowledge the aid that has pulled them through their troubles: "Reconnaissance à N. D. de Lourdes. Un Bachelier, G. L. 9bre., 1889." "Reconnaissance à Marie pour avoir réussi dans mes examens. M. D. Mars, 1883." And there is in this one a suggestion of good fortune such as is not commonly published to the

world in stone: "Reconnaissance: Souvenir de 5 Juillet, 1883. Louise F."

Now no one need care when, for example, the *baroque* Church of N. D. des Victoires in Paris has its walls covered from floor to vault, as it is coming to have, with acres of these hideous marble tablets; for it has nothing to lose, either in architectural beauty or in historic interest. But the restoration of Notre Dame at Châlons, for another example, is one of the most splendid works of Violiet-le-Duc, and it is now undergoing a new debasement. The French Government has rescued from the parochial abuse which is still rampant and uncontrolled in English churches, the "historical monuments" in which its land is so rich, while leaving still to religious use the structures which were so designed. Frenchmen, perhaps because they are on the ground, fail to notice the growth of an injury which strikes the foreigner. This is a new evil. When I first knew French churches, in 1859, I believe it was nowhere to be seen. Seldom, if ever, is a date now found upon these stones earlier than 1865. I hope the protest I have felt constrained to make may, through the publicity you may give it and the responses it may elicit, reach some quarter from which a remedy may proceed. T. B.

ROCHESTER, November 11, 1891.

WASHINGTON - BRODHURST GENEALOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: John Washington, the immigrant and ancestor of General Washington, married the widow of Walter Brodhurst, whose maiden name was Ann Pope. Walter Brodhurst was the eldest son of William of Lilleshall, Shropshire, England. He was among the first settlers of Maryland, and his name appears as early as 1639 in the public records. In September, 1642, he was a member of the Assembly. In 1647 he was complained of for acknowledging Capt. Edward Hill of Virginia as Governor of Maryland. After this he moved across the Potomac to Virginia, and in 1653 was a burgess from Northumberland County. It is not known when he married Ann Pope, but by her he had a son who was also named Walter.

William Brodhurst, the father-in-law of Anne Pope, in 1658 died at Lilleshall and left her a legacy. Her second husband was John Washington, and by him she had a son Lawrence, the grandfather of the first President of the Republic. The half-brother of Lawrence, Walter Brodhurst, removed to Lilleshall, England. In the parish register the baptism of children of "Mr. Walter Brodhurst and Jane his wife" is recorded: Jane, October 5, 1669; Mary, December 29, 1670; Anne, September 26, 1672; Jane, October 1, 1674; Elizabeth, November 16, 1676; Mary, November 21, 1678; Anne, January 17, 1680; William, October 2, 1684. In the registry of burials Mary, the second child, is mentioned as having been buried on May 3, 1672; and on the 26th of November of the same year, Jane, the first daughter.

On the south side of the church-yard, adjoining the church wall, are two flat tombstones covered with moss, in bad condition, the inscriptions being partly defaced:

HERE LYET . THE BODEY OF MA . . BROD HVRST DAVGH TER OF WAL TER B OD HVRST BVRI ED THE 3D . AY 1672	HERE LYE . . THE BODEY . . . IANE BRO . . . RST DAVGH . . . . WALT . . 26 OF NOVEM . . . 1672

Walter Brodhurst was a church-warden of the parish, and on the 4th of August, 1707, was buried. EDWARD D. NEILL.

MACALESTER COLLEGE, ST. PAUL, MINN.

Notes.

DAMRELL & UPHAM, Boston, will issue next month a new edition of Mr. W. H. Whitmore's reprint of and dissertation on 'Mother Goose's Melody,' which appeared a year ago, with some additional matter from his pen, and also the Fairy Tales of Mother Goose in the racy original translation of 1729. The volume will be nearly doubled in size and the price will be reduced. The same firm have almost ready a work by Prof. Horsford concluding his researches into the coming of the Northmen, 'The Landfall of Leif Erikson on Cape Cod in the Year 1000, and the Site of his Houses on the Bank of Charles River in Cambridge.' It will at least have the merit of giving heliotype facsimiles of every authoritative map bearing on the question, including some never before published. An appendix will contain the Saga of Erik the Red, and other documents pertaining to Vineland.

Little, Brown & Co. have begun publication of a library edition of the military novels of Charles Lever, with full-page etchings after the original designs by H. K. Browne and George Cruikshank, and illustrations in the text; the whole in five volumes of legible and handsome print, issued in two styles.

Lee & Shepard will publish 'White Slaves, or the Oppression of the Worthy Poor,' by the Rev. Louis Albert Banks; and 'The Monuments of Upper Egypt,' translated from Marietta Bey's 'Itinéraire.'

'Reading and Speaking,' being "familiar talks to young men who would speak well in public," by Prof. Brainard Gardner Smith of Cornell, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Silver, Burdett & Co. will shortly publish 'Songs for All Seasons,' by the Rev. S. Dryden Phelps, D.D. The book contains an original poem for every day in the year, with appropriate texts from Scripture.

The first edition of the new volume of Emily Dickinson's 'Poems,' edited by Mr. Higginson and Mrs. Todd, has been exhausted within four or five days of issue, although it was double the size of the first edition of volume i., published a year ago. This evidences a sudden popularity quite unprecedented, to which praise and censure alike have probably contributed. The publishers, Roberts Brothers, have the second edition of volume ii. ready to-day.

D. Appleton & Co. will bring out 'Lady Dufferin's Journal [in Canada],' and 'The Tragedy of Ida Noble,' by W. Clark Russell. Also, 'A Text-Book in Psychology,' translated from the German of Johann F. Herbart.

Hunt & Eaton publish immediately 'A Winter in India and Malaysia among the Methodist Missions,' by M. B. V. Knox, and the Book of Job arranged in dramatic form by the Rev. Alfred Walls.

An entirely new and revised edition of William Black's novels is to be published by Sampson Low, Marston & Co. The volumes are to be issued monthly, beginning with 'A Daughter of Heth' in January, and the publication of the series is expected to occupy two years.

Mr. John D. Ross of Brooklyn, as a devoted admirer of "The Master Bard," has projected a series of annual volumes of 'Burnsiana: A Collection of Literary Odds and Ends relating to Robert Burns.' The work will bear the Paisley and London imprint of Alexander Gardner. Mr. Ross rakes together "not only original articles, but addresses, orations, poems, criticisms, anecdotes, biographical items, reliques, etc."

The November list of Percival & Co., London, embraces 'The Dawn of Art in the Ancient World,' an archæological sketch by William Martin Conway, with illustrations; 'English Pen-Artists of To-Day,' with examples and criticisms, by Charles G. Harper; 'Summer Rambles round Rugby,' by Alfred Rimmer, illustrated by the author; 'Architecture, Mysticism and Myth,' by W. R. Lethaby; 'The Art Teaching of John Ruskin,' by W. G. Collingwood; 'A Survey of France 100 years after the Revolution,' by M. Betham Edwards, in two volumes; 'Old Touraine: the Life and History of the Famous Châteaux of France,' by Theodore Andrea Cook, illustrated by Jane E. Cook; 'Grisons Incidents in Olden Times,' by B. L. Tollemache; and "The Pocket Library of English Literature," edited by George Saintsbury in characteristic extracts, or in full in the case of political verse and tracts.

G. Civelli, Florence, has undertaken the publication in eight volumes of a prize 'Storia del Metodo Sperimentale in Italia,' with an author and subject index.

The second volume of Emilio Motta's "Collezione Storico-bibliografica," published by the author at Como, is 'Materiali per una bibliografia del Generale Garibaldi,' preceded by a chronology of the principal events in the life of the hero, and followed by an index arranged by periods.

The last volume in the "Great French Writers" Series is a translation of Albert Sorel's interesting book on Mme. de Staël (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). The work has been satisfactorily performed by Fanny Hale Gardiner, and those who cannot read the French original will lose less than usual of its spirit and style. But good translations are very difficult to make, and something is invariably lacking. This is clearly the case with 'The Countess Rudolstadt' translated by Mr. F. H. Potter (Dodd, Mead & Co.). George Sand's style is not the only thing which suffers: her language, too often rendered literally, sounds and is awkward in its English garb, and there is a stiffness about the version which one never associates with the author's manner. An English reader knowing nothing of French will wonder at many of the expressions used. "Will you be good enough to tell me by what chance you came to have yourself presented here so suddenly?' is awkward, to say the least of it, besides not rendering the original neatly. And there are many such instances.

Another translation of Alarcón's 'El Sombrero de Tres Picos' comes to us—this one by Miss Mary Springer (Cassell).

Trübner of Strassburg has just brought out the second part of the second volume of Dr. Bernhard Ten Brink's 'Geschichte der Englischen Literatur.' The whole work will consist of four volumes, of which the first ends with Wiclif, and the second with the accession of Elizabeth. The same house (and no longer Oppenheimer of Berlin) will henceforth supply the 'Lord Byron' of Karl Elze, which has reached its third edition, Schipper's 'William Dunbar,' Brandl's 'Coleridge,' Brandes's 'Holberg,' Karl Hillebrand's seven volumes, 'Zeiten, Völker, und Menschen,' etc. It also announces as soon to appear the fourth and fifth volumes of A. von Düring's German translation of the works of Chaucer.

The latest addition to Ginn & Co.'s series of astronomical text-books is 'Star-land,' by Sir R. S. Ball, Royal Astronomer of Ireland—a book which we have already favorably noticed.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, bring out 'Childe Harold' and 'The Lady of the Lake' in their neatly printed series of "Laurel Crowned Verse," and Carlyle's translation of 'Wilhelm Meister,' with an introduction by Prof. Dowden, as an addition to their "Masterpieces of Foreign Literature"—in which series they also include a translation of Ruffini's 'Doctor Antonio.' The same firm send us an edition of Carlyle's 'Heroes and Hero-Worship,' and a tasteful reprint of Elizabeth Sheppard's 'Charles Auchester."

The little volume entitled 'Doctor Liddon's Tour in Egypt and Palestine' (Longmans) is a pleasant memento of the great preacher of St. Paul's. It consists of letters written by his sister, Mrs. King, to her daughters, not intended to go beyond the family circle, and now printed at the request of his friends—an unpretending record of the daily events of travel, but agreeable from its simple directness and kindly spirit. The most striking of the letters are those which describe the services of Good Friday and Easter in the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. Dr. Liddon was thoroughly interested in all that he saw, and indefatigable in sight-seeing. As he talked a good deal with Coptic and Greek church-officials, it would be interesting to know his reflections on the Christianity of Egypt and Palestine. The trip, Canon Liddon's only long holiday, lasted from December, 1885, to June, 1886. On page 48 the name "Bourillant" should presumably be "Bouriant."

After ten years the second and final volume of Furneaux's edition of the 'Annals' of Tacitus has appeared (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), fully bearing out the promise of its predecessor. It is a large book—too large for ordinary college use, containing over six hundred pages; but one forgives the size for the sake of the valuable matter with which the introductory essays and the commentary are filled. Mommsen's 'Provinzen' and his 'Staatsrecht' have been published since Furneaux's first volume, and these, together with such more special works as Lehmann's 'Claudius' and Schiller's 'Nero,' have been most diligently used. English and American readers will find of particular interest the notes on the chapters relating to the conquest of Britain. The editor in this volume does not follow the text of Halm as closely as before, but, when he leaves it, he generally gives the reading of the Medicean MS. A new map of Armenia and two good indexes complete what will be for a long time the standard English edition of the 'Annals.'

According to a recent account from Iceland, the antiquarian Sigurd Vigfusson, while on a journey through the island, has discovered several important ancient manuscripts.

The first two parts of a work entitled 'Eskimoliv' (Esquimaux Life), by the famous Greenland explorer, Fridtjof Nansen, are announced by H. Aschehoug & Co. of Christiania. It is to be hoped that the book will soon appear in an English dress.

A bill has been introduced in the Danish Folkething to determine fully the question of copyright. This has been made necessary by a similar action on the part of the Norwegian Government. Steps will at the same time be taken to provide for some agreement with this country in accordance with the International Copyright Law. There is very little doubt that the measure will be passed without opposition.

The topographical survey of Rhode Island, carried on jointly by the State and the United States Geological Survey, has been completed at a cost of $5,000 to the State, and the map sheets are now published. The Commissioners for Rhode Island have wisely induced the State Legislature to make a special appropriation of $4,500, to meet the expenses of a special edition of the map, to be distributed to all the public schools and public libraries in the State; and this excellent distribution has now been made. The map appears in three forms—as a wall map on rollers, as a folded map, or in separate atlas sheets. All these forms will be on sale through a publisher, not yet announced, at a slight advance over cost of printing. The map is on a scale of a mile to an inch, with twenty-foot contour lines in brown, roads and towns in black, boundaries in red, and water in blue. It indicates the natural features of the State with much clearness, from the hilly plateau of the north to the irregular shore-line on the south. Other States whose area is too great to be included on a wall map of this large scale might nevertheless imitate the liberal example set by Rhode Island, and, as fast as they secure good topographic surveys, prepare maps of considerable sections of their territory for school use. The absence of such maps is certainly one of the great difficulties under which the teaching and understanding of geography now labors.

A report on cloud observations at sea, by Prof. Cleveland Abbe, printed in the *American Meteorological Journal* for October by consent of Prof. D. P. Todd, director of the United States expedition to West Africa, illustrates the large variety of novel results that may be obtained by a well-trained observer during a sea voyage. The cruise was made on the United States steamer *Pensacola* about two years ago to observe an eclipse, and Prof. Abbe was detailed to accompany the party as meteorologist. The account of the clouds seen over various islands is very suggestive, particularly those at Ascension and Barbados. The Harmattan wind was observed on the coast of Africa, and found to be analogous to the northwesters of this country—that is, a flow of cool, dry air into a warmer region.

Mr. W. M. Griswold's several 'Descriptive Lists of American, International, Romantic, and British Novels' have been bound together in one handsome volume and issued at Cambridge, Mass., by the author. No fewer than 1,941 works of fiction have thus been brought together between two covers, with the critical appreciations of reviewers, in the selection of which Mr. Griswold must have performed an extraordinary amount of drudgery. Each title is succeeded by the author's name (pseudonym or real or both), the name of the publisher, and the date of publication—a very useful feature. Readers have now, therefore, as good a guide in the choice of light reading as they could well hope to have; while writers can easily discover what fields have been well harvested already, and to some extent what plots are no longer available. Any public library which does not procure and keep this volume for constant reference will clearly be derelict. We will add that the index to authors fills nine pages and a half, in triple columns; anonymous works filling one and a half columns.

For its Bulletin No. 9, the Bureau of American Republics (Washington) takes Mexico as the subject of a compilation like the one previously issued about Brazil. It is a handy collection of useful information, trustworthy in the main, though tariff rates are cited in oversight of the new schedules just put in effect.

We have received the first number of the *Bulletin de Folklore*, "organe de la Société du Folklore Wallon," edited by E. Monsieur, professor at the University of Brussels, which promises to be a valuable addition to the constantly increasing literature of this subject. A critical article by M. Wilmotte on the mediæval ballad (in which the writer argues in favor of an earlier origin of the ballad than that admitted by Gaston Paris in his recent review of Nigra's 'Canti popolari del Piemonte'), nursery rhymes (finger-rhymes corresponding to our "This little pig went to market," etc.), seven versions of the popular tale known as "The Singing Bone" (Grimm, No. 28), a popular song, a formula of possession written in a book about the end of the sixteenth century, and reviews of recent works relating to folklore, make up a very creditable first number of a periodical which we commend to the kindly interest of students of that science in this country. The annual subscription is six francs, which may be sent to Lebègue & Co., 46 rue de la Madeleine, Brussels, or to E. Leroux, 28 rue Bonaparte, Paris.

When M. F. Schrader published last year his 'Atlas de Géographie Moderne' (Hachette), he promised to keep it up to the times by the issue of a yearly supplement. The first of these has just appeared, under the title of the 'Année Cartographique,' and contains three sheets, with text, showing, for Asia, the itineraries of Grombtchevsky, Bonvalot, and others; for Africa, the latest delimitations; and for America, indications of the new States of our Northwest, the new Brazilian-Bolivian frontier, and the routes of several recent explorations, such as Nansen's in Greenland. This plan of keeping an atlas up to date seems to us a specially happy inspiration of M. Schrader's, and one worthy of both praise and imitation.

M. Henri Roujon has been appointed Director of the Beaux-Arts in place of M. Gustave Larroumet, who has lately resigned the position, though he accepts an honorary title of director. M. Roujon is well qualified for the place, not only from his learning and judgment and good taste, but also from his fifteen years of experience in subordinate positions in the Bureau. He has passed through all its grades. He is known to the outside world as an exceptionally brilliant writer, especially in his work in the *Revue Bleue*, the more serious part of which has been signed "Henry Laujol," and the lighter "Ursus."

—In our number of October 29 we left the American Library Association at San Francisco. Starting from that city after adjournment, they made a tour among the libraries and watering-places of Southern California. They were much pleased with both, especially with the activity of the Los Angeles Library, which shows a most unusually quick turnover of its books—once a month. They were received with the same exuberant hospitality as in the north, which gave the President an opportunity to rival the President of the United States in the number and diversity of his replies to welcoming addresses. The discussion of library matters which was crowded out at San Francisco, took place on the train, where squads of three or four settled to their own satisfaction many debated points, particularly of library architecture. Moreover, the last two sessions of the Convention were held in the train on the way home, and were most entertaining. Mr. Green presided, with the same courteous firmness and push which alone had made it possible to get anything done at the too short sessions in San Francisco. The liveliness of the discussion showed the advantage of having a small place of meeting, no outside distraction, and a subject on which opinions differed decidedly. The exact result of such a conference as has just been held no one can determine. The effect upon the pub-

lic is illusive: it is not to be measured by attendance upon the meetings, or by anything said or done at them. The idea that there is plenty of work to be done in libraries, that some methods of library administration or building are better than others, that it is worth while to get a librarian who knows his business rather than a ward politician or an unsuccessful literary man, that libraries are a potent means of public education, and can be made even more efficient by devices which are beginning to be introduced in the best of them—these ideas seem to spread, no one can tell how, from the mere getting together of a body of librarians and the stir about them in the newspapers. In proof of this, one may point to the apparently unsuccessful meeting at St. Louis and the subsequent library history of that city.

—With its twenty-eighth volume the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) puts the letter H behind it, and advances well into I, and it seems a proper time for estimating the probable extent of this vast enterprise. The one-volume dictionary of persons deceased in the reign of Victoria, called 'Men of the Reign,' offers a sort of comparison, being confined to British subjects. The same point in the alphabet reached by both is, in the smaller work, a little less than the half-way point (45 per cent.). To be sure, the seventy-five pages occupied by the letter H should, in equal ratio to the five volumes occupied by the same letter in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' be 182 pages: nevertheless, at each of the quarter posts (vols. vii, xiv, xxi) 'Men of the Reign' proportionately outstrips the other work, though by a steadily declining excess; and it is not unreasonable to infer that the latter will not surpass sixty volumes. In the 28th the great tribe of Howards consume one-fifth of the volume, and of the philanthropist John Howard the amusing trait is recalled, among so many that were admirable, that he agreed before marriage with his second wife that, "to prevent altercations about those little matters which he had observed to be the chief grounds of uneasiness in families, he should always decide." The leading literary notices are of Leigh Hunt and of David Hume; the latter, in eleven pages, in Leslie Stephen's best style. The quarrel with the author of 'Émile' is fairly treated. Hume would, says Mr. Stephen, "have provided for Rousseau had Rousseau been providable for." The story of the nurse who affirmed that the sceptic's death-bed was less than tranquil is dismissed pointedly: "It is not, indeed, impossible that a man dying of cancer may have been sometimes out of spirits; but perhaps it is more likely that the old lady lied." Hume "may be regarded as the acutest thinker in Great Britain of the eighteenth century, and the most qualified interpreter of its intellectual tendencies." In the sketch of John Hunter, the anatomist, it is related that his 'Observations and Reflections on Geology' were suppressed during his lifetime at the instance of a geological friend, who objected to his "use of language which implied that the earth was more than six thousand years old." Under Edmond Hoyle we are told that but one copy of his first treatise on whist has been preserved. The westward-looking portion of this volume of the 'Dictionary' is noticeably strong, embracing the names of Henry Hudson; William Hubbard, the early historian of New England; Anne Hutchinson and Gov. Thomas Hutchinson; Admiral and Gen. Howe; Joseph Howe of Halifax, whose loyalist derivation is overlooked, but who is remembered as having been the occasion of the Cunard Atlantic service; William Humphrys, an Irishman who learned his trade in the United States, and engraved impartially the heads of Washington and Queen Victoria for the postage-stamps of their respective countries; the sculptor Ball Hughes, etc.

—As was to be expected, the new Copyright Law has received much attention abroad, and some recent expressions of opinion are deserving of more than a passing notice. Sir Frederick Pollock's article on "Anglo-American Copyright," in the *Contemporary Review* for April, was valuable chiefly because of the opinion of so eminent a lawyer on the rights of American authors in Great Britain—rights in no way affected by the new law, it should be remembered. Mr. Pollock was severe upon the phraseology of the act, and said that he had sometimes had occasion to criticise the form of English statutes, but must admit that this time the Congress of the United States "has attained a pitch of bad English, awkward and obscure construction, and general clumsiness wholly beyond any recent performances of Parliament, and barely surpassed, if at all, by the Copyright Act of 1842 itself." Mr. C. J. Longman, in the second number of the *Economic Review*, is mainly concerned with the probable effect of the new law in inflicting a certain loss of business upon English printers and the subsidiary book-making trades, which he holds must necessarily follow upon the operation of the American-manufacture clause. He thinks, however, that it is doubtful whether more than five per cent. of the books published in the United Kingdom after July, 1891, will be copyrighted in America. Both Mr. Longman and Mr. Pollock touch upon the question of orthography which is involved in this possible transfer of English book-printing to the United States, and the former believes that the American printers are probably going to be clever enough to adapt their type and spelling to English needs, while the latter does not think that "British authors or publishers will be found ready to sacrifice any considerable part of their gains as confessors against the Websterian heresy, or that the public will largely rally to the cry that Britons never, never, will spell defence with an *s*."

—The entire issue of twelve quarto pages of *Le Droit d'Auteur* for August 15 is devoted to an analysis of our new Copyright Law, which the anonymous writer terms a legislative "novelty," difficult of interpretation. After summarizing the opinions of the press upon the law, he proceeds to analyze its special provisions, first pointing out those which are pronounced unfavorable to the foreign author, the chief of these being, of course, the American-manufacture clause, which he deems aggravated by the stipulation of simultaneous publication. On the whole, this is a very intelligent exposition of our new law. Appended to it are translations of Mr. Moore's report to the President, and Mr. Harrison's proclamation extending the benefits of the act to the citizens of Great Britain, France, Belgium, and Switzerland. A German version of the article by Mr. Otto Mühlbrecht of Berlin is appearing in the *Börsenblatt* of the German book trade, beginning with the issue for September 20. As far back as in 1850, in his 'Social Statics,' Mr. Herbert Spencer forcibly advocated the right of property in ideas, and in his new book, 'Justice,' he repeats his argument under the heading, "The Right of Incorporeal Property," concluding the paragraph in these words: "Considered, then, as a deduction from the fundamental principle of justice, copyright cannot, I think, be questioned with any show of reason." Mr. Spencer, however, has not chosen to avail himself of American copyright for his last book, and, in explaining his reasons for this, he so clearly points out the false economy of the Copyright Act that we are glad to reproduce his words here:

"The fatal defect in the law is, that it puts the author or publisher to the expense of a double manufacture in supplying two communities. In these two communities there are eighty millions of people. In America about ten thousand of these (to make a liberal estimate) are engaged in setting type for reproduction of English publications; and for the sake of benefiting these ten thousand the law compels the eighty millions to pay a higher price for their books. In so far as the new law recognizes the proprietary rights of an author, it may be accepted as a good step in the right direction; but there will have to be a change before the literature which deserves protection can gain any benefit from it. Instead of encouraging the unknown author and the author of serious books, this law makes it harder for him to gain due recognition than it was before. Under this American law the publisher will seek out the man who has made his name; he will buy the popular author's works and distribute them very widely, and meantime the rising man will be left to his own devices. The general effect will be to multiply the reproduction of books which have no serious influence upon the world, and to discourage those who write books of instruction."

—M. Aurélien Scholl, in his *chronique* in the *Matin* of October 24, illustrates in an amusing way the different methods which Dumas the elder and Victor Hugo employed when they had a new play to offer to the theatre. Dumas would write to the director of the Porte-Saint-Martin: "My dear friend: I shall bring you on Monday a play in five acts. I shall need Mlle. Georges, Mme. Dorval, Bocage, Lockroy, Provost, and five new scenes." This extravagance would alarm the director, who would put off the production of the play till better days. Then Victor Hugo would appear and shyly draw a manuscript out of his pocket. He would agree to everything. The stock company would play his piece admirably, since all he wanted was a good *ensemble;* no new decorations would be needed, nor any change at all. So the piece would be read, and as the rôles were distributed, Hugo would say, musingly: "*Dieu*, how fine Frédérick would be in that part!" "That is true," Horel would murmur, and a few days after he would announce that Frédérick was engaged. Hugo would then remonstrate that this destroyed the equipoise of the cast, and Raucourt, Laferrière, and Mlle. Georges would be engaged. Then Hugo would attack the stage setting. Old scenes, that the public had tired of, were almost an insult to these great artists. If Horel showed reluctance at this, Hugo would threaten to withdraw his piece. And so the game would go on, till little by little Hugo had obtained everything he wanted, even to changing the paper-hangings in the stage boxes.

—About twenty years ago was founded in Germany the "Astronomische Gesellschaft," an international association whose office it is to foster astronomical research throughout the world. Bearing the same relation to the Gesellschaft as do those astronomical societies already established in England, France, Russia, and the United States, there has been formed in Berlin a "Society of Friends of Astronomy and Cosmic Physics," with a view to the organization of systematic activity and coöperation in research on the surfaces of the sun, moon, and planets; on the intensity and

color of the light of the stars and of the Milky Way; observations of the zodiacal light and meteors, of the aurora, terrestrial magnetism, earth currents, and atmospheric electricity; also of a restricted class of meteorological phenomena. While the new organization is intended mainly for the scientists of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Switzerland, and other neighboring countries, and natives of these countries in the colonies and elsewhere, other nationalities are also welcome. At present the only publication of the Society will be the 'Mittheilungen der Vereinigung von Freunden der Astronomie und kosmischen Physik,' issued at irregular intervals, and containing communications from individual members of the Verein. In addition to the publication of these papers, and to correspondence, the Society will endeavor to promote research by advice, and aid in providing apparatus of the optic, electric, and magnetic sort. Dr. R. Lehmann-Filhés of Berlin is President of the Society.

MOLTKE'S WAR MEMOIRS.

The Franco-German War of 1870-'71. By Field-Marshal Count Helmuth von Moltke. Translated by Clara Bell and Henry W. Fischer. With a map. Harper & Brothers, 8vo, pp. ix, 432.

If ever a book was strikingly characteristic of the author, this is. Moltke was the incarnation of professional and official system—system so ruled by a high and exact intelligence as to become scientific. The only history of the Franco-German war worth writing or reading, the only true, the only adequate account of it, was, in his judgment, the official staff report as contained in the archives of the General Staff, and published by authority. What was not there, if false, was proved so by its omission, or, if true, must be of the supplementary and personal kind which is trivial and ought to be forgotten. That record, to him, bore to the library of works on that war something like the relation of Omar's Koran to the Alexandria library. If the other books are contrary to it, they should be destroyed; if consistent with it, they are useless—so burn them all.

The only reason which induced him to write this book was, we are told, that the official history is too voluminous and too technical for popular reading. He consented, therefore, to prepare an abridgment of it. As an abridgment, it is perfect. No one else was so competent to make it. His will and his spirit had ruled in the preparation of the large work; the same spirit and the same will give life to the smaller. No concession is made to the popular desire for personal details of motive and of feeling, or for the picturesque elements of battle strife or battle wreck. It would be impossible to find, within its compass, a safer guide in the rushing stream of events, or a stronger grouping of outlines of the several subordinate campaigns. Things are in their proper places, their relations to the principal object of the war are accurately stated, they move on with the steady march of a battalion; but you look in vain for any trace of human emotion, whether pathetic or heroic, as you would look in vain into the faces of the men in battalion line for the heroic purposes, the tragic anticipations, the longing regrets for home, which lie deeper in the soldier's history.

Probably Moltke could not have written otherwise if he would; but he leaves us in no doubt that he would not write otherwise if he could. His nephew tells us in the preface that "he had a dislike to memoirs in general, which he was at no pains to conceal," and so he thought that his personal experiences had better be buried with him. It was in his nature that he should prefer to be known only by the cold lines of official sculpture as cut in the archives—a statue of Nemesis leading the army to dethrone a French emperor and to create a German one. But the world will not be content with even the classic lines of Cæsar's commentaries. It demands histories of the people as well as military reports of field-marshals, and will prize such a chapter as that of Hamerton's in 'Around My House,' where he tells of Garibaldi and his garrison in Autun, and the moods and conduct of the French residents of the vicinity when Keller's brigade attacked the town, more highly than any single chapter of even Moltke's book. The student of history, of course, wants both, and is happy in having them.

Moltke's theory of ignoring all but the official history of the war included the necessity of upholding the loyal fiction that King William was in a real sense the commander of the German army in the field. His loyalty would not have permitted him to put in print, had he lived to publish his own book, what his nephew quotes him as saying, that "it is a pious and patriotic duty never to disturb the prestige which connects the glory of our army with certain high personages." Such a statement implies so clearly that what piety and patriotism forbid one to disturb, is a fiction, that it does more than a long argument could do to show the futility of the perfunctory assumption that kings and princes were the generals who directed the movements of armies. It even destroys their military prestige more than the exactest explanation of the fact might do; for it practically puts them all in the category of mere figure-heads, when the whole truth might show that there were varying degrees of military capacity among them, and that the chief of staff of either grand army or subordinate armies was not quite completely the directing brain. Yet, in obedience to his theory, the staff corps is "piously" ignored, and we do not remember that the chief of staff of any one of the armies is named in connection with its movement. In the body of the book, Moltke tries to act upon the same rule with respect to himself, and though there is little difficulty in reading between the lines, there is no question of the Spartan courage with which he seems to sever his own vital connection with events.

Here, again, the symmetry which he had maintained in his book is broken by his editor in an "appendix," which gives a most interesting view of the man behind the official plate-armor in which he is encased. Publications in Germany had given currency to the belief that both at Königgrätz in 1866, and at Versailles in 1870, councils of war had been called at King William's headquarters to determine what action should be taken in critical junctures of both campaigns. These had been described so circumstantially that Moltke was led to throw aside his usual reticence, and wrote a memorandum for the use of the historian Treitschke, which, in an abridged form, was allowed to appear in a Munich journal shortly after the General's death. The full text of this is given in the appendix, and is one of the best proofs in the world of the convincing force added to the narrative of the most trustworthy and best-informed writer by fulness in that very personal and circumstantial detail which Moltke treats so slightingly. His picture of the doubt they were in, on the 2d of July, 1866, at the King's headquarters at Gitschin in Bohemia; of the dramatic way in which it was solved, after they had gone to bed, by news of the Austrian movements; of the issuing of orders in consequence; of the advance of the army in the early morning; of his own ride to the front, fasting, in the dull showery morning; of the scattering of the royal staff and escort by the shells of the hostile battery; even the incident of a huge ox entangled in the battle and charging forward against the Austrian lines—is a telling sketch of the very highest interest and value, and in itself a complete refutation of his theory that such details are trivial and detract from the proper effect of history.

In both cases Moltke denies absolutely that there was any council of war, and asserts that the formal orders were determined and issued by the King upon his advice alone. The memorandum concludes with a paragraph which, more than anything else that he has written, withdraws the "pious and patriotic" veil from his relations with the King. The suggestions intended for King William, he says, "which I had always discussed beforehand with my staff officers, were generally maturely weighed by his Majesty. He always pointed out, with a military eye and an invariably correct estimate of the position, all the objections which might be raised to their execution; but, as in war every step is beset with danger, the plans laid before him were invariably adopted." This tells pretty nearly the whole story: an intelligent appreciation, on the King's part, of the military situation and the dangers involved, but an "invariable" adoption of the course suggested by the chief of staff.

The form in which the book is presented to American readers is an attractive one. The paper and type are good and the page is a clear one, easily read. The portrait of Moltke in the frontispiece, with the spiked helmet on, is that of the ideal soldier, with strong, resolute mouth and jaw, keen eye, and broad, intelligent forehead. The map in the cover-pocket of the book is a fairly good outline map of the theatre of war, but it is wholly without topographical indications—not even the most prominent mountain ranges are marked. In the vicinity of the greater fields of battle, the names of some of the smaller villages have been crowded in, but by no means all that have been named in the text, and the names of the smaller streams are also wanting. The map gives only the French name of Thionville to the important frontier town and fortress which is uniformly spoken of in the text by the German name of Diedenhofen. This is seriously misleading to any one not familiar with both names. It is quite impossible to read the book intelligently by the aid of this map alone; and if the reader has nothing better at his command, the details of tactical movements might as well have been omitted. Well-executed military maps are costly things, but some simple kind of sketch ought to be possible which should show with approximate accuracy the relative position of all the villages, hamlets, and farmhouses which are named in the text, with the true courses and names of all streams of water. Hills and woods may be described in words when the general sketch is accurate to the extent indicated. The modern cheap methods of zinc etching would seem to bring this degree of assistance within reach without greatly increasing the cost of a book. If the large map which is furnished were supplemented by such sketches of the vicinity of Metz, Sedan, Paris, Orléans, Le Mans, Dijon, and Belfort, the usefulness of the book would be doubled. There is, in the corner of the

large map, one on a larger scale of the environs of Paris, but it is quite inadequate. We are astonished, too, to find that the volume has no index whatever.

The translation is, on the whole, a good one, but the translators have fallen into some errors from lack of technical knowledge of military organization. Thus (p. 9) they say "the railway transport of the troops of the second and third corps was to end at the Rhine," when the second and third "armies" are meant; the grand army of the Germans being divided into three subordinate armies, each composed of two or more "corps." The second "corps" was not included in the first movement to the Rhine at all. Again (p. 10), we are told that on receiving orders to move, "the colonel in command of the third army corps desired to wait for the fourth and its baggage train." It need hardly be said that no colonel was in command of a corps in the German army. The triple error is explained when we read later (p. 11) that the third "army" was ordered to cross the frontier on "August fourth," without waiting any longer for the "batteries" to come up. Still again (p. 317), when Gen. von Manteuffel was sent to command the army in the southeast, we are told that the "supreme command" (command-in-chief) of the "first army corps" was given to Gen. von Goeben. Manteuffel had commanded the first "army" and Goeben succeeded him in that command. On p. 337 there is an omission where it is stated that the "second corps" was in the new command of Manteuffel, and immediately after, no other being named, we are told that "these two corps" were to be increased by another. The army consisted at first of the second and seventh corps, and the fourteenth was added later. On p. 344, the fifteenth army corps is mentioned where fourteenth is meant.

Errors not so serious are the following: At the beginning of the war we are told (p. 7) the mobilized forces were divided into three independent armies on a basis worked out by "the General of the Prussian staff." What Moltke said was, of course, "the Prussian general staff." In the account of the battle of Mars-la-tour we read (p. 46) "an order from the Commander-in-chief was issued at seven o'clock." The order was from Prince Frederick Charles, commanding the second army, and as the grand army under the King was concentrating, the term commander-in-chief is liable to mislead unless qualified. In more than one place the "losses" of an army are spoken of as all "killed." At Weissenburg, the first combat of the Crown Prince, it is said (p. 13) that he had 91 officers and 1,460 men "killed." At Sedan, we read (p. 101) that the French had 17,000 "killed"! On page 159 it is said that "by the exchange of German prisoners for those French who had fought at Sedan, the news of the surrender of Metz, which had immediately followed, was generally known." This is nonsense. The translation should read, "the news of the surrender (of Sedan) which had immediately followed, was generally known in Metz." Sedan surrendered on the 2d of September, Metz not till the 27th of October.

Other minor errors in translation and in typography might be pointed out, but those we have noted are important as affecting the sense and not the mere form of the narrative. It is not strange that they should occur, for it would be stranger if any other than a competent military man could escape some misapprehensions in translating a work which necessarily has much that is technical in it.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Witch of Prague. By F. Marion Crawford. Illustrated by W. J. Hennessy. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

The Faith Doctor: A Story of New York. By Edward Eggleston. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

One Reason Why.—On the Lake of Lucerne, and Other Stories. By Beatrice Whitby. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

Betty Alden: The First-born Daughter of the Pilgrims. By Jane G. Austin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

MR. CRAWFORD has forestalled criticism by calling his 'Witch of Prague' "a fantastic tale." An enemy might call it grotesque. It deals with hypnotism and true love, and tells the story of a Wanderer. If, as Mr. Crawford seems to think, hypnotism of the sort dealt with in this story is an established art, the tale is important, for it is well to be on our guard against such diabolic personages as a witch who, in the "so-called nineteenth century," has power to produce at will a total change of mind and character in her victim. Magic is a dangerous field for the novelist, and to the best of our knowledge and belief the secret of creating an atmosphere of mystery by hinting a non-natural explanation of a questionable fact died with Hawthorne. Mr. Crawford's mistake is that he will *insist* when we can endure nothing stronger than suggestion. The best thing in the story is the aged man whose life is artificially prolonged in sleep.

The motive of 'The Faith Doctor' is easily conveyed by the title, indicating a modern phase of that instinct in ailing humanity which seeks relief from pain by supernatural agencies. Dr. Eggleston's psychologic lancet probes in various directions, penetrating the social and religious shams and foibles of fashionable New York, as well as the mushroom sciences which have sprung up in the favoring soil of times which he calls still the middle ages. If he had touched the vulnerable points in the region of legitimate medicine by instancing the elixirs that have been proclaimed by some of the very elect, his criticism of modern credulity would have been still more accentuated. Polemics is dear to Dr. Eggleston's heart, and his subject offers many temptations, but he contents himself with clever, satiric touches which heighten the effect of his story. Indeed, were it not for these touches, the story would be rather tame, for the fortunes of the young faith-doctor, Phillida, and her fastidious lover do not inspire keen interest. Phillida is neither a strong nor a pathetic figure, although her sincerity commands respect and her innocent mistakes awaken sympathy. Even with the softening of her mental angularities by painful experiences, she does not gain in attractiveness. Mrs. Frankland, the Bible reader, is an admirable study. With a genius for religious expression, inherited from Quaker ancestry, she finds her vocation in expounding the Bible to fashionable audiences, producing the comfortable effect of making her hearers "more religious without being less worldly." As compared with Dr. Eggleston's previous novels, 'The Faith Doctor' shows a decided gain in literary finish, in spite of persistence in a tiresome reiteration of the mannerisms of some of his characters. But the atmosphere of New York does not seem to be altogether friendly to his peculiar genius, for with the refining process there is a loss of the flesh-and-blood qualities which have made his former characters friends and companions.

A successful first novel is by no means an unmixed blessing either to the author or the reading public. Miss Whitby's first venture, 'The Awakening of Mary Fenwick,' deservedly won high praise. There was a naturalness in the management of the details of a highly dramatic situation which showed great power. But in her latest novel, 'One Reason Why,' naturalness has degenerated into childishness, and freshness of style into exaggerated vivacity. These faults intrude even into pathetic situations, and the frequent use of inappropriate quotations gives to the author's moral reflections a farcical turn which is fatal to their dignity. These traces of hasty writing make one regret that Miss Whitby's early success has made future study and hard work seem less imperative. Two of the tales in the collection entitled, 'On the Lake of Lucerne, and Other Stories,' reflect the qualities that brought their author into flattering notice; the others point the inevitable result of what Hosea Biglow calls a "milkin' o' the wits."

Mrs. Austin's enthusiasm for delving in Colonial records seems unabated, for 'Betty Alden' follows close upon her Puritan sisters, the daughters of LeBaron, although chronologically she should take precedence. She is a fair and modest maiden, with a dash of Priscilla Alden's piquancy, and we regret that we catch only tantalizing glimpses of this first-born daughter of the Pilgrims as she moves among the historical figures who crowd our author's pages. The story of the hardships and high courage of the Plymouth colonists will always be interesting, and Mrs. Austin has recalled to us the high-born women and brave men who lent grace and dignity to the lowliest toil, and has given pleasant, homely pictures of the sedate merry-makings which relieved somewhat the strenuousness of the daily life of our forefathers; but, after reading two or three of her historical novels, we are forced to ascribe pretty distinct limitations to her powers. A lack of self-restraint in keeping minor characters in abeyance, and a poverty in the creative material which is always needed to fill up the gaps left open by history, are noticeable. Aside from these limitations, too, there is room for improvement in literary form. Mrs. Austin's sentences sometimes contain such a superfluity of words that they trip over one another in confusion. A longer period between these stories, giving time for more careful writing, would add greatly to their value.

Business Openings for Girls. By Sallie Joy White. Boston: D. Lothrop Company.

Thrown upon Her Own Resources: or, What Girls Can Do. By Mrs. J. C. Croly (Jenny June). Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

The New Womanhood. By James C. Fernald. With introduction by Marion Harland. Boston: D. Lothrop Company.

WE should like to see the modest little volume of a hundred and fifty pages called 'Business Openings for Girls' in the hands of every girl and woman who, in the words of the author, "either needs to earn money because she must be a breadwinner, or who wants to earn it in order to be independent." It is not addressed to those who wish to "study medicine, or law, or theology," but to "every-day, wide-awake, alert girls who have business capacity and prefer an active life to the sedentary one of the student." The reasons given why a larger proportion of such girls do not succeed in rising from the ranks are twofold. They are

not put to learn a business from the beginning upward, as boys are, without regard to salary at first, and they too often look upon their work as a temporary makeshift until marriage. The remedy in the first case is that the training process shall be tried (as has actually been done with eminent success by a Boston firm instanced), and in the second case that "as much heart and brain" shall be put into work "as if one expected to do it for ever." The range of work treated of in the different chapters is wide, extending from stenography and typewriting to pickling and preserve-making at home, and mending at home or from house to house. The comparatively new field for guides and shoppers is not overlooked, and several successful ventures of women in real-estate brokerage and "insurance and advertising" are concisely noted.

To "newspaper-workers" Mrs. White speaks out of the fulness of twenty years' experience on the staff of the Boston *Herald*. She is averse to the more sounding title of journalist, and what she has to say on the subject of a misnomer in vogue among the over-considerate or falsely sensitive is so sensible that it deserves to be quoted in full: they (girls) "must not turn the sympathy of the public whom they serve to ridicule and contempt, by speaking of themselves as 'saleslades,' but honestly, simply, and correctly, as 'saleswomen,' until such time as they shall become the proprietors, wholly or in part, of an establishment, when they will be 'merchants.'" If there be a hollow spot in the book, we think it is to be found in the chapter on "artistic and hygienic dressmaking." But, on the whole, it would be difficult to find anywhere else encouragement at once so sound and so genial to girls and women to seek happiness and dignity in honest work.

The tone and intention of the second of the three volumes named above is another proof, if more are needed, of the revolution that has taken place in all active minds concerning the right and safe way for girls to regard life. The conscientious father or mother of the present generation feels that voluntary idleness on the part of their daughters would be as dangerous as the desire to learn a profession or a trade was formerly felt to be. The writer of 'Thrown upon Her Own Resources' goes so far as to say that "work, and work for pay, is the motto of to-day for girls who wish to prove themselves true daughters of the nineteenth century." As is apt to be the case with aphorisms, this one leaves out of account the large amount of valuable unpaid work, public and other, that has been begun and must be carried on by women, wholly or in part. Still there is much common sense in a point of view which is represented by the further generalization that "the equal performance of contract between men and women, as between man and man, is the greatest step that has been taken [by] or conceded to women in this age of advancement." As a whole, this book suffers from lack of arrangement and too much discursiveness. The advice to working-girls—by no means new, but doubtless as much needed as if it were—loses much of its force through irrelevant allusions. Read as a series of familiar talks, the volume will be interesting to many; to give it serious usefulness, decidedly more matter and more art would be needed.

The profuse use of capital letters is not an infallible sign of originality. 'The New Womanhood' does, however, disclose some points of view that are peculiar to the author. Thus, the future college for women is to have a "Professorship of Applied Science," with cookery (including object-lessons in marketing) and what might in a hospital be called a diet kitchen for subject-matter; if time is needed for all this, it is to be "taken from the study of the Merovingian Dynasty, or from drawing upon the blackboard the frightful proportions of the ichthyosaurus or pterodactyl." In the chapter headed "Sex of Soul" we learn that man delights in "Abstraction"; he can "range the fields where the intangible shades of the mighty speak in deep whispers and play at mimic games; and he can disembody his own spirit, enter the ideal contest, and bring back its skill into common life." In these refreshing exercises the "Coming Woman" must not hope to share. But there will apparently be no limit to the altruism she will indulge in—though this would hardly seem fair to the coming man, if altruistic pleasures are to become so intensified that each person will, according to Mr. Herbert Spencer, be debarred from their undue pursuit in order to leave scope for the enjoyment of others. It would, however, be a thankless task to attempt to pull to pieces the flowers of fancy that grow so thickly in this ample volume. Most of them are of a species of perennial growth with which every one is familiar.

The Abbess of Port Royal, and Other French Studies. By Maria Ellery MacKaye. With an Introduction by Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

"We sometimes see the remark made, that while American women are making large contributions to poetry and fiction, they are not yet doing their full share of thoughtful and studious literary work. Such a volume as the present helps to refute that criticism. Many years of enlightened study, both in this country and Paris, have helped to mature the execution and broaden the background of these French stories."

Thus begins Mr. Higginson's introduction to this little collection of articles reprinted from magazines. We regret that we do not share his opinion that the book is likely to enhance the reputation of one half of the human race on this continent. These essays do not seem to us to give any great evidence of "thoughtful and studious literary work," still less of "many years of enlightened study." They are such papers as a well-educated woman, familiar with the French language and not very strong in handling her own, could easily prepare in a very few weeks. As articles in the *Atlantic Monthly* and the *Galaxy*, they might well pass muster, and since there has been a demand for them, there was no harm in their republication; but why should they be heralded with such a trumpet blast?

Miss (or Mrs.) MacKaye has chosen very good if not very new subjects, and is evidently interested in them. The longest and most ambitious of her papers is that on Port Royal, from which the volume takes its name. To give a clear and minute account of that famous monastery, of the very interesting woman who was its abbess, and of the earlier part of the Jansenist movement, in forty three pages, would require great literary talent. Our author has made a mistake not uncommon with beginners: she tells us too many things and introduces too many people for the space she has allowed herself, so that the impression left on the reader's mind is indistinct. Moreover, her style is sometimes ambiguous, and her composition may be described as scrappy. The same criticism may be made on the essay on "French Women before the Revolution." It is a readable paper, not very well planned nor very carefully thought out.

The article on Beaumarchais is better than either of these. The Life of the author of "Figaro" by Loménie is followed, and that is a very good book. Miss MacKaye has apparently not heard of the later work of Bettelheim, who, by means of the archives at Vienna, laid bare the trick which Beaumarchais tried in vain to play on the Empress Maria Theresa. There are few more grotesque stories in literary history than that of Figaro, in the guise of a secret agent of the French Government, pretending to chase an imaginary writer of libels on Marie Antoinette across Europe, and wounding himself in a fictitious deadly combat with impossible brigands near Nuremberg. In this episode we have Beaumarchais at his worst. He appears at his best as a contractor assisting the American "insurgents" against Great Britain in the Revolutionary War. But here again Miss MacKaye follows Loménie too closely. While it would be difficult to be too severe on the conduct of the United States towards their great contractor in the later years of their dealing with him, there is much excuse for their failing to understand his position in 1777 and 1778.

The purely literary essays, again, are better than the historical. The 'Song of Roland' is an inspiring subject, and the translations of passages from the great epic here given are tolerably smooth. But any one who would become acquainted with this noble poem in English should turn to the admirable version of O'Hagan, which is a masterpiece of poetical translation. In the paper on Provençal Song we have another good article, and the author's rhymed translations are readable. "The Marvels of Mont Saint Michel" is a pleasant sketch. In conclusion, we may say that if the reader will, in spite of the introduction, expect no more from this little book than the author offers, he may find both profit and pleasure in it.

Life and Letters of Joseph Hardy Neesima. By Arthur Sherburne Hardy. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Prof. Hardy had the best of materials for the biography he has written, and has used them in the best way. Content to serve as editor of Neesima's letters, journals, and other writings, he has allowed them to give their own clear impression of the life which their publishing was meant to commemorate, and has added little more than the necessary dovetailing and explanations.

The dominant note in the simple and attractive character here revealed was the craving for intellectual expansion, first for himself and then for his people. Those of our readers who have heard of Neesima at all have doubtless heard of him only as the Christian minister and missionary, who fled from his native Japan at the age of twenty-one in order to satisfy his hunger for the Gospel, and to prepare himself to carry it back to his countrymen. But this is a narrower account of his "great aim" than he himself gave. What he thirsted for was access to the store of knowledge in the keeping of Western nations, and what he labored most earnestly to establish in Japan was a system of education after the American and European model. He accepted Christianity most heartily, even passionately, but as a part only of that great product and accompaniment of civilization which he wished to appropriate. This is clear from the first letter of his given in the volume—a most pathetic account of his struggles to reach America and the motives that led him hither, written out in broken English for his benefactor, the late Mr. Alpheus Hardy; and it is also clear from some of his last utterances, after

his return to Japan. For example: "If we simply teach theology and the Bible, I fear the best Japanese youth will not stay with us. They want modern science also" (p. 195). "Our good missionary friends have thus far tried to teach the Bible too much and neglected scientific teaching" (p. 228). "Some of our dear brethren have got very strange notions, and think altogether too little of education" (p. 235). In the course of an appeal to Japanese, published in twenty different newspapers of the empire, he said of the University he was striving to found: "If any one says that our purpose is the propagation of religion and the culture of Christian ministers, we must tell him that he knows us not at all, for we went to work with a broader purpose. . . . By the side of the theological course already established, we wish to establish courses in politics, economics, philosophy, literature, law, etc., thus making a true university" (p. 316); and on the day before his death, in a sort of last will and testament, he wrote: "The object of the Doshisha [the name of his school] is the advancement of Christianity, literature, and science, and the furtherance of all education. These are to be pursued together as mutually helpful" (p. 326).

With the correction of the popular idea of the man in this particular, the book also yields a very engaging impression of his personality. Warm-hearted yet courageous, of slight physique and fragile health, but with an iron grip of will, he left at Andover and Amherst the record of a stainless life of the highest aims. One of the greatest opportunities of his life was that of travelling with the Japanese embassy of 1872, in this country and in Europe, and Prof. Hardy says that "it was on the basis of his reports that Mr. Tanaka . . . laid the foundation of the present educational system of Japan." Dying at forty-six, with the last regret, "I have been able to do so little, owing to my feeble health," he yet can be truthfully said to have left his country much in his debt, and particularly to have made unequalled contributions to the missionary problem in Japan.

The History of Commerce in Europe. By H. De B. Gibbins. Macmillan & Co.

THIS is the first of a new series of commercial class-books to be edited by James Gow. They are designed primarily for young students preparing for commercial examinations, but are adapted for use in any schools where it is thought desirable to study the ordinary branches in the light of their application to business life. Mr. Gibbins has produced a clearly written and well-arranged text-book. Perhaps the plan of the series did not allow it, but a more detailed sketch than it was possible to give in 210 pages would have been of greater service. A serious deficiency, which can easily be supplied, is the absence of a brief bibliography. If the author had given a little more attention to this matter, he might have saved himself the unhappy opening statement of his preface, that his own is the first connected history of commerce in Europe in the English language. Yeats's 'Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce in All Ages' is a work of considerable merit, and deserves Mr. Gibbins's attention, even if it result in his ceasing to regard himself as a pioneer in this field.

A few points may be mentioned in which the present manual may receive revision. It is too strong to say (p. 35) that "the law of nearly all Europe except England is to this day derived directly from the Theodosian Code." If Mr. Gibbins had carefully examined the question in Heyd's 'Geschichte des Levantehandels,' he would never have devoted half a page to the Danube route from Constantinople to Germany in the time of Charlemagne. Heyd considers it very doubtful whether it was used to any extent at that time. On p. 166, Charles V. is said to have become King of Italy after the campaign of 1527, "and when he abdicated, his power passed to his son Philip II." Mr. Gibbins here sadly confuses the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies with the Empire. We trust it is not pedantic to object to Wenceslaus being styled "nominal Emperor of Germany and Rome." To say nothing of the fact that this was not the style of any mediæval monarchs, Wenceslaus was only *Rex Romanorum*, never technically Emperor. So loose a geographical phrase as "Dalmatian coast of Greece" (p. 49) has no excuse. The narrative grows more interesting as the author emerges from mediæval times; and he is evidently more at home in his material. In tracing the transition to the modern period, however, the influence of the crusades is not sufficiently emphasized, nor is the direct stimulus which the interruption of Eastern commerce by the Turks in the fifteenth century gave to the voyages of discovery, clearly enough brought out.

Drei Monate Fabrikarbeiter und Handwerksbursche: eine praktische Studie von Paul Göhre, Kandidaten der Theologie. Leipzig: F. W. Grunow. 1891. 8vo, pp. 222.

WITH the beginning of June, 1890, Herr Göhre hung his candidate's coat on its peg and became a factory hand. At Chemnitz, a stronghold of socialism, he worked for three months as roustabout in a large machine-building establishment, spending his evenings and his Sundays undetected in the company of his fellow-workmen. His report of what he saw and heard, although written in a style which, when it is not turgid with adjectives, borders closely upon student slang, nevertheless bears many marks of careful observation and honest record. The book is divided into eight chapters. The first tells how, after many difficulties, he found work; the last is a summary. The other six describe the material situation of the workmen, their labor in the factory, the agitation of the social democracy, the social and political sentiments of the workmen, their education and Christianity, and their moral condition.

The factory in which Herr Göhre worked busied about five hundred men, with some one hundred and fifty of whom in the construction shops he came into more or less intimate contact. It is impossible to reproduce in a few words the multitude of interesting observations which he made concerning the material situation of his fellow-workmen. Their education in the elementary branches he found, on the whole, quite respectable, and their thirst for knowledge exceedingly great. On this point he says, with what truth we cannot of course determine: "The desire for education finds its most direct and most stupendous expression in the international agitation for the eight-hour day. That movement is not simply a manifestation of pure laziness and frivolity, of arrogance and contrariness, nor merely an expression of the notions and economic demands of the social democracy, but at the same time, also, an evidence, according to my observation and conviction, of the eagerness of the factory hands for more light, truth, and knowledge."

The discussion of the attitude of the laborers towards Christianity is largely given up to conversations in which the author argued with his fellow-workmen for the existence of God and for the immortality of the soul. It is noteworthy how completely the argument from design, with its easy refutation, has become, outside the pulpit, a thing of the past. Scarcely one of the scoffers stooped to suggest that a good God could not have planned a world so ill. On the other hand, they advanced frequently and skilfully the group of arguments which, in the minds of many people, connects itself, more or less justly, with the name of Darwin. Herr Göhre, who apparently has reached, by some one of the methods just at present in vogue, an entirely satisfactory "reconciliation of science and religion," sees in this tendency of the workingmen the result of miseducation through popular literature distributed by the Socialists. "They have misused the confidence which the people granted them, and given not modern science, but an extract therefrom fitted for the purposes of their agitation." But it is not alone in education that the Socialistic party, by taking advantage of the omissions of others, has grown powerful. In politics, also, it makes itself felt. "The whole working class of Chemnitz and its environs, so far as I became acquainted with them," writes Herr Göhre, "are to-day, with but trifling exceptions, to some extent connected with the Social Democratic party; they live more or less in its ideas, and see in it, this workingman's party *par excellence*, their only strong and professed representative." He soon found, however, that only a small proportion, "not more than three or four per cent. of the whole number," were thorough-going Socialists, clearly understanding the principles and programme of the party. Such he calls, with a certain dry humor not wholly absent from other parts of the book, "the élite" of Socialism. Among the rest there was no uniformity of political or social sentiment, but, on the contrary, the utmost diversity of opinion. In fact, with the majority of these average Social Democrats, "and especially with the shrewder, more thoughtful, practical, experienced and ripened men among them [we try to translate all the author's adjectives], neither the official democratic republicanism of the party, nor its economic communism, was generally popular." And each man not only retained his opinion, but did not hesitate to utter it among his party fellows, and was, as a rule, much more exercised about the practical questions of the business he understood than about a democratic or communistic social order.

This view of the case, illustrated and confirmed by many conversations with his fellows, has earned for Herr Göhre on one hand the cordial detestation of the Socialistic press, which denounces him as a masquerading fraud, by his own confession a frequent liar, and hence unworthy of belief at any time, and, on the other hand, the complacent approval of the bourgeois reviewer, who folds his hands and thanks heaven for sending Herr Göhre to show him that the Social Democracy is not a bomb but a bubble. In fact, the German Social Democracy is no bubble, nor is it in immediate danger of bursting like one. Numbers, and especially solidarity, are what the party just now needs, and it does not lack leaders capable of a shrewd effort to give it both. But to suppose that these "élite Socialists," whatever change of platform they may consider politic for the moment, have yielded jot or tittle of their fundamental conviction, betrays a thoroughly bourgeois inability to compre-

hend either that conviction or the zeal with which they hold it. Karl Marx, and after him every "scientific" Socialist, regard the Socialistic State as inevitable. Throughout history he traces the operation of laws which must bring it about as surely as the sun holds the planets in their orbits. His "materialistic philosophy of history"—so misnamed—is bred in the bone of Socialism, is in reality the very backbone of the Socialistic body politic.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alarcón, P. A. de. The Three-Cornered Hat. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Alger, Horatio, Jr. The Five Hundred Dollar Check. United States Book Co. $1.25.
Atkinson, Rev. J. C. The Last of the Giant-Killers. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Blades, William. The Pentateuch of Printing, with a Chapter on Judges. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $4.50.
Bowen, Prof. B. L. Introduction to Modern French Lyrics. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.
Byron, Lord. Childe Harold. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Carlyle, T. Heroes and Hero-Worship. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Exercises in Rhetoric and English Composition. Boston: Willard Small.
Catherwood, Mrs. M. H. The Lady of Fort St. John. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Chandler, H. P. The Lover's Year-Book of Poetry. Vol. I. January to June. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Church, Rev. A. J. The Burning of Rome; or, A Story of the Days of Nero. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Clark, Andrew. The Colleges of Oxford: Their History and Traditions. London: Methuen & Co.
Clark, E. B. Twelve Months in Peru. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Collins, H. The International Date Line. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 15 cents.
Crane, Walter. Queen Summer; or, The Tourney of the Lily and the Rose. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.50.
Crim, Matt. Adventures of a Fair Rebel. Charles L. Webster & Co.
De Quincey, Thomas. Uncollected Writings. 2 vols. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Dickinson, Emily. Poems. Second Series. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Downes, W. H. Arcadian Days: American Landscapes in Nature and Art. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Fitch, Clyde. The Knighting of the Twins, and Ten Other Tales. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Foote, Rev. H. W. Thy Kingdom Come; Ten Sermons on the Lord's Prayer. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Foster, Prof. M. A Text Book of Physiology. Part IV. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Francis, Mrs. H. E. By Land and Sea. Troy, N. Y.: Nims & Knight.
Furneaux, H. The Annals of Tacitus. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Gage, Prof. S. H. The Microscope and Histology. Part I. Third edition. Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus & Church. $1.
Ganconagh. John Sherman, and Dhoya. [The "Unknown" Library.] Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Gestefeld, Ursula N. A Chicago Bible Class. United States Book Co. $1.25.
Gibson, W. H. Sharp Eyes: A Rambler's Calendar. Harper & Bros.
Goethe, J. W. Wilhelm Meister. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Gomme, G. L. The Gentleman's Magazine Library. Places. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Gorton, M. J. The Drama of the Cycle, and Other Poems. Boston: J. G. Cupples.
Hall, Hubert. The Antiquities and Curiosities of the Exchequer. [The Camden Library.] London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.75.
Henderson, W. J. Preludes and Studies; Musical Themes of the Day. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
History of Calvary Baptist Church. New York: E. Scott.
Howells, W. D. Venetian Life. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Hume, Fergus. The Year of Miracle. John W. Lovell Co. 30 cents.
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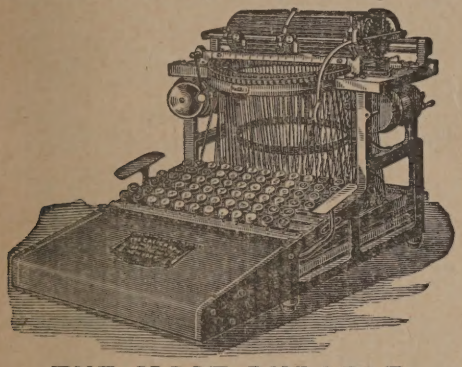

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 26, 1891.

The Week.

THE date fixed for the National Republican Convention, June 7, is spoken of in some quarters as unusually early, but this is not the case. In 1880 the Republicans called their Convention to meet on June 2, and the Democrats called theirs for June 22. In 1884 the dates were, Republican June 3, and Democratic July 8. In 1888, the Democrats took the lead, fixing their date at June 5, and the Republicans following with June 19. What the Democrats will do this year remains to be seen, but it seems improbable that they will fix upon a date earlier than that chosen by the Republicans, for the only reason apparent, namely, the "moral effect" of being first in the field. The campaign is long enough to satisfy both parties when the nominations are made fully four months before election. In fact, there is always a lull of a month or two after the conventions meet, neither party beginning the campaign in earnest much before the first of September. As regards the city chosen for the Republican Convention next year, Minneapolis, we are unable to detect any poignant regret in this part of the country over the fact that New York has lost it. We presume the fact of the Republicans going West to make their nominations will send the Democrats there too, and the latter will therefore be spared the peril of having their Convention assemble under the auspices of Tammany Hall.

Hill is employing his last days at Albany in a determined attempt to steal the control of the Legislature from the Republicans. Despite Flower's large majority for Governor, the Democrats did not secure the Legislature. The responsibility for this failure really rests upon the Governor. A reapportionment based upon a State census in 1885 would undoubtedly have given the Democrats a majority in each branch this year. Such a census was ordered by the Constitution, and would have been made had not Hill vetoed a bill providing for it passed by the Republicans, which was of precisely the same character as the one signed by Tilden ten years before. Having, by his folly years ago, lost his party the Legislature in the election this fall, Hill set out after election to recover control of the body by fraud. He has had his "heelers" at work to this end all over the State, Deputy Attorney-General Maynard taking the lead in the disreputable business. It culminated on Monday in the proceedings of the Dutchess County Supervisors at Poughkeepsie. The returns from the Senatorial district of which Dutchess constitutes a part showed a plurality for Deane, the Republican candidate. The Board of Supervisors is controlled by the Democrats, and on Monday they pushed through, without explanation or opportunity for discussion, a resolution giving Osborne, the Democratic candidate, enough additional votes in Dutchess County to overcome the Republican plurality in the rest of the district and give him a plurality of 14. As the County Clerk refused to sign these returns, the Democratic majority of the Board appointed a substitute and hurried him off to file the papers at Albany. All this action was in plain violation of explicit provisions of the statute, which denies the Board of County Canvassers any authority to throw out votes, as was done in this case by the score. The Republicans will, of course, appeal to the courts, and there should be no doubt that justice will be done in the matter.

This latest performance of Hill's, like so many previous ones, will hurt the prospects of the Democratic party, not merely in New York, but throughout the country. There is nothing which is more offensive to independent men than such attempts to alter the results of an election. The Republicans have always suffered from the performances of the Louisiana and Florida Returning Boards in 1876, by which, as candid members of the party now universally admit, the man who was entitled to the Presidency was defrauded out of it. People are in no mood nowadays to condone a repetition of the Returning-Board business in New York. Nor will all voters discriminate as to the responsibility for such actions. It is not simply "Dave" Hill who commits them; it is the Democratic Governor of the chief State in the Union.

That is a bright idea which is agitating the politicians of Kansas—the idea of electing a proxy Senator to represent the State in the departments at Washington. The movement was conceived as a means of mortifying the new Senator, Peffer, and perhaps forcing him to resign. The presumption is, that if Peffer is denied the privilege of scouring the departments to get places for Kansas office-seekers and to obtain garden seeds and copies of the Patent Office Report for his constituents, he will be lonesome, and will become gradually weary of life, so that after a year or two he will resign or commit suicide. This conception of the Senatorial career prevails extensively among the spoils politicians. There are few Mugwumps in Kansas to present the opposing view of a Senator giving his time and strength to the study of the Constitution and laws, with now and then a dip into political economy, and really enjoying that kind of life. What a Kansas Senator ought to be doing, and to enjoy doing, is the getting of "something equally as good" for every able-bodied man in his State of his own political party. Peffer, of course, cannot fill this rôle, because his party is not in power at Washington. Hence all the greater need of a proxy Senator to be elected by the Legislature and paid by the State. We hope that the novelty of this experiment will not deter the Kansas politicians from carrying their idea into practice. It would be a much greater reform than they imagine, and would probably extend to all the States in time. New York, just at this time, is in great need of a proxy Senator, having lost one Republican from the upper house. Mr. Thomas C. Platt is exercising the functions of such a proxy by turning people out of the Custom-house and other people into it, etc., etc. He ought to be recognized by a formal election. He ought to have a commission which he could show, and which other persons, like ex-Collector Erhardt, could compel him to show. There is really more in this project for proxy Senators than appears on the surface; but we think that the idea of causing Peffer to resign from mortification will hardly be realized.

The woman suffragists in Kansas held a convention last week, and resolved to seek the passage by the next Legislature of an act giving their sex the right to vote in all other elections, as they now enjoy it in municipal elections. In most States the chief support of woman suffrage has come from the Republican party, and it was a Republican Legislature in Kansas which enacted the municipal-suffrage law. But the politicians have been sadly disappointed in the result. At the last elections the women in several of the chief cities voted largely with the Democrats, and thereby gave that party control of the government of Topeka and other places. Some of the managers became so indignant that they declare not only that they will not extend woman suffrage, but that they will take away the right to vote so far as the sex now enjoys it. Very likely this feeling will prove strong enough to prevent further legislation for some time to come, but there is little probability that any step backward will be taken.

Admiral Brown said on Thursday at San Francisco:

> "The statement that the papers got out extras stating that, by the kindness of the *San Francisco's* officers, they gave particulars of the landing at Quintero, is altogether false. The papers did not publish anything of the kind."

The Admiral must, then, have been extraordinarily ignorant of what was going on under his nose. A copy of the Valparaiso *Gaceta Comercial* of August 21 was sent to this office by an American residing in Chili. Under the headline, "A Battle at Hand!" it gave an account of the military situation, beginning: "From trustworthy news brought by the United States war-ship *San Francisco* yesterday, we know for a certainty that the revolutionists have disembarked, from their twelve transports and six war-vessels, about 8,000 men in the vicinity of Concon and Quintero." We give Admiral Brown

the credit of supposing that his denial was not based on a mere quibble over the word "extras." The issue of the paper was not an extra edition, so far as we know. Nor has anybody asserted that the information was given by the "*San Francisco's* officers." But the Admiral could not have been relying upon any such verbal quibble, for he added sweepingly, "The papers did not publish anything of the kind." But we have shown that one paper most decidedly did.

Judge Ross, of the United States District Court in California, has sentenced three young Yuma Indians to death for killing an old medicine man who had undertaken to make rain and had failed to do so, such failure being, under the tribal laws, punishable with death. We sincerely trust the sentence will not be carried out. The execution of these men would be justifiable only on the assumption that the production of rain at will would be a miracle, or, in other words, a departure from the ordinary course of nature, and that the Indians had, therefore, no right to expect it from any man. This, it is true, has been the accepted view of rain-making in the United States from the foundation of the Government. The Indian rain-maker has always been regarded as an impostor and a subject of ridicule. But this view has been formally and officially abandoned. Congress has accepted the Indian theory that rain can be produced by the use of certain arts or incantations, in defiance of or in disregard of the explanation of Nature's mode of producing rain given by the modern physicists. It has voted money for the expenses of white rain-makers possessing no more scientific equipment than the savage medicine men, and one of our executive departments has actually appointed medicine men for the express purpose of producing departures from the previously recognized order of nature. This return to the practices of a very early culture—for the Yuma culture is undoubtedly very primitive—imposes on our courts, as it seems to us, the obligation to treat the Yuma mode of keeping the rain-makers in order with a certain respect, and would even justify the judges in borrowing and in recognizing in their decisions some of the Yuma sanctions. How do we know, for instance, with our limited experience of rain-making, that rain-makers can be kept up to their work except by the remorseless application of the death penalty? Is not the tribal law, in all probability, an induction from a large body of facts collected during many ages? If these young men should now be hanged, and we should discover, a year or two hence, during a great drought, that the execution of Dyrenforth was a terrible necessity, should we not all suffer the keenest remorse? Let us ask, too, whether, in the present state of our knowledge, any rain-maker should be left at large? The Indian rain-makers are virtually kept in custody because there is for a savage no escape from his tribe; but Dyrenforth may fly to Canada or Europe any day.

The kind of moral influence which a Tammany Board of Excise disseminates in a Christian community is forcibly illustrated by the latest evidence regarding the proximity of liquor-saloons and other dens of iniquity and vice to public-school buildings. Mr. W. N. Wilmer, a former school inspector, a member of the bar, and a man of the highest character, displayed much activity in seeking to have the Board of Excise enforce the law prohibiting the granting of a license to any place in the "immediate vicinity" of a schoolhouse. He tried in vain to get the Board to specify the distance implied in "immediate vicinity," and then he went to work to obtain evidence from police captains concerning the exact condition of affairs about several schoolhouses. He found within 200 yards of one of them 23 barrooms; within the same distance of another 15 barrooms and 5 houses of ill-fame; within the same distance of another 10 barrooms, of another 18 barrooms, of another 11 barrooms, and of another 13 barrooms. He endeavored to get the Board of Education to help him in the correction of this frightful state of things, but his reports were pigeonholed. When the Mayor's new appointments for School Commissioners and Inspectors came out a few days ago, Mr. Wilmer's name was not among them. Tammany has no use for officials of his kind.

The *Tri-Weekly Gleaner*, a Kingston (Jamaica) newspaper, in its issue of November 10, has a long article on the reciprocity clause of the McKinley Bill as bearing upon Jamaican trade. In substance it maintains that the rates of duty in the Jamaican tariff cannot be considered "unequal and unreasonable" by the United States, since they are levied on all goods alike, even upon those coming from England, and are, moreover, in both design and effect, purely revenue duties. In a subordinate paragraph the *Gleaner* makes an important contribution to the understanding of the statistics of trade between the island of Jamaica and the United States. It says:

> "Frequent comparisons have been made of the difference between the importations to the United States, great stress being laid upon the preponderance in value of our exports as compared with our imports. But it must not be forgotten that a good deal of coffee, sugar, and other products of the Island are shipped hence to the United States on through bills of lading; the merchants seeking to obtain the advantage of both markets. If, on arrival in the United States, the merchant finds the English market more advantageous for his goods, they are sent on to that market to be disposed of. At the same time, to all intents and purposes, here, in Jamaica, these goods are entered as being shipped to the United States. Some allowance, therefore, should be made for this fact, in comparing the difference between our interchange of supplies with the United States."

This illustrates the need of "going behind the face of the returns" in the case of commercial statistics, especially when they relate to international trade. People have been wondering why gold does not flow in upon us from Europe to pay for our enormous exports of breadstuffs. But an examination of the figures of foreign commerce for the nine months ending September 30 will show that we were already paid up at that date. In fact, the imports and exports came very near balancing, the figures being, respectively, $627,145,819 and $627,670,414. Somehow, international exchanges will look like mere barter, in spite of our latter-day theorists.

Whatever new shifting of the scene may be in store for Brazil, it is pretty clear that the events of Monday mean the complete disappearance of Fonseca. He seems to have had all the elements that go to make up a successful Dictator except the resolution to push his plans through to the bitter end. Soldier though he was, he seems to have had a genuine horror of bloodshed. Indeed, it was openly charged against him in the Senate by Admiral Mello that he had been on the point of drawing back at the time of the revolution in 1889, presumably out of this same shrinking from actual civil conflict. A striking confirmation of this view of his nature is given in an article published in a Brazilian paper a little before the dissolution of Congress. Rumors of an impending Dictatorship were rife at the time, and a member of Congress wrote to the newspaper in question in reference to them, under the suggestive heading, "Deodoro and Balmaceda." His argument was that there was nothing in common between the unflinching cruelty of the Chilian and the milder character of Fonseca, and he reported the following saying of the latter's, which he asserted that he himself had heard from the President's lips: "They may say of me what they will in Congress or out of it, but I declare that for no consideration whatever would I cause a drop of Brazilian blood to flow; I would give both arms, or life itself, to avert bloodshed." No doubt his final yielding was mainly due to his perception of the great strength of the combination against him. The navy appears to have played the same patriotic part adopted by the Chilian naval commanders, and with equal success. Still, Balmaceda cannot be conceived of as giving up without a desperate fight, and the peaceful withdrawal of Fonseca witnesses to a milder nature, both in him and the other Brazilians.

The past week brought to an apparent close an episode remarkable in both European finance and European diplomacy. Nearly two months ago the offer of the new $100,000,000 Russian loan in Paris for public subscription met with overwhelming failure. Less than three-fifths of the bonds were taken by the public, and the Paris bankers who had been reckless enough to guarantee the loan's success, were forced to assume on their own account the unsubscribed balance. It will be remembered that the news despatches of that date teemed with stout denials of the fact; going so far, indeed, as to protest that the loan had been seven times oversubscribed. But the fiction was too transpa-

rent to deceive any intelligent person. It presently appeared that the Parisian "underwriters" of the loan had got themselves into a very serious scrape. Sixty million dollars was the sum the bankers were pledged to raise in exchange for these unsalable securities, and they began at once to throw on the market all their other available holdings. This was a tempting opportunity for the "bear" operator. It is largely from America that the European operators have learned the art of breaking down prices as a means of forcing sales of real stock from frightened or discredited holders, and thus enabling themselves, on the consequently demoralized market, to "cover" their own sales at a profit. They applied it now with vindictive energy. Their movement went on simultaneously in every European stock exchange, and the circumstances were apparently all in their favor. They nearly forced a panic upon the financially unsound community of Berlin, but their central purpose, from the start, was obviously the destruction of the Parisian guarantors of the Russian loan. Common report attributed to this fierce attack upon values a singular and dramatic origin. The fact that not one of the great Hebrew bankers raised his hand to stop the break led, not unnaturally, to the assumption that it was actually a campaign of revenge, planned by the allied financiers of that faith to break down Russia's credit.

Among the diplomatists this movement seems to have been looked upon with great uneasiness. On Monday of last week, when the outlook of the markets was gloomiest and predictions of European war were disseminated by the alarmists, Salisbury in London and Rudini in Rome interposed with public assurances that the rumors were unfounded. For a day this disconcerted the "bears," but they returned to the task and once more demoralized the markets. The conviction grew that a serious crisis was imminent, and the belief was so general in Europe that Russia would resort to war if its financial negotiations failed, that a prediction to this effect, published in a Vienna newspaper a fortnight ago and falsely attributed to the Emperor of Austria, threw the Continental markets on to the verge of panic. A similar imposition was practised on the New York *Times*, which on November 12 announced that "a letter had been received in this country from an officer on the General Staff of the German Emperor, which" declared in effect that the war in Europe could not be postponed beyond next spring. "The communication," the impostor added, "is understood to have been dictated by the Emperor himself." This was undoubtedly concocted in aid of the European enterprise. Then the Cabinet ministers interfered personally. In Berlin and in London, ministerial pressure was evidently applied to the anti-Russian operators to force an abandonment of the bear campaign. This intervention was successful. Baron Rothschild in London was the first to give way. The German bankers were silenced next, and a sudden advance in prices on all the great stock markets of the world announced that the fight was over. What the Paris bankers will do with their $60,000,000 Russian bonds is not yet clear.

One of the agencies which probably contributed to the sweeping victory of the Gladstonians in Devonshire the other day was the unflinching, and, indeed, for so old a man, enthusiastic support which the Liberal candidate, who is both a tenant farmer and a landlord, received from Sir Thomas Acland. The Aclands are the oldest family in Devonshire. No memory or record goes back to a time when the Aclands were not great people in that county. The present baronet is the twenty-third in lineal descent from an Acland of the twelfth century, and nothing of importance has taken place in Devonshire in six hundred years in which an Acland has not figured prominently. The garrison of their manor house was, during the civil war in 1640, at one time the only force which held out for King Charles in the county. The present Sir Thomas began public life as a Tory with Mr. Gladstone, but, as he said in a recent letter to the Liberal candidate:

> "I can look back, like our great leader, over fifty years of public life to the days before the first Reform Bill, when I did not belong to the Liberal party. Parliament has more and more found its strength to depend on trust in the people. We may now trace with satisfaction the advance in the welfare and comforts of the mass of the people which has attended the progressive policy of the Liberal party passed in the face of constant opposition from the Conservatives. . . . I refuse to believe that the electors will be misled by the attempts made on the Tory side to claim credit for the present Government because they had found it politic to pass, with the help of the Liberals, a few of the measures against which the Tory party had long protested."

The need of going behind social statistics to the operative causes of social phenomena is illustrated afresh by a recent decision of the Supreme Court of Bavaria. This decision annulled a marriage contracted in a Prussian city by two Bavarians who had not previously obtained the authorization of their own commune. In other words, legitimate marriages in Bavaria are impossible without the consent of the local authorities. The judgment of the Munich court gave much scandal to the Prussian newspapers, which thought it monstrous that imperial legislation should thus be overturned by that of a single State. Nevertheless, the Bavarian position seems to be impregnable, since, at the time of the unification of 1871, Bavaria made it a condition that her individual legislation should be recognized by the empire. But the awkwardness of the situation has led the Bavarian Government to announce that it will propose a thorough modification of the marriage laws, so as to make them square with those of the rest of the empire. The significance of the Bavarian marriage laws, for students of sociology, lies in the fact that they help to explain the extraordinary number of illegitimate births in Bavaria. In that respect, in fact, Bavaria has the unenviable distinction of leading the world. But this does not imply such prëominent immorality as it might seem to do. The communal magistrates often refuse their consent to the marriage of poor people for fear that an increasing burden may be laid upon the taxpayers. Irregular unions are the natural and frequent result, and the statistics of illegitimacy rise accordingly.

The partial reconstruction of the Spanish Cabinet announced on Sunday does not indicate any serious division in the Conservative party. The changes were made chiefly for the purpose, it would appear, of giving a place to Romero y Robledo, who has been made Minister for the Colonies. He has long been the leader of an unattached following in the Cortes, now acting with the Liberals and now with the Conservatives, though generally managing to get into favor with the party at the time dominant. Since the last general election he has been standing aloof, but it was rumored some months ago that he had made terms with Cánovas and would soon have a portfolio. His entrance into the Cabinet must thus be regarded as a strengthening of the Premier's hands, politically. For the rest, there appears to be no tightening of party lines, nor retreat from the comprehensive policy which marked Cánovas's first choice of a Ministry. The Duke of Tetuan, an old Liberal, retains the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The retirement of Silvela from the Interior Department would seem to indicate that no appeal to the people is deemed imminent; he is one of the most adroit of Spanish politicians, and it was in good part to his able management, and working of his department "for all it was worth," that the last great victory of the Conservatives was due.

A committee of the Norwegian Storthing, appointed to consider the subject of a change in the consular service, has recently made a report declaring unanimously in favor of a separate representation. At present the foreign affairs of Norway, both consular and diplomatic, are wholly under the control of the Swedish Government; and as the commerce of the dependent country far exceeds that of Sweden, the injustice of the arrangement, as regards the consular service at least, has long been felt by patriotic Norwegians, irrespective of party. The report recommends, in connection with the proposed change, a reduction of the number of consuls in Europe, and the formation of new consulates in the other parts of the world, by which is undoubtedly understood the United States in particular. It is asserted that this change will not only better serve the interests of the home country, but will do so at a cost not exceeding the present expenditure. There is no doubt that the Storthing will act favorably on the bill of the committee, for the elections just held show marked gains for the party which advocates separate foreign ministries for Sweden and Norway.

THE PROPER USE OF A COUNTRY.

THERE is nothing on which professors of journalism should dwell so strenuously in their lectures to the tyros as the mischief of irrelevancy—that is, the practice, when discussing public questions, of answering assertions or arguments about one thing by assertions and arguments about another and totally different thing. This is the besetting sin of "hardworking journalists." They will not stick to the question, even in an ineffective and absurd way. There is a scene in one of Howells's novels, in which some women on the piazza of a summer boarding-house are discussing the True and the Good, when one of them breaks in with, "Talking of true reminds me of blue, which they say is going to be all the rage next winter." (We are quoting from memory.) So also many of our contemporaries, if you address some remarks to them about the *Itata* case, will answer about dyspepsia or sick headache; if you make a proposition about the Bering Sea case, will respond with propositions about malignity, or chastity, or free trade. The term "a dies non" reminded one the other day, like Howells's character, of "a dies iræ." If you say that the foreign affairs of the nation are being badly managed, they will show that you are "a man without a country," as the *Tribune* did last week in answer to those who find fault with Secretary Blaine's conduct in the negotiations with Brazil. This habit of irrelevancy, or failure to join issue on the matter in hand, not only protracts discussion indefinitely, but keeps the public in perpetual darkness regarding its most serious interests. The most diligent newspaper reader may peruse everything that appears in his favorite organ on a controversial matter for a whole month, without knowing at the end of that time "what it is all about."

The favorite refuge of the Irrelevants in all discussions of diplomatic questions is the charge that their opponents are either "bad Americans" or men with no country at all; a charge which the *Tribune* actually brought against James Russell Lowell, above whom, as a true American, it placed—"Pat" Ford and "Pat" Egan. This, of course, shows that the charge is hardly ever seriously made. It is simply a rhetorical mode of escaping from an antagonist who is pressing you too hard. It is, however, a device which comes readily to hand, because it is almost always resorted to by persons whose only idea of "a country" is something to make money out of. Of their country as a place to make glorious through great victories in the world of morals and of thought, through the truth and justice of its policy, the honesty of its traders, the wisdom and knowledge of its statesmen, the integrity of its judges, the efficiency of its administrators, and the greatness of its contributions to civilization in the highest sense of that term, they have not the smallest conception. To them the chief work of a man proud of his country is to show that it can "lick" somebody if he does not "shut up" or "get off that mule." Their whole attitude as patriots was well described by that member of the old Irish Parliament who, being taunted with having sold his country in voting for the Union, "thanked God he had a country to sell." Our "patriots," in like manner, would have little affection for a country that had "no money in it" for them. "What is there in this for me?" is the first question they ask about every question of home or foreign politics.

But it is very obvious that most of them would be far better off without a country than with the kind of country they have. For their country, to most of them, is what his cave is to a robber—that is, a place to store his booty in, and get rest and refreshment after a foray. But when a robber is driven out of his cave, we do not say, "Poor robber! he has lost his cave." We say, "That fellow has lost his cave, and we are glad of it, for he may now take to some honest industry." We might say much the same thing of several of the patriots who are just now defending the honor and interests of the United States against foreigners—that they seem to thank God that they have a country to disgrace by lying, cheating, double-dealing, sophistry, and humbug, and proposing to thrash any one who complains.

The audacity of this class has been steadily increasing ever since the war, and the most important work of every American who really loves his country and is jealous of its fair fame, is to put them back in their proper place. They surround nearly every question of foreign policy with an atmosphere of falsehood. To take reciprocity as an example: when Mr. Cleveland advocated it in 1888, Mr. Blaine, who is the best exponent of their peculiar ideas and methods, wrote a long letter from Paris fiercely denouncing it, and stigmatizing anybody who sought foreign trade as un-American. Within two years (in 1890) this same publicist was furiously advocating reciprocity and claiming the authorship of the idea, but, characteristically, helping to embody it in legislation by a whole string of misrepresentations. His deliberate account of the huge annual losses in gold which we sustained in our trade with Cuba and Brazil, would have disgraced a boy of ten in a public school. But the body of "true Americans" who follow his lead and like his ways, instead of saving their country from the discredit which such talk from a man who had filled high office was sure to bring upon it, by repudiating his nonsense, actually fell in with it, and swore on the holy tariff that "that was so." Every step since taken to bring about increased intercourse with foreign nations has been marked by the same mixture of ignorance and cunning. The people who are guilty of it cannot be reformed, but their "country" can be taken away from them; and this, we trust, will have been done in a thorough way in one year from this date.

THE LEGALITY OF BOUNTIES.

THE brief filed by Solicitor-General Taft in the tariff-act cases now pending in the Supreme Court is a very audacious as well as able argument. The cases are three in number, viz.: Boyd, Sutton & Co., Herrman, Sternbach & Co., and Marshall, Field & Co. *vs.* the United States. These plaintiffs seek to overthrow the McKinley Tariff Act, and to revive the Act of 1883, on three distinct grounds. These are, first, that section 30 of the McKinley Bill (relating to tobacco and snuff), as the said bill passed the House and Senate, was wholly omitted from the enrolled bill which was signed by the President and filed in the Department of State; 2d, that the provisions of the bill giving bounties from the Treasury to the producers of American sugar are unconstitutional and void, no power to enact legislation of this character having been vested in Congress by the Constitution; 3d, that section 3 of the act (the reciprocity clause) is unconstitutional and void, in that it delegates to the President the power of laying taxes and duties, which power, by sections 1 and 8 of article 1 of the Constitution, is vested in Congress.

The Solicitor-General's argument upon the second point—the constitutionality of the sugar bounty—is very bold. He contends that the bounty is only the protective tariff in another form, and that it cannot be overthrown on constitutional grounds without overthrowing the whole doctrine of protection. All protective tariffs, he says, rest upon the "general-welfare" clause of the Constitution. This clause must be depended upon also to sanction the bounty on sugar. He examines at length the contention of the plaintiffs that the bounty is condemned in principle by the decision of the Supreme Court in the Topeka case, where it was held that bonds issued by a city to pay a bonus to a manufacturing corporation to build its plant within the city, were invalid and beyond the power of the city, even though expressly authorized by the Legislature. The distinction between this case and the one before the court is found in the grade of the government that levies the tax. "There may be," says Cooley, "a public purpose as regards the Federal Union which would not be such as a basis for State taxation, and there may be a public purpose which would uphold State taxation, but not the taxation which its municipality would be at liberty to vote and collect." The contention of the Solicitor-General is, that a bounty on sugar is simply a change in the method of putting money into the pockets of the sugar-producers without any change of substance—a change from tariff to bounty.

> "The principle [of a protective tariff]," he says, "thus established, necessarily justifies bounties, for in the beginning of the operation of a protective tariff *the amount of duty levied is a bounty to the domestic manufacturer*, and it is with a view to such a benefit for him that it is levied. The sugar duties have always had the effect of a bounty to domestic sugar-producers."

This is very plain, and as we have said, very bold, considering the source from which it comes, *i. e.*, the law department of the Republican Administration. It has been a task of no small difficulty to convince Republicans that a protective tariff is really a bounty taken from the pockets of the community for the benefit of the domestic manufacturer or producer. We have now the solemn assurance of the Attorney-General's office that such is the fact; and it comes to us

in such a way that the validity of the bounty clause seems to rest upon its analogy to protection in the tariff.

But this is not the only surprising thing that we find in the Solicitor-General's argument. On page 84 he contends that the sugar-producers have a vested right in the tariff, so that whenever Congress finds it expedient to repeal a protecting duty, it is morally bound to give the producers of the article "something equally as good." We quote this paragraph in full, viz.:

"Here was a case where citizens, by reason of heavy sugar duties which had existed for many years, had been induced to make large investments in the plant required for the production of sugars; and now it was proposed by Congress to remove the duties because the revenue which they produced was more than sufficient for the uses of the Government. The removal of duties would absolutely destroy fifty or sixty million dollars' worth of property invested in this industry and protected by the duties. To enable persons whose property would be thus injuriously affected to prepare for the change, the Government was under a moral obligation to reimburse them for their loss, or to permit them by a bounty to continue the business until such time as the business might be self-sustaining."

The argument for the removal of the sugar duties was largely based upon the idea that the industry never would be self-sustaining. Republicans told us, and told us truly, that the industry had been protected sixty years without making any gains in the quantity produced, and that it was simply a waste of the nation's resources to tax the consumers $50,000,000 per annum in order that the domestic producers might get nine or ten millions. And now the Solicitor-General tells us that the Government is under a moral obligation to pay this bounty till such time as the industry is self-sustaining. As this time may never come, it follows that the bounty may be a perpetual obligation, something like an interminable annuity or a permanent national debt. Of course, what is true of the protected sugar-growers is true of all the protected classes. By this rule, whenever Congress repeals a duty, it must grant an equivalent bounty to the home producers of the corresponding article, and continue the bounty till the beneficiaries say that they no longer need it.

"CRAZES."

THE complete collapse of the Farmers' Alliance movement, after flourishing and spreading alarm among politicians for less than two years, contains a lesson of some value for the many public men who lose their heads in the presence of the political epidemics known as "crazes." A very brief examination of the appearance and progress of these Crazes during the past twenty years shows very clearly that an attempt in the United States at a sudden and violent departure from the established political and economical traditions of the country is pretty sure to end disastrously for all concerned in it within a very brief period. There is probably no society in the world on which it is harder to make a quick impression of any sort in favor of a very radical change in the mental outlook of the people. As a rule, it takes twenty years to build up a party, and it takes just about the same length of time to drive a party definitively out of power. All originators and promoters of Crazes underrate greatly the weight and bulk of the mass to be acted on and moved before a new theory can get a firm foothold in politics. They underrate, too, the force of habit and the want of mental agility among the rural population, which really governs the United States. Syllogisms make but little impression on the farmer. He absorbs ideas after long contact with them, but they can hardly ever be injected into his head out of a reform syringe.

If it be asked how it is, if all this be true, that the promoters of Crazes are able to make such an appearance of progress as to produce so much confusion of mind among the political augurs, the answer is that they are usually fearfully in earnest and give themselves up wholly for a brief period to the propagation of their new idea. They have all the passion and enthusiasm which one finds so often among inventors. And then they are powerfully aided by the large class of politicians who have failed in the regular parties and are on the lookout for a job, and by the still larger class who live in expectation of some sort of cataclysm or social revolution which will make a better distribution of justice. This latter class, which includes a great many clergymen, cherish the belief that there exists somewhere a stock of pent up indignation over what they consider the defects in the social organization, which may any day burst forth and clear the ground for something far better. Any sudden proclamation of very radical opinions or demands seems to them, therefore, a sign that the day of righteous wrath has dawned; the old dams are at last giving way. All these classes are assisted, of course, greatly in making an uproar by that portion of the press which cultivates sensations and lives on them.

Let us take as illustrations of the evanescence of Crazes the political history of the Greenback, Labor, Granger, and Farmer Craze. The Granger, or "anti-monopoly," movement appeared in the West in 1873, and for two years threatened to carry everything before it. It elected its candidate for Governor of Wisconsin in 1873 by 15,000 majority, came within 5,000 of electing an "anti-monopoly" man Governor of Minnesota the same year, and secured Legislatures which passed what became known as "Granger statutes." It was very strong at the same time in Iowa and other States. But by 1876 it had entirely disappeared.

During the first half of the Hayes Administration the Greenback movement became very strong. In 1878 it swept over Maine. Eugene Hale, who had been elected to Congress from a "sure Republican district" in 1876 by almost 3,000 majority, was beaten by nearly 1,500 by an unknown stone-cutter. In a second district the Greenbackers and Democrats combined and elected their candidate by about 3,000 majority, against a large Republican majority in 1876. In each of the other three districts the Greenbackers polled so many votes that, if they had been united with the Democrats, the Republicans would have been beaten. By combination with the Democrats the Greenbackers came within 9,500 votes of carrying Iowa. In Ohio they polled over 38,000, and left the Republicans with a plurality of only 3,154. In Michigan they cast 73,000 votes, which were almost as many as the Democrats; in New York over 75,000, in Indiana almost 40,000, and so on. But by 1879 their strength had fallen off 75 per cent., and they cut no figure in the election of 1880.

The "Labor Movement" in politics followed the great strikes in the spring of 1886 The politicians of both parties were tremendously impressed with its importance. A Congressional Committee asked Powderly to submit amendments to the Constitution of the United States which he thought ought to be adopted in the interests of "Labor." In the autumn of 1886 Henry George ran for Mayor of New York, and polled 68,000 votes, or nearly one-third of the whole number cast. It was immediately assumed that the Labor party would be a controlling factor in the Presidential election of 1888. But by 1887 George polled only about as many votes for Secretary of State in the whole State of New York as in 1886 in the city alone, and by 1888 the party had disappeared.

The Farmers' Alliance movement, of which we are now witnessing the close, was most powerful and threatening in Mississippi, Kansas, and Nebraska. In no State was its chief absurdity, the sub-treasury scheme, so strong as in Mississippi. There it was boldly faced on the stump by Senator George and others, and in the election of the Legislature overwhelmingly defeated. In Kansas and Nebraska its fate at the last election has hardly been any happier. In fact, the Alliance may be said to have disappeared from American politics, leaving hardly a rack behind. Its one Senator, Mr. Peffer, who lent it powerful aid by the exceeding simplicity of his habits, has by current report gone over to the enemy, drinks champagne, and wears black broadcloth. We do not suppose that any number of these experiences will convince people of certain temperaments of the slowness with which the world moves. The "Nationalist party" in Boston, for instance, which aims at the establishment of the Bellamy millennium, polled only a beggarly vote of 1,300 at the late Gubernatorial election in Massachusetts, but this doubtless will not discourage the members in the least. There will always be a body of enthusiasts laboring to make progress independent of individual culture, and they render the community some service in keeping in order the ideals before which we all make the sign of the cross, as the Russians before the "sacred images."

THE REAL NEED OF REVISION.

NOTHING is more striking, in the current discussions in connection with creed-revision, than the apparent unconsciousness of the revisers that they are at all endangering the authority and absoluteness of their revised creed, when they get it. Indeed, there has not been even a suggestion, so far as we

have observed, that the new creed should be any less positive than the old in asserting its authority and necessity. Yet here is, after all, the most characteristic thing about creeds—the declaration, that is, that beliefs are necessary to salvation; the specification of the particular beliefs is of small moment beside the affirmation of the general principle. But there is no indication whatever of an intention to relax the latter, and its indispensableness in any creed seems to be so taken for granted that it is proposed to transfer it intact from one set of beliefs to another. Thus, the Westminster Confession, in its present form, speaks of "those things which are necessary to be known, believed, and observed, for salvation"; yet the men who mean to change that form for something which they like better, give no hint of abating the imperative claims of the new symbol.

This is not a thing peculiar to the Presbyterian situation. Any creed, when considered as an epitome of Christian doctrine and not as a devotional aid, seems to require the assertion of its own paramount importance. This is conspicuously seen in the so-called Athanasian creed, beginning with its *Quicunque vult salvus esse*, and ending with its *Hæc est fides catholica*, and alluding both at the beginning and ending to the unpleasant fate awaiting any dissenter from it. But it is the same in principle, if not in such set terms, with all creeds. The Articles of Religion of the Episcopal Church, for example, refer to beliefs which are "requisite or necessary to salvation."

If one were required to give the most essential distinction between the spirit of modern science, using the term broadly, and the spirit of a doctrinal creed, he could find it in this very point. Where a creed asserts its own finality and necessity, science admits the provisional and approximate nature of its conclusions. We have not met a more excellent illustration of this cautious and modest temper of science than the declaration of Weismann, preliminary to the unfolding of his remarkable theory of heredity.

"It is nevertheless possible," he says, "that continuity of the germ-plasm does not exist in the manner in which I imagine it takes place, for no one can at present decide whether all the ascertained facts agree with and can be explained by it. Moreover, the ceaseless activity of research brings to light new facts every day, and I am far from maintaining that my theory may not be disproved by some of these. But even if it should have to be abandoned at a later period, it seems to me that, at the present time, it is a necessary stage in the advancement of our knowledge, and one which must be brought forward and passed through, whether it prove right or wrong in the future."

This and the *Quicunque vult* belong to two different worlds, and few of our readers, we suppose, will question the great intellectual advance which has been required to pass from one to the other. In fact, the persistence of the dogmatizing spirit is one of the greatest dangers to which science itself is exposed, and one against which scientists have continually to be warned. A dogmatic scientist is as pestilent and offensive as his theological brother, and ought ever to bear in mind Huxley's forcible saying: "Science commits suicide when it adopts a creed." In the same philosopher's address on the occasion of the "Coming of Age" of Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' he did not fail to point out the perils attending the very triumph of the great theory. If it were to be taken as the final and absolute truth, it would be a weight upon research and a fetter upon the intellect, instead of being, as it should be, the stimulus to profounder inquiry and broader generalization. Whatever may be said as to that, it cannot be doubted that one of the truest marks of the scientific spirit is the refusal to admit that infallible and final results can be reached by methods which must be both fallible and tentative.

Now, it would be idle to affirm that a body of educated men like the ministry of the several churches can have failed to be affected in a considerable degree by this prevailing sentiment and spirit of the age in which they live. As a matter of fact, they have been affected by it powerfully. Scientific methods have been applied to a whole range of studies ancillary to theology. Macaulay's saying that a sensible man with the Bible in his hand was in possession of the whole material of theological study, was as mischievous an oracle as even he ever uttered. The antecedents and attendants of the literature of the Bible, the history of its formation, the right principles of its interpretation—these and other subjects have come to be regarded as absolutely essential matters to consider before you know what it is you have in your hand when you say you have the Bible there. And each of these subjects has now a scientific treatment—which means, of course, that scholars admit the results they reach to be approximate and subject to revision. Take such sentences as these from Canon Cheyne's introduction to his last volume of exegesis: "In 1880, seeing too much with the eyes of my expected readers, I adopted a possible but not sufficiently probable view of certain psalms. . . . In 1890, seeing entirely with my own eyes, . . . I offer my readers the truest solution I can find." That is not far from the spirit of Weismann's remark quoted above.

The wonder is, that when the scientific spirit has made as much impress upon the ministry as it has, when scientific method has gained such headway in subordinate theological studies, there should have come no perception of the incongruousness of retaining the old assumptions of certainty and finality. Here, one would say, is the part of creeds most in need of revision. The revision ought to be very easy to secure, moreover, since in actual practice so many clergymen drop out of use and out of sight the claim of theology to greater certitude than other sciences. It is extremely common nowadays to hear the Christian creed defended in the pulpit and out of it as a "working hypothesis," a "theory of life," and the like. It would be a great gain, it seems to us, if the creeds themselves could adopt that humble tone. Nor is the question merely speculative. Many men, we know, are actually repelled from the churches by the undue assertions of the latter in respect of the authority and certainty of Christian dogma. They cannot understand how it is that ministers who, in private intercourse, show themselves fallible mortals like the rest of us, and who, even when talking of religion, admit the great change of view and of attitude made necessary by modern research, should assume in the pulpit and ecclesiastical assemblies an air of absoluteness and certainty. It is like the experience of Emerson in English society, where, he reported, an almost audible click, as of a valve closing, could be detected in the organism of the man who passed from a general to a religious topic of conversation. It was he, also, who told of the effective method of controversy adopted by a bishop, which consisted in looking the heretic squarely in the eye and asking him to take a glass of wine.

SOME RUINS BEYOND THE JORDAN.

NEW YORK, November 9, 1891.

LEAVING Jericho on the 26th of August, we crossed the Jordan by a wooden bridge, kept locked to prevent the Arabs from using it without payment of toll. Our camp that night was by the side of a brook at Tel Kefren. Under a fine tree by our camp dwelt, or rather sat, a Moslem holy man, filthy, stupid, and lazy. Two or three women seemed to be connected with him, and they and the contributions of the faithful kept him in existence. Near by, in the jungle farther up the stream, dwelt or were encamped some Arabs of the valley, an indolent, degraded, immoral set of good-natured savages. The name Tel Kefren suggests a ruin mound; but on examination I found the *tel* to be an isolated hill of natural rock, on the sides of which were a few small caves, chiefly natural, and now used by the Arabs as granaries and sheepfolds. On top of the hill was a modern Arabic graveyard. Examining more closely, I found signs of ancient terracing on the hill, while quantities of fragments of common pottery were scattered over its sides and on the plain around for a considerable distance. This seems to justify the name *tel*, for, while not an artificial ruin mound, like the *tels* on the other side of Jordan, near Jericho, Kefren was yet the site of an ancient town, of which the hill constituted the acropolis. A short distance to the south of Kefren lies Tel Rame, a hill of similar formation. These are at the mouth of a bay in the hills, one to the north, one to the south, like forts guarding the entrance. They are both evidently sites of ancient cities of the plain of Shittim, one of the richest parts of the Jordan valley. Water is abundant, the herbage luxuriant, and the soil superabundantly fertile.

Referring to my note book, I find that at Kefren the thermometer registered 100° Fahrenheit at about sunset, and I have the same record for Jericho on the preceding day. I had expected to find a much higher temperature than this in the Jordan valley in August, and in fact the natives assured me that both days were abnormally cool, the coolest days of the whole summer. However, while the heat was not excessive, I found the atmosphere the most trying I had ever experienced excepting on the Sea of Galilee. It was as though an invisible blanket, soft but very heavy, had fallen upon me. I felt a sense of suffocation and of unrest. I was very tired, but could not sleep. Almost every traveller has pointed out the degrading moral effects of this climate of the lower Jordan and the Dead Sea country, and history and tradition bear

most eloquent testimony to the disastrous consequences to character of residence in those regions. Indolence and gross immorality characterize the inhabitants. The climate seems to produce abnormal sexual excitement. So tribes, like the 'Adwan, who spend their winters in whole or part in the plain, are notorious for their immorality, while the Bene Sakhr, their neighbors, who roam the uplands, only rarely descending to the plain, enjoy a high reputation for purity. The few Arabs who reside permanently in the valley, as at Jericho, appear to have reached the lowest depths of degradation.

It was a relief to leave the valley and climb up the mountains of Gilead in the early morning air. At every step the atmospheric load grew lighter and the sense of suffocation diminished. The view was not as fine as I had expected. Indeed, during the whole period of my trans-Jordanic trip, I never obtained a really good view. The Judæan, Samarian, and Galilean hills were always dim with haze, and distant points were indistinct or obscure. This was due to a strong west wind which blew all the time, cooling the atmosphere most gratefully, and bringing the precious mist of the Mediterranean to moisten the rainless earth.

Sending our tents and baggage to 'Ain Hesban, we directed our course towards the interesting ruins of Arak el-Emir, on Wadi Sir, identified with the fortress of Tyrus described by Josephus as erected by John Hyrcanus in this region. The place has been well described by De Saulcy, and the main features of his description are quoted in Baedeker's familiar guide-book. There has been little or no change since. The ruin which first catches the eye is the Kasr-el-'Abd, or Slave's Castle, whose huge blocks are carved with rude "Hittite"-like lions in bas-relief. At first sight, certainly, this seems to be a ruin of an earlier period, and it has accordingly been suggested that it was an Ammonite temple or fortress utilized by Hyrcanus. Unfortunately, we have not a sufficient basis of comparison for the determination of Ammonite and Maccabæan methods of construction. The remains of other public buildings and houses are on a plateau two or three hundred yards to the northeast of the "castle." They differ decidedly in appearance from that building, but, as far as I could determine, are of a period later than the Maccabæan. A few squalid Arabs have made themselves huts among these ruins. They offered us coins for sale, but none, if I remember aright, were older than the Roman Empire.

There are remains of a fine causeway, a reservoir, and some other solid pieces of masonry, but more interesting and curious are the two tiers of rock-cut chambers to the north of the town. The cliffs rise to the height of a hundred and fifty feet or more, and bend around in the form of a rude amphitheatre. Here were hollowed out the chambers referred to, in two tiers, with a gallery before the upper tier. These chambers are now used as granaries by the 'Adwan. Mangers and places for fastening animals show that at an earlier period they served as stables; but their original use was probably as tombs. Some of those of the lower tier show best the original form, vaulted within, the entrance by an arched door of a height and breadth much less than those of the chamber itself, giving the effect of a curtain wall in front. Over one of these doors is an inscription of five letters in the ancient Hebrew script. Besides these chambers one finds another piece of rock-cutting in the steep steps which descend from the plateau of the town towards the bed of the Wadi Sir. The Wadi itself, by the way, was a magnificent jungle of blooming oleanders, twenty to thirty feet in height, constituting one gorgeous bouquet. The castle of Hyrcanus was very picturesquely located, high up in a valley of the mountains, closed in to the north by an amphitheatre of chambered cliffs, gazing down the deep ravine of the little brook of Sir as it cuts its way through the mountains southward, and then, joined by another ravine, bends westward to force its way out to the Jordan Valley.

The next day we rode over the upland plains of Moab from 'Ain Hesban to Ma'deba, visiting on the way the ruins of El'al, the ancient Eleale of Moab; Hesban, ancient Heshbon, and Tel Kefr. At the last-named site, on a fallen door lintel, I observed a Greek cross. The visible remains at all of these places belong to the Byzantine era, with the exception, perhaps, of a building at Hesban which has been attributed to the Roman period, and some of the cisterns and caves, which have probably been used over and over again by successive masters of the land. Hesban is a large and important ruin. So far as the surface remains are concerned, it has been pretty thoroughly explored and mapped by various travellers, including Conder in the Survey of Eastern Palestine. Since then no changes have taken place.

At Ma'deba the conditions are different. This is the ancient Medeba of Moab, an important town in Bible times. Tristram, in his 'Land of Moab,' called attention to it as a site which was peculiarly likely to repay excavation. He found standing, among other ruins, what he supposed to be the remains of an old Roman temple. Later Ma'deba was chosen as the site of the Moabite forgeries. The inscribed pottery, manufactured at Jerusalem, so much of which Shapira contrived to sell to the Berlin Museum, was reported to have been found here. It will be remembered that an expedition was despatched to make investigations on the spot, and that Shapira and his confederates salted the ruins with forged pottery and potsherds, which were then triumphantly discovered. Since that time some excavations of an eminently practical nature, but yielding quite different results, have been conducted at this point. These have not been hitherto described by any traveller, so far as I am aware. The history of these excavations is as follows:

Some years since a Moslem of the notorious robber fastness of Kerak (Kir Hareseth of Moab) seduced a Christian woman of the same place. The Christians claimed, and claim to this day, that it was a case of witchcraft. A blood feud of unusual violence resulted, and the Christians, being in a minority of one to three or four, were in some danger of ultimate extermination. It was, I think, the Roman Catholics who obtained from the Porte a grant to the Christians of Kerak of the ruins of Ma'deba, with a view to removing the whole Christian population of Kerak as the only means of checking bloodshed. The bulk of the Christians refused to leave their old home, and remained at Kerak, but two or three hundred of the most zealous of them, and those most involved in the feud, comprising both Greeks and Latins, took advantage of the opportunity. These were also joined by a few of the Christian Bedouin of the region. Of course, Ma'deba was the traditional property of the Arabs of the region, and its occupation by the Christians was not without opposition. However, partly by backsheesh, partly by force, partly by diplomacy, the little colony managed to hold its own, until now the Christians are the undisputed possessors of Ma'deba. At first they occupied some caves in a low hill near the town, the traditional site of St. Paul's residence in the wilderness. Little by little they excavated among the ruins, where, as at El'al, Hesban, Tel Kefr, Ma'in, and all the sites of this Moabite region, the vaulted foundations were in a fair state of preservation. These with very little labor were converted into fairly comfortable huts, according to the ideas of the country.

As a result of these eminently practical excavations, which, as will be seen, affect the surface stratum only, the last town has been shown to have been Byzantine. A Greek inscription which has been uncovered belongs to the early part of the sixth century after Christ. The sixth century seems, indeed, to have been a period of great prosperity throughout this whole region, and to it must probably be assigned the bulk of all the surface ruins. This period of prosperity was followed by the invasion of Chosroes, after which came the Moslem conquest. From this time the country decayed and became depopulated, until it finally lapsed into primeval desert.

Ma'deba itself was evidently a city of importance. Five churches have been uncovered, and I am inclined to suspect that the remains which Tristram called a Roman temple were rather a Christian church. In the northeastern part of the town, near the modern Greek church, a well-preserved mosaic was found, but, its value not being appreciated, it was broken up and destroyed. Another mosaic in the upper part of the town, near the Latin compound, fared better. One of the Greek Christians, in excavating for building material to construct a hut, found the plastered walls of a room in a perfect state of preservation. Excavating the rubbish, he found the floor to consist of an elaborate mosaic, also in a perfect state of preservation. Apparently this had been the bath of some private house. The centre-piece was a large-sized head, done in very small stones, and really a fine piece of work. This was surrounded by animals and trees done in larger stones. The floor of this room was one step below the surface of a larger outer room or court, I could not tell which. This also contained a mosaic, for the most part destroyed, but two tigers before the door of the bath were in a fair state of preservation. The mosaic within the bath was, so far as I could see, absolutely whole. It was a good piece of work of a late and too florid period. The owner had roofed this room over and exercised at the time of my visit an intelligent guardianship upon his treasure. Lately I have heard a rumor, which I hope may prove false, that this mosaic has been broken up.

Ma'deba is situated on a low hill. On two two sides of it run valleys of no great depth, which unite to the southwest, and, running on as one, ultimately descend to the Dead Sea in the form of a deep ravine. The treeless uplands of Moab are rainless for the greater part of the year, and, when the rain falls, it runs off with great rapidity, through the wadis which it has cut, into the Dead Sea. To hold a supply of water, the ancient inhabitants used to dam the wadis, thus constructing reservoirs. Two reservoirs still exist at Ma'deba, and that to the west of the town is the finest and largest construction of the kind which I observed in the whole region. It is not a mere dam across the valley, but a carefully constructed reservoir in the valley bed, and is still in such a state of preservation that by a little excavation of débris and the erection of a small dam to turn the water in, it could again be made serviceable. I proposed this to the Ma'debites,

but they said that under present conditions the restoration of the reservoir would be one of the greatest calamities which could befall them, since if there were water in the pool, the Bedouin would come in great numbers to encamp beside it and fairly overwhelm them. My own experience with Bedouin and water convinced me that they were right.

Besides the pools and reservoirs, the old ruins are full of wells and cisterns, often in a perfect state of preservation. These the Ma'debites use as storehouses of the precious water, keeping them under lock and key. They charged me such enormous prices for the water from these wells that I should have been obliged to leave at once if it had not been for the friendly interposition and hospitality of the Roman Catholic Vicar Apostolic at this point. This man enjoyed a remarkable ascendancy, not only among the Ma'debites of his own communion, but also among the Greek Christians and the surrounding Arabs. He is endeavoring to teach them civilization, for which purpose he has imported a cart and a few civilized farm implements. He also has a European pig, which constitutes the museum of the country, the Arabs coming to look at it as we go to visit a menagerie.

But although my good friend's devoted work has not failed of valuable results, I still found the Ma'debites an unruly and turbulent population. I had hoped to penetrate farther southward, and for this purpose several of the Bene Hamaidieh chiefs, dwelling to the south of the ancient Arnon, were brought to Ma'deba to confer with me. It turned out that there was a feud between them and the Ma'debites, and some of the latter were with difficulty prevented from attacking the visitors. The latter were on the whole the most villanous looking set of Arabs with whom I ever came in contact. The negotiations ultimately fell through because it became apparent that they were merely trying to entice me over their border with a view to seizing me and holding me for ransom.

JOHN P. PETERS.

MARBOT IN THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN. —II.

PARIS, November 7, 1891.

WE left Marbot, under Oudinot, fighting against Wittgenstein. We cannot enter into the details of all the movements and engagements of the two generals. On the 15th of August, the Emperor's fête-day, the second corps was still at Polotsk, where it was joined by two fine Bavarian divisions under Gouvion Saint-Cyr. The French Army till 1870 preserved nearly the organization which was given to it afterwards by Gouvion Saint-Cyr. He was the son of a small proprietor of Toul, and became an actor in Paris. In 1789 he entered a battalion of volunteers; the process of natural selection speedily made him a general of division. He looked more like a professor, as he retained the dress of the generals of the Army of the Rhine, who wore no epaulettes and no uniform—merely a blue redingote. "It was impossible to find a man more calm. The greatest prosperity, annoyances, successes, defeat—nothing could move him: he was like ice before all possible events." With these great qualities, he had great defects: he was jealous, indifferent to the sufferings of his soldiers. Napoleon disliked him and did not make him a marshal (though he well deserved it) when he created the marshals. During the bloody battles which took place round Polotsk between the Russian army, numbering 60,000 men, and Oudinot, who had 52,000 men under him, Frenchmen and Bavarians, Oudinot committed many blunders. Saint-Cyr followed him in silence, and when Oudinot asked for his advice, he merely said: "Monseigneur le Maréchal!" which seemed to say: "Since you have been made a marshal, you ought to know more than myself, a simple general; get out of your difficulties as well as you can."

Fortunately, it may almost be said, for him, Oudinot was wounded. He immediately gave the command to Saint-Cyr and retired to Lithuania, where he remained two months. Saint-Cyr now took the reins of command, and everything changed as if by miracle; such is the influence of a strong and capable man. He made the best dispositions, inflicted a severe defeat on the Russians, and established himself firmly in Polotsk. Marbot took an important part in a great cavalry combat; his wound hindered him from holding both his sword and his reins, but he would charge with his regiment. His soldiers were extremely devoted to him, and half-a-dozen of the bravest surrounded him so as to protect him during the charge. After the battle of Polotsk, Saint-Cyr did not for an instant inquire into the needs of his troops. He immediately shut himself up in a Jesuit convent, where he spent all his days and a part of his nights in doing, what do you think? in playing the violin. Did not the great Frederick play the flute after battling, and make petty French verses? Saint-Cyr was nicknamed "the owl" by his soldiers, as nobody could approach him. The cellars and granaries of the Jesuit convent were full of wine, beer, oil, etc., but nothing was allowed to be taken away. The Marshal (for he had been made a Marshal by Napoleon after his victory) was all alone in the immense convent; he merely allowed the presence in it of a few wounded officers. Two months afterwards, when the French were obliged to evacuate the town, the convent, with all it contained, was burnt up.

While Marbot was in Polotsk, the Grand Army took Smolensk by storm and fought the battle of the Moskva. This terrific struggle took place on the 7th of September. The French lost forty-nine generals and 26,000 men killed and wounded. Marbot was not a witness of this memorable action, the bloodiest that has taken place since the beginning of the century, as there were in all 50,000 killed or wounded; but he heard the details of it from the generals who were on the spot. He tells us that the Emperor suffered the whole day from a terrible headache, that the cold prevented him from remaining on horseback, and that he spent the time walking in a small ravine and receiving frequent reports. At a certain moment, Murat was begging the Emperor to use his Guard against the Russians, who were returning for the third time against the left wing of the French army, when Bessières, who commanded the Guard, said: "I will permit myself to observe to your Majesty that your Majesty is now seven hundred leagues from France." The Emperor refused to engage the Guard. One of the curious episodes of the battle of Borodino was the storming of a Russian fort, opened at the gorge, by the French cavalry. Marbot, a cavalry officer, takes great delight in this curious feat, which cost Montbrun and Caulaincourt their lives.

After the struggle of the Moskva, which forced Kutusoff to retreat, bad news came from Spain: Marmont had been beaten by Wellington. Napoleon saw his danger, but the die was cast: he entered Moscow on the 15th of September. We will not go into the well-known details of the burning of Moscow. The position of Napoleon had become critical, and retreat was decided on when all hope of negotiating with the Russian Emperor had to be abandoned. Let us follow Marbot only, in this famous retreat. He was appointed Colonel on the 15th of November; when Napoleon signed his commission, he said: "It is an old debt which I repay." Marbot took admirable care of his soldiers in his camp near Polotsk; he fed them well, erected barracks, gave them fresh meat every day. The poor Bavarians were not so well off; they did nothing to better their position. In vain did Gen. Wrede show them what the French soldiers did; they were home-sick, and in the hospitals of Polotsk asked for "the room where one dies." Many of them perished. Marbot found even brandy for his men, as he made a sort of treaty with the Jesuits, he furnishing them with corn and they manufacturing the brandy.

Napoleon, though he did not wish to proclaim the reëstablishment of ancient Poland, wished to organize the parts which he had conquered as departments. He appointed a certain Count Lubenski prefect, and Marbot, with three hundred horsemen, received the order to convey him his appointment. The mission was not an easy one. Marbot arrived in the night before the old castle of Lubenski; his men surrounded it; when the Count heard that they spoke French, he came with his family and servants, and, "advancing towards me, with open arms, he said with a tragical air, 'Welcome to you, generous Gaulois, who bring liberty to my oppressed country; let me press you to my heart, soldier of the great Napoleon, liberator of Poland.'" All the Poles, men and women, kissed Marbot, the servants kissed his knee. This demonstrative Pole was not long a prefect; a month later he was obliged to fly before the Russians, and he took refuge in Galicia, where he lived till 1830.

The Austrians not only did not help the French army, they left the passage open for the Russians. The second corps of Saint-Cyr found itself in great danger in Polotsk, as the Prussians, who were near Riga, could at any moment fall upon it with the Russian troops of Wittgenstein. Saint-Cyr maintained his usual calm, and gave excellent orders for the defence of Polotsk and its entrenched camp; with 15,000 men he succeeded in keeping at bay 50,000 Russians, but Steinheil arrived with 14,000 more men, and Saint-Cyr evacuated Polotsk during the night. Oudinot returned some time afterwards and took command again of the Second Corps. The situation of the French army was becoming daily more critical; the Emperor had decided to cross the Beresina at Borisoff, as its bridge was covered by a fortress guarded by a Polish regiment. He felt so confident that, in order to diminish the train of the army, he had ordered all his pontoons to be burned. The fort which defended the Beresina bridge was unfortunately abandoned by the Polish general before Oudinot could arrive; the Russians were now masters of Borisoff, of the bridge and of the fortress. Oudinot and Tchitchagoff soon confronted each other. Oudinot's cavalry was still in a magnificent state; his cuirassiers and chasseurs forced the Russians to retreat on Borisoff and to cross the river. Oudinot hoped for a moment to secure the bridge, but the guns of the fortress played on the French who attempted to take possession of it; it soon became evident that the Beresina could not be crossed by the French at Borisoff, and that their line of retreat was cut. "This immense calamity became fatal to us, and contributed

infinitely to change the face of Europe and to upset the throne of Napoleon."

On the 25th of November Napoleon arrived at Boriscff, and made dispositions for throwing a bridge across the river at some distance from the town. To cross a river in front of an enemy is never an easy task.

"There has been," says Marbot, "much talk about the disasters of the Beresina. What nobody has yet said is, that the greater part of them might have been avoided if the staff, understanding its duties better, had taken advantage of the night of the 27th and 28th, and had sent, over the bridges which had been thrown across, the baggage and the thousands of *traînards* who the day afterwards encumbered the passage."

Marbot thought, that evening, that the bridges were being used; he galloped to the river, and "what was my astonishment to find them completely deserted. Nobody was crossing at the time, and at a little distance, in the fine moonlight, I saw more than 50,000 soldiers separated from their regiments—men who were called *rôtisseurs*. These men, quietly sitting before immense fires, were roasting horse-meat, without thinking a moment that they were before a river the passage of which would the next day cost the lives of a number of them, while in a few minutes they could now cross it without any obstacle, and finish their supper on the other side. Not an officer of the imperial household, not an aide-de-camp of the general staff of the army or of a marshal, was there to warn these unfortunate soldiers and to force them, if necessary, to cross the bridges." Marbot saw in this crowd, for the first time, soldiers coming from Moscow, and was horrified at the sight. Everything was confusion. "No arms, no more uniforms; soldiers, officers, even generals, covered with rags and having no other shoes than pieces of leather or of cloth kept together with strings; an immense multitude in which there were thousands of men of various countries, speaking all the idioms of the European continent and not capable of understanding each other." When Marbot rejoined Oudinot that evening, in vain did he point out the ease with which the men could cross the empty bridge. "I was answered only with evasive words, each one leaving to his colleague the care of such an operation."

The passage of the Beresina took place on the 28th of November, one of the most dismal dates in the history of the French Army. Great masses of unarmed soldiers had to cross under the guns of Wittgenstein. One of the bridges broke under the heavy weight of the guns; all rushed to the second bridge, and the confusion became terrible. Thousands of men were drowned in the river. Marbot estimates the loss at 20,000 or 25,000 men. Marbot's corps covered the retreat, and in an engagement with the Cossacks he had a hand-to-hand fight, in which he was struck on the knee by a lance. He remained on horseback, but was obliged to ride woman-fashion. "The road was covered with dead and wounded; we went on slowly and in silence. What remained of the infantry formed a square round the carriage of the Emperor. Napoleon had King Murat at his side." Napoleon left the army on the 5th of December at Smorgony to go rapidly to Paris, where he had been preceded by the famous 29th Bulletin.

"The Emperor's departure produced an immense effect on the spirit of the troops. Some blamed it and called it an abandonment; others approved of it as the only way to preserve France from civil war and the invasion of our so-called allies, who only awaited an occasion to declare themselves against us, but who would not dare to stir when they learned that Napoleon, in his own States, was organizing new regiments. I shared this second opinion, which was justified by the facts."

Correspondence.

OUR PRECIOUS TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few weeks ago I ordered from a leading bookseller in the Strand, London, a copy of 'Cupid and Psyche,' published in the "Bibliothèque de Carabas." I did not receive the book, but the following: "We still have Lang's 'Cupid and Psyche,' but a new rule of the United States postal authorities directs that all books forwarded by book-post are to be confiscated. This to us appears iniquitous. The only way of forwarding dutiable books is by express."

In what way are the Lobonais and Morgans and Teaches of the American book-trade protected by this new obstacle thrown in the way of purchasing books abroad? The duty of 25 per cent. on the means of acquiring knowledge and intellectual pleasure is an outrage worthy only of barbarians; but this new rule is piling Pelion on Ossa. A. Y.

[The ruling complained of is based upon a new interpretation of article 11 of the Universal Postal Union (concluded at Paris, June 1, 1878), which forbids the public sending by mail "any packets whatever containing articles liable to customs duty." A proper understanding of the above article, after a lapse of more than thirteen years, seems to be due to the same bright particular intellect of the Treasury Department who, twelve months ago, made the important discovery that for years the country had been imposed upon by the importation from Canada of dead frogs free of duty under the guise of "fresh fish for immediate consumption," and who promptly put a stop to this slight upon the Tariff Law by determining (after reluctantly deciding that they could not be assessed at 35 per cent. as "prepared meats," because the poor frogs were not prepared in any way whatsoever, but were merely dead frogs), that they should hereafter be classified as "raw, unmanufactured articles," dutiable at 10 per cent. ad valorem! Seriously, to the ordinary intellect, the purpose of article 11 of the Postal Union would seem to be simply an endeavor to prevent the secret importation of dutiable articles of value, hidden away in letters or other parcels—in other words, to check smuggling. But people who, for the last thirteen years, have imported books by post, have done so openly and without any attempt at disguise, and most certainly without any suspicion that this use of the most highly developed and convenient system of international transportation of our times should be branded as a criminal act by any civilized government. Color is lent to this rational interpretation of article 11 by the fact that Congress, in the appropriation act which provided, among other things, for the carrying out of the stipulations of the Postal Convention, so far from prohibiting the importation of books through the foreign mails, expressly provided that books admitted to the international mails exchanged under the provisions of the Universal Postal Union Convention, when subject to customs duty, should "be delivered to the addressed in the United States under such regulations for the collection of duties as may be agreed upon by the Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General." This section of the Appropriation Act of March 3, 1879, does not seem to have been repealed, and can hardly be deemed to have become inoperative so long as the Postal Union Convention remains in force.

Our correspondent will, however, be glad to know that the Custom-house bark is worse than its bite, and that, in accordance with more recent rulings of the Treasury Department, if he will but submit to the petty indignity of being branded as a smuggler of knowledge, and will approach the Collector or other chief customs officer with becoming meekness, the latter official may "at his discretion" release his book. And not only that, but if it costs less than two dollars he will not be assessed any duty! But if he has had the temerity to send for a book of higher value than $2, he must not only pay 25 per cent. of its cost but a sum equal to the duty as a fine! (Treasury Department Circular of November 5). Moreover, he is freely allowed to import books by parcel post from Barbados, Mexico, Hawaii, the Leeward Islands, Salvador, and a few other far-away regions (circular of July 28), it being the printed productions of the great centres of civilization that are obnoxious to these martinets of the Treasury, and his imported knowledge is treated as contraband only when it comes to him in his own language, for when printed in a foreign tongue, it is, apparently, considered innocuous, and can not only be imported without let or hindrance, but also entirely free from customs duties; which is also the case if it has been in print more than twenty years, provided it is not contained between the covers of a book newly bound. —Ed. Nation.]

REAL RECIPROCITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The enclosed list of tariff duties imposed by various countries in Europe on the exports of agricultural products from the United States and other countries is given by the *American Economist* to show the value of the home market to the farmers of the United States. The duties average nearly ½ cent per pound on wheat, and over 1 cent per pound on butter.

To the *American Economist* everything seems adapted to show the value of a protective or prohibitory tariff. If the prices advance, it is delightful to the manufacturers, and if they fall, it is equally to the credit of the McKinley Bill. The arguments used are often so far-fetched and seem so sophistical that they must make a manufacturer smile or wince. Each number is prefaced by a quotation from some public or distinguished man saying why he is a protectionist—varying from a cry of alarm at socialism and anarchy if any approach is made to free trade, or argument (generally partial and ill-founded), to the semi-religious form of statement of pious be-

lief as an American. But the figures given as to the tariff duties in Europe really point to a suggestion very different from that drawn from them by the *American Economist*. They suggest a valuable form of real reciprocity.

It has been stated that when the American Minister to France, Mr. Reid, was trying to persuade the French Minister that American pork was free from trichinæ and good to eat, and that it would be a great boon to the consumers in France to have it admitted freely, the Frenchman replied that he knew all that, but that there were farmers in France who wanted protection; still, that if the United States would admit French silks free, they might admit our pork free. The American had to reply that it was impossible, as America was a great country for weaving silk. "Well," said the Frenchman, "we might admit pork free if you would admit French wines or worsteds." "Alas," said the American, "impossible again; America is a great wine-producing country. Still, perhaps we might take the duty off of French pictures." "Oh," said the Frenchman, "that is too small a matter." And so the American Minister felt completely blocked.

Two things are suggested by this: (1.) That if this country is a great producer of silk goods or wines, why can it not compete with the foreigner, with all its advantages of distances by sea and land and its rich free soil; and if it cannot, is it not clear that American consumers are being deprived, to their cost, of articles which other countries produce cheaper or better than we can? (2.) And as specially suggested by the figures of tariff duties quoted, here is a great opportunity for the Western farmer to relieve himself from these oppressive duties on his products abroad, and at the same time to enable him to receive in exchange the products of France at much less cost.

Evidently the American would gain two advantages—a better market and a better price for his own products, and cheaper goods in exchange. Similar advantages are possible by similar reciprocity with Germany and other countries. ARTHUR T. LYMAN.

BOSTON, November 17, 1891.

THE SUPPRESSION OF DR. ABBOT'S REPLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since Mr. Peirce has thought fit to bring this subject before your readers, and to comment on Prof. Royce's conduct, as charged by Dr. Abbot, in stifling Dr. Abbot's reply by a threat of legal proceedings, I feel compelled to ask you to publish the evidence on that point in full.

Dr. Abbot bases his charge upon a letter written by me, as Prof. Royce's counsel. In a pamphlet addressed to the governing boards of Harvard College (but widely circulated and put on public sale), Dr. Abbot characterizes that letter as an attempt, on Prof. Royce's part, "to gag the man he had injured," and formally sums up his accusation by asserting that Prof. Royce "has sought, with incredible cowardice and meanness, to deprive me of all opportunity of being heard in self-defence."

I now give the letter (of which Dr. Abbot publishes only the few lines of formal protest), and also Dr. Abbot's reply. I should premise that I knew nothing of the controversy until Prof. Royce sought my advice in consequence of threats of a law-suit from Dr. Abbot. At that time Dr. Abbot's reply had been set up in type by the *Journal of International Ethics* with the expectation of publishing that as it stood, together with a rejoinder by Prof. Royce, and a final retort which Dr. Abbot was to write, all in the July number. This plan had broken off, as stated by Dr. Abbot in his pamphlet, because Dr. Abbot could not agree with Dr. Adler as to the tone in which he should write his final reply; Dr. Adler requiring a parliamentary tone, while Dr. Abbot demanded a freedom which he called "the freedom of the courts." It is Dr. Abbot's main reply, already in type, which is referred to in my letter. Dr. Adler and Prof. Royce are both editors of the *Journal*.

BOSTON, June 9, 1891.

Dr. Francis E. Abbot, Cambridge, Mass.:

MY DEAR DR. ABBOT: Your article entitled "Dr. Royce's Professional Warning" has been submitted to me as a part of the case upon which my professional advice is sought, and I must call your attention to some passages in it which I trust you will think it well, upon deliberation, to revise.

I will say at the outset that, considering the severity of Dr. Royce's article, I think, for my own part, that you are justified in replying with spirit, and that you should perhaps be allowed more warmth than the ordinary discussion of such subjects calls for. Of that Dr. Royce, I know, would not complain, but in the heat of your reply you have in some places used language which I think you will hardly wish, upon cooler judgment, to allow to remain to lower the tone of your argument.

Conceding, for the moment, that you are right in thinking that Dr. Royce has transgressed the limits of courteous controversy, I must say that your article, in some places, goes far beyond anything that he has said.

On Dr. Royce's behalf, I must warn you that he protests against the publication, or any circulation of it, in its present shape, and must point out to you that it may, if circulated, entail a serious legal responsibility.

In it you charge Dr. Royce with being guilty of "a slanderous attack" and of "libel," and with having called you an "impostor"; you seek to belittle and injure him in his profession and business as a teacher in Harvard College; you imply that he is guilty of wilful misrepresentation; you seek to bring him to contempt by a degrading comparison; you charge him with untruth, with having made a wanton and injurious attack upon your personal reputation, having abused his academical position, compromised the dignity of Harvard College, degraded the office of professor, publicly traduced and libelled a fellow-citizen; and finally you pronounce him professionally incompetent.

Such language, even though used in controverting an irritating review of your book, so far exceeds the proper limits that in my judgment you cannot indulge in it without danger of legal liability.

Permit me, too, as a cool spectator of the controversy, to say that this language greatly weakens and lowers a very forcible argument, and must have the effect of distracting attention from the points you wish to make, and stamping the whole discussion as a strangely undignified attack for such a combatant. And aside from the effect of such an article upon yourself, let me call to your attention the scandal which is brought upon Harvard College by such a public wrangle between two of her instructors.

I have not read carefully the whole of Dr. Royce's article, but I have read the parts which must be most offensive to you; and while I do not defend, in all respects, the tone of the review, I think that you have greatly exaggerated and misinterpreted it. As I said to you on Sunday evening, Dr. Royce has disclaimed, in the strongest way, any intention to wound you, or to reflect in any way upon your personal character; and after this, is it not a perversion to insist upon putting the worst and most personal construction on all that he says, omitting the qualifications which go far to soften his hostile expressions?

As I remember his article, he nowhere calls you an impostor, as you repeatedly charge; and in speaking of you as "sinning against the demands of literary property rights," you omit the word "unaware," which wholly changes the sense.

That the *Journal of Ethics* should publish the article as it now stands is not to be thought of. It could not do so with self-respect. The editors are, however, very willing to publish the body of your reply as you have written it, if you will leave out those passages which are merely personal.

I send with this a copy of your article, with the objectionable passages marked. You will, I think, admit that your argument is untouched, and that enough of anger and indignation are left to save the paper from any appearance of tameness. If these passages are omitted, or so changed as to be free from objection, the *Journal* will publish it in the July number, and without any other comment than a statement that a reply is reserved for the October issue.

I trust that you will adopt my suggestions and make the changes, which I believe will strengthen the article in the minds of those whom you most wish to persuade. You will not overlook the great advantage it will be to you to have your reply appear in the same journal which originally published the review, and I trust that you will be willing, for that reason if no other, to conform to the very obvious requirements which the *Journal* must impose.

I hope you believe me when I say that I should not advise the *Journal* to refuse the article in its present shape, as I do, unless I were fully persuaded that you are offered the fullest opportunity of reply which fair play can demand. Very sincerely yours,

J. B. WARNER.

P. S.—Please let me know your decision as soon as possible, as the *Journal* must be made up. Will you kindly return my copy of your article? J. B. W.

LARCH STREET, CAMBRIDGE, Mass., June 9, 1891.

J. B. Warner, Esq., Exchange Building, Boston:

MY DEAR MR. WARNER: I beg leave to acknowledge receipt of your obliging letter of this date, with thanks, and to return at once the enclosed printed paper, as you request.

With great personal regard I remain

Very sincerely yours,

FRANCIS E. ABBOT.

Dr. Abbot declined to make any change in his reply and it has never been published.

JOSEPH B. WARNER.

BOSTON, November 20, 1891.

EXISTING CAVE-DWELLERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the November number of *Scribner's Magazine*, Mr. Carl Lumholtz, in writing of his explorations in the Sierra Madre, remarks (p. 534): "The old church-books of Bacadéhuachi tell us, says Mr. A. F. Bandelier, of the Jesuits going out in the mountains, administering the sacrament to the Tarahumare Indians, who were living in caves and cliffs. *But* I am satisfied that many of the same tribe are still living in that way, and why not others?"

I italicize the "but." It conveys the impression that I had only mentioned the *former* existence of cave dwelling Indians about Nacori and beyond, ignoring the fact that the Tarahumares still partly live in caves at this day, and that they were cave-dwellers in part when first visited in the sixteenth century. Mr. Lumholtz knows better, and should have stated it. The reference is to Part I., page 92, note 1, of my "Final Report to the Archæological Institute of America," written before Lieut. Schwatka visited the Tarahumares, and published early in 1890. On page 98 I state: "If the verbal information imparted to me lately is correct, the Tarahumares are, at the present time, and in a few secluded localities, still the cave-dwellers of the American continent." In note 2, same page, I give the full text of the description of the cave-dwellings of the Tarahumares, as given by Father Juan Fonte, S. J., in 1608, and published by F. Ribas, S.J., in 1645. Lastly, on p. 245, I give the text of a letter written to me by a friend from Chihuahua, on the subject of the Tarahumares, in which he says: "But the Gentiles are a different people, live in caves,

. . ." The existence of at least one tribe of cave-dwellers had then been officially communicated by me to the Archæological Institute of America, for publication, before Lieut. Schwatka's promulgation of the fact, and the Institute published the information which I furnished before Mr. Lumholtz ever visited the Southwest.—Respectfully,

AD. F. BANDELIER.

ISLETA, N. M., November 10, 1891.

A GENEALOGIST'S GRIEVANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I yesterday received from New York a copy of your paper, of October 8, in which I am referred to. Will you allow me to say a few words, not about the "coarse and venomous" part of the letter, for I do not think it worth a reply, but about the hope the writer expresses that some one will write to me, to see "if" I have "any information worth notice." I think I have proved my possession of such by the correction I have been able to make of Col. Chester's mistake about the eldest son of Laurence Washington, and it is amusing to think how differently that correction would have been received, and what a flourish of trumpets there would have been, had it been made by Mr. Waters. It is the unfairness of the New England Historic-Genealogical Society that has produced my "pronounced dislike." I am always ready to give —"too ready," Miss Walford once told me; but even when I give away my "finds," I like to have the *credit* of them in some cases, and in no case do I like to see them coolly "annexed." I gave Mr. Waters the reference to the will of John Custis, which he thought "important," and I called Mr. Waters's attention to the fact that Dame Dorothy Washington was "undoubtedly" a Pargiter. I refused, it is true, to be *named* in Mr. Waters's little book, in connection with the matter, because I am not a "professional worker"; but Mr. Waters has recognized indebtedness to others without naming them, and I expected just that amount of recognition. Not having had it accorded me, I did not feel inclined to have anything more to do with his Society.

What I wish to say about my information is, that it is disposed of, both in the present and in the future, and that it is, therefore, useless to write to me. The first instalment, which is little more than an amplification of Sir Henry Dryden's interesting notes, left for America last week; I have sent it to a gentleman who is a corresponding member of the Society in question, and I leave its fate, and the fate of all else I have, entirely in his hands, save that *yesterday* I wrote to him, "short of NOW giving it to the New England Historic-Genealogical Society." It will interest you, perhaps, to know that during the last few weeks, when not even thinking of Washington, I have found some wills of the time of Henry VII. and Henry VIII. in which the name occurs, and in connection with Northamptonshire and Yorkshire.

Miss Walford's "find" in Essex is very interesting to me, though, oddly enough, not in actual connection with Washington; but it surely must be very disappointing and disheartening to Mr. Waters, after the infinite pains he took and the great ingenuity he brought to bear on the point, to show *why* the Rector of Purleigh *lived at Tring*, to find that a single entry in the registers of Malden brings the "irresistible inference" that it is the burial entry of the Rector of Purleigh, and that Malden was his "natural abiding place"—and that, too, in 1652, his ejection having occurred in 1643! As I have accepted my reputation as "coarse and venomous," I will deserve it a little more—"on revient toujours à ses premiers amours"! Did the Rector of Purleigh go back to Malden from Tring on account of old associations with the "alehouses" of the neighborhood?—Yours faithfully,

VERNONA I. C. SMITH ("Vernon").

BARNES, SURREY, November 6, 1891.

THE LIBERAL PARTY IN JAPAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the fact that the Emperor of Japan, by an Imperial Rescript, in accordance with the Constitution, has summoned the Imperial Diet to meet in the second annual session beginning November 21, it may be of interest to know the programme of the Liberal party, the principal factor in opposition to the Government. At a general meeting of the "Jiyu-to," the policy of the party was stated to be, in general, opposition to the wasteful expenditure of the State. "We desire to see no more extravagant waste of the country's resources. If any department adopts our suggestions, and introduces reforms in accordance with them, we are ready to vote for the expenditure of that department." "The policy of the present Government is often uncertain."

The following list of prospective "bills" is given in the *Japan Mail:*

(1.)—Amendment of the Press Regulations:
- (1.) To abolish the power of suspending publication.
- (2.) To abolish security money.
- (3.) To modify the punishments.

(2.)—Amendment of the Public Meetings Regulations:
- (1.) The law must not extend beyond political meetings.
- (2.) The control of political parties and meetings must be less strict.
- (3.) Punishments must be modified.

(3.)—Amendment of the Publication Regulations: Their provisions must be changed in accordance with the principles applied in the case of the above two Regulations.

(4.)—Amendment of the Law of Election:
- (1.) Enlarge the electoral districts.
- (2.) Extend the franchise.

(5.)—Amendment of the Organization of *Fu* and *Ken* [province]:
- (1.) Regard *Fu* and *Ken* as "persons" in law.
- (2.) Reform the law of reëlection of *Fu* and *Ken* representatives.
- (4.) Augment the rights of representatives and councillors in municipal meetings.

(6.)—Amendment of the Organization of *Gun* [county]:
- (1.) Regard *Gun* as a "person" in law.
- (2.) Make the election of Magistrates public.
- (3.) Reform the law of reëlection of representatives.
- (4.) Augment the rights of representatives and councillors in local meetings.

(7.)—Amendment of the Organization of *Shi, Cho,* and *Son* [city, town, and village]:
- (1.) Reform the system of election.

(8.)—Amendment of the Law of the Imperial Diet:
- (1.) Strengthen the independence of the Diet.

(9.)—Establishment by special provision of a Local Assembly in Hokkaido.

(10.)—Reduction of the assessed value of land for purposes of taxation.

(11.)—Abolition of the Peace Preservation Regulations.

The programme is certainly interesting, but perhaps too comprehensive to be carried out in full. The next session will be exciting.

E. W. CLEMENT.

CHICAGO, November 18, 1891.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have nearly ready 'Studies in Chaucer,' by Prof. T. R. Lounsbury, in three volumes, with a very full index; 'English Words,' by Prof. Charles F. Johnson; 'Glimpses of Nature,' by Dr. Andrew Wilson of Edinburgh; and 'Ruth the Gleaner and Esther the Queen,' by Dr. Wm. M. Taylor.

The first volume of four comprehending the 'Memorial History of the City of New York,' edited by Gen. James Grant Wilson and published by the New York History Company, will appear early next month. The work will be profusely illustrated.

Mr. W. L. Keese's annotated edition of W. E. Burton's 'Life of James W. Wallack' having been delayed, the Dunlap Society has in press for immediate issue a reprint of one of the oldest and most curious of American plays, Burk's 'Battle of Bunker Hill,' for which Mr. Brander Matthews has written an introduction.

Mr. W. Salt Brassington is preparing to issue, to subscribers only, a quarto containing twenty-four photogravure plates, representing two dozen of the finest book-bindings in the Bodleian Library at Oxford. In the introduction special attention will be paid to the history of the art of book-binding in England; and every illustration will be accompanied by a description by Mr. Brassington. Three of the bindings to be reproduced are in carved ivory; one is in transparent enamel on silver, four are in embroidery of various periods, and the rest are in leather, one of these being from the famous collection of Diane de Poitiers, and another from the library of De Thou. Only 150 copies will be printed. Subscribers' names will be received by Sampson Low & Co.

This firm will issue in connection with Houghton, Mifflin & Co. a new holiday edition in two volumes of Mrs. Stowe's 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' with upwards of a hundred illustrations in the text by E. W. Kemble.

From the Dryden Press, Long Acre, London, will issue before the end of the year an anonymous bibliography of the works of Matthew Arnold in prose and in verse.

Cassell & Co. will immediately bring out a new and revised edition of 'The Law of Musical and Dramatic Copyright,' by Messrs. E. Cutler, T. E. Smith, and F. E. Weatherley. It will contain the text of our Copyright Act of 1891 and a comment on it.

Leach, Shewell & Sanborn have in press 'Outlines of Rhetoric,' by Prof. J. H. Gilmore of the University of Rochester.

The third part (Bridge Design) of 'Roofs and Bridges,' by Prof. Mansfield Merriman, is announced as in preparation by John Wiley & Sons.

Little, Brown & Co.'s promised new edition of Charles Lever's military novels makes a beginning with 'Charles O'Malley' in two volumes. The work has been set and printed at the press of John Wilson & Son, Cambridge, with unimpeachable accuracy, therefore, and in good fair type. The binding is in a dark green, richly stamped. The illustrations are after the original by "Phiz," and are partly full-page etchings and partly cuts in the text, the latter much the more meritorious. "Phiz's" graphic antics with horseflesh would furnish material for an evening's corrections by Mr. Muybridge. Lever's rollicking text is far less antiquated than these designs, and we do not know why it should not be read in this country with as much avidity now as fifty years ago.

The same firm continue their reprint of the

works of Alexandre Dumas, senior, with 'The Regent's Daughter' and 'Le Chevalier d'Harmenthal.' These are likewise products of the University Press, but are more elegantly printed and bound. The illustrations are confined to two portrait frontispieces.

The third volume of the beautiful six-volume edition of Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is provided with a portrait of the author. The Dialogues of Sovereigns and Statesmen are concluded, and the better half of the volume is occupied with the Dialogues of Literary Men, which possess a livelier and more enduring interest.

The well-preserved plates of the 1887 edition, in three volumes, of Dean Stanley's 'Historical Memorials of Westminster Abbey,' published by A. D. F. Randolph & Co., have been used in the less expensive edition just brought out by the same firm in two volumes. The full-page etchings are wholly changed in favor (mainly) of Herbert Railton's pen-drawings, and the exchange is no robbery. The binding shows a back of white and gold, and half-lavender cloth sides. The painstaking and the taste of the Messrs. Randolph are visible throughout, and are sure of recognition by book-buyers.

'The British Seas' (Macmillan & Co.) is a set of "Picturesque Notes," by W. Clark Russell and others, reprinted from the *Portfolio*, and serving as a vehicle for a dozen large plates and some forty cuts in the text of marine subjects. The title-page, which announces "Etchings and Engravings after J. C. Hook, R. A., Colin Hunter, A.R.A., Henry Moore, A.R.A., Hamilton Macallum, and other artists," has a rather modern sound, but in fact the book has a very old-fashioned air, the "other artists" including Turner (who has two of the twelve plates and a vignette), David Cox, De Wint, and Girtin, while the bulk of the illustrations are by unknown or little known men. The text is, as might be expected, somewhat scrappy. The chapter on St. George's Channel is by Mr. Hamerton, who shows considerable skill in making "copy" on a subject of which, confessedly, he knows nothing.

The holiday season brings at least one exquisite gift-book in Walter Crane's 'Queen Summer, or the Tourney of the Lily and the Rose' (Cassell). It is a thin quarto of forty pages, each bearing a portion of text in decorative black-letter and an illustration printed in colors. The paper is folded after the Japanese fashion and printed on one side only, and the book is bound in boards with a decorative design by the author. Mr. Crane's verse is fanciful and pretty, but it is only an excuse for the forty drawings, which show endless invention, exuberance of fancy, grace of line and richness of composition, with rare delicacy and charm of color. It is as much better than any former work of Mr. Crane's that we have seen as his former work is better than that of any of his emulators in the same field, and hardly any praise can be too high for it.

The latest volume in the "*Gentleman's Magazine* Library," edited by G. L. Gomme and published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., is devoted to 'English Topography.' It consists of the articles which were written for that magazine by local antiquarians, the excerpts being now brought together under the head of each county. This volume covers Bedfordshire, Berkshire, and Buckinghamshire. Of course, the proportion of the notices is not preserved; many noted places are omitted, and some small places are fully described. But, on the other hand, being informal and without restraint, they preserve many facts which the larger county histories ignore. When the series is completed, it will be very serviceable in many libraries here which cannot afford the more costly local histories.

The fourth volume of the *Bookworm* (A. C. Armstrong & Son) presents the usual medley which the name betokens. Current publications and literary events, however, are more looked after than might be expected. The great defect, apart from occasional neglect to give the sources of curious information, is the absence of a table of contents. There is an index, not very full or very good, but it does not show at a glance the physiognomy of the volume.

A book to be recommended to all readers of French literature whose purses and libraries are limited, is a cheap volume recently published by Garnier (New York: F. W. Christern). It is a series of 'Extraits des Causeries du Lundi' of Sainte-Beuve, chosen (and arranged in chronological order so as to follow the development of French literature) by M. Pichon, Professor of Rhetoric at the Lycée Saint-Louis. There is an introduction by M. Léon Robert, Inspector-General of Public Instruction. The volume is neatly printed, and its contents have been most skilfully selected. There is no better book of its size and cost.

M. Conquet recently sent forth a most sumptuous edition of the Memoirs of Madame de Staal-Delaunay—not to be confounded with the author of "Corinne"; and of this admirably illustrated work we understand that an English translation by Mrs. E. Hamilton Bell is soon to appear. A cheap French edition of the Memoirs, edited by Mme. Carette, *née* Bovet, is now published in the "Collection pour les Jeunes Filles" (Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern).

Dr. H. O. Lehmann's 'Quellen zur deutschen Reichs- und Rechtsgeschichte (Berlin: Otto Liebmann) was compiled for the use of students of German legal and constitutional history. Its scope for Germany resembles that of Stubbs's 'Select Charters' for England, but Lehmann's work embraces modern times as well as the middle ages. The book contains extracts from Cæsar and Tacitus (pp. 1–4), the *Leges Barbarorum* (pp. 6–18), Merovingian and Carolingian capitularies (pp. 49–79), laws and constitutional documents from 922 to about 1250 (pp. 80–108), the 'Sachsenspiegel' and the 'Schwabenspiegel' (pp. 109–176), laws, treaties of peace, constitutions, etc., from 1273 to 1866 (pp. 179–309). Difficult words are explained in the footnotes, but no attempt is made to furnish a detailed commentary. Prof. Lehmann is well fitted to compile a work of this sort, and his book may be recommended to instructors and students of German constitutional history.

The proclamation of the Emperor of Japan summoning the Imperial Diet to meet in Tokio for its second session on the 21st of November, 1891, called attention anew to "the constitutional development of Japan." The words we have put in quotation marks form the title of a pamphlet of fifty-six pages, by Dr. Toyokichi Iye'naga, Professor of Political Science in the Tokio School of Special Studies, which is published as Number ix. in the ninth series of Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. The author does not penetrate very far beneath the surface of events, and contents himself with briefly outlining the story of occurrences very much as they have been repeatedly told in foreign publications. The value of the monograph lies rather in its being a good specimen of English composition by a Japanese than in its philosophical grasp of the subject. The best part of the essay is its two or three pages devoted to the crude attempts at national parliamentary action in the great councils of kugés and daimios, or of courtly and territorial nobles, in the days following the advent of Perry. Nevertheless, for those not familiar with the growing literature in which the rise of constitutional Japan is traced, the pamphlet is valuable as giving a bird's-eye view of the movement in clear and simple language. There still remains to the investigator who has patience, ability, time, enthusiasm, money, and the spirit of sacrifice, an inviting opportunity to tell fully the story of Japan's awakening to modern life.

Mr. E. P. Oberholtzer of Philadelphia contributes to the American Academy of Political Science an essay entitled "Law-making by Popular Vote, or the American Referendum." After glancing at the history of the referendum in Switzerland, he reviews the part taken by the people of our States in adopting and amending their constitutions, as well as in enacting statutes; discovering an increasing popular feeling in favor of withdrawing certain subjects from the control of the legislatures. Into the causes of this feeling Mr. Oberholtzer does not inquire. The most important recent developments of this tendency towards direct legislation by the people have taken place in reference to municipal government. In the Western States there are county referendums, city referendums, township referendums, and even school-district referendums; and both at the East and at the West city charters are submitted for approval or disapproval to the members of the communities affected by them.

In the address of its President, Mr. Edward C. Burks, to the Virginia State Bar Association, published by Everett Waddey Co. of Richmond, lawyers will find a valuable summary of the changes effected in the Virginia law by the recent revision. This account by Mr. Burks, who was one of the revisers, is in the line of the useful work of Mr. Dembitz on 'Kentucky Jurisprudence,' recently reviewed in these columns, but is of course much more restricted in its aim. It may be noted that *Magna Carta* was a statute of Virginia from 1785 until 1849, when it was omitted in the revision then made.

The Smithsonian Report for 1889 contains, under number 784, a brief treatise on Latitude by Walter B. Scaife, which students of geography and geodesy will find instructive. It traces the development of the idea of latitude from the earliest times, and gives especial attention to the controversy between the Newtonians and Cassinians two hundred years ago, this marking one of the most important epochs in the advance of our knowledge of the earth's form. By an unfortunate oversight, a footnote on the first page is in error, and contradicts the definition of latitude in the text.

The close of Gen. Greely's charge of the Weather Bureau is marked by the preparation under his direction of several series of charts of climatic data, lately published, adapted particularly to the needs of observers on stations, who are frequently questioned concerning the mean values of wind and weather. One series of charts gives the average monthly cloudiness for the United States; showing in January less than fifty per cent. for Florida, less than forty for parts of Colorado and Southern California, about seventy for the northern Pacific Coast, and more than eighty in small areas east of some of the great lakes. July has a lower percentage—below fifty about the lakes, and under ten in the valley of California. The probability of rainy days is given in another series of charts, the variation of values being

similar to that of cloudiness. A third series presents the temperature means for periods of ten days through the year, of much interest in measuring the relative advance of the season. Charts of isobars, isotherms, and winds for the several months from January, 1871, to December, 1873, heretofore unpublished, correspond to similar charts for later years contained in the Monthly Weather Review.

Westermann & Co. send us the first instalment of a new map of the German Empire just begun to be issued by Perthes of Gotha, on a scale of 1:500,000. It will comprise twenty-seven sheets and a title-page, and be issued in fourteen parts. It represents the patriotic labor of ten years directed by Dr. C. Vogel, and its execution is characterized by great elegance and delicate coloring. Königsberg and Mülhausen give names to the two plates before us; the latter contains no small part of German Switzerland as well as of the French frontier. The publishers print a letter of Moltke's in which he warmly praises the proofs, and declares the enterprise valuable from a military as well as a civilian point of view.

In the fifth paper of the series on British Confederation, published in the November *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, the subject is treated mainly from the colonial point of view. The author, Mr. M. H. Hervey, the principal of a college in New South Wales, does not propose a plan of federation, but simply shows its prospective advantages, as well as the disadvantages of disintegration, both to the mother country and the colonies. These latter are described as loss of empire to Great Britain, and the commercial ruin of the colonies. The advantages of federation are the impregnability of the empire and an immense increase of commerce. The existing high tariffs of the colonies he attributes to the fact that, regarding independence as inevitable, "they *must* and will strive, by a protective policy, to make themselves productively independent of the rest of the world, Great Britain included." The same number contains some interesting notes by Col. Tanner on the inhabitants of the Himalayas, whom he distinguishes by their religions into Mohammedan, Hindu, Buddhist, and idolaters. This is followed by another of Mr. Bartholomew's interesting papers on the "Mapping of the World," in which he treats of North America, and gives a list, filling more than twenty-three closely printed pages, of "only the best and most recent Government and private" maps. It is accompanied by a sketch map showing the extent and value of the geographical surveys. From this we learn that "only about 15 per cent. of the land-surface can be said to be even fairly well surveyed," while about a fourteenth part is to be regarded as "unexplored territory."

Mrs. Harriet Prescott Spofford, a neighbor and intimate acquaintance of the late James Parton, pays in the current *Writer* an intimate and affectionate tribute to this versatile writer, from the domestic and social point of view. A pleasing portrait of Mr. Parton accompanies the article. We may also signalize Mr. F. B. Sanborn's paper on James Russell Lowell in the November number of the *New England Magazine*. It is freely illustrated with views of the poet's "home and haunts," first wife, kindred, and near friends.

The cover of the *Revue Illustrée* of November 1 contains a portrait of M. Ernest Lavisse, and the writer of the accompanying essay declares that M. Lavisse is the leader of young France much as M. Taine was thirty years ago. M. Lavisse is the director of the Parisian School of Political Science. A translation of his 'General View of the Political History of Europe,' by Dr. Charles Gross of Harvard, is about to be published here and in England by Longmans, Green & Co.

The twelfth annual report of the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women (the Harvard "Annex") contains an announcement which possibly foreshadows a change of heart among benefactors of our great conservative universities. Mr. Waldo Higginson of the Harvard Class of 1833 has founded the George B. Sohier Prize, in memory of his brother-in-law, a member of the class of 1852. The endowment provides an annual prize of $250 for the best thesis by a successful candidate for honors in English or modern literature, and by its terms admits to competition, in addition to collegiate and post-graduate students of Harvard, "students pursuing courses of instruction in Cambridge under direction of the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women." This is the second prize in the gift of Harvard University for which "Annex" students may compete.

—Volumes iii. and iv. complete the 'Essays, Reviews, and Addresses' of Dr. James Martineau (Longmans, Green & Co.), which he has selected and revised. The first of these two volumes is theological and philosophical. The successive articles afford ample illustration of a statement in the preface: "The whole interest of literary intercourse, like that of all quickening friendship, is conditional on crossing lines of likeness and unlikeness, deepening the zest of sympathy by the need and possibility of more." Several of the reviews are of little systems of morality or metaphysics that have had their day and ceased to be, but Martineau's criticism always has a value independent of the particular book under discussion; and sometimes when the particular book has had its day, as in the case of Mansell's 'Limits of Religious Thought,' the problems it discussed are still alive and pressing. 'Essays and Reviews,' which are characterized by nothing else so strongly as by their opposition to agnosticism, and which make not only Mansell, and Hamilton, and Mill, but also Spencer, the object of their critical investigation and attack, are quite as timely now as when they first appeared. For every one the matter interested then, it interests a hundred now. Vol. iv. is made up of "College Addresses' and "Occasional Sermons" in about equal parts. Some of the sermons are nearly or quite fifty years old, but they justify their author's hardihood in printing them. One of them, and one of the college addresses, and a brace of the longer articles, in volume iii., "Early History of Messianic Ideas," make a group by themselves, and are very interesting, as showing that the part of Dr. Martineau's latest work, 'The Seat of Authority in Religion,' which has given most offence, and has been treated as a daring novelty—the denial to Jesus of any Messianic character or Messianic claim—represents one of the most stable and persistent elements of his thought. The sermon preached in 1851 expresses it as clearly as the volume of last year. In some of the American collections of Dr. Martineau's essays there are admirable things which he has seen fit to omit from this series.

—The moral obligation of faithfulness in the translation of foreign works needs no proof. Mistranslation is an injustice to the author and to the reader, especially when, as in America, the majority of readers are wholly dependent on the translation for a knowledge of the contents of the book. The duty of fidelity is equally binding on translator and publisher, but the public must hold the publisher responsible in an especial manner. This feeling was notably recognized some years ago when English editions of a large German commentary on the Bible were begun at the same time by firms in Edinburgh and New York; the Scotch version was found to be very bad, and the Edinburgh house suppressed it and (by arrangement with the New York publishers) adopted the American work. It would be a gain for us if this strict sense of responsibility were universal among publishers, for bad translations, it is well known, are not uncommon. An illustration in point is found in the third volume of the American translation of Renan's 'History of the People of Israel' (Boston: Roberts Brothers). Whatever may be thought of the merits of M. Renan as critic and philosopher, he is important enough to deserve an accurate rendering of his great historical work, and this he does not get in the American translation. The first and second volumes were bad, and the third is no better. To pass over the too numerous misprints (the Hebrew, especially, is very nearly a complete failure), this volume bristles with mistranslations. Some of these are infelicities, missing the precise shade of the author's expression; some are omissions or misconceptions of necessary connecting and modifying words; some are misrenderings pure and simple. It is unfortunate that the translator always adopts the King James version of Bible quotations instead of taking the author's translation; a curious specimen of the results he thus reaches is found on pages 149, 150. Many of the errors come from lack of acquaintance with the critical and literary material—another illustration of the fact that the translation of such books ought to be assigned to persons who have some critical training. No doubt the author's general ideas can be got even from a version so inaccurate as this; but there are a hundred places in which the reader will receive a wrong impression of particulars. It is to be hoped that the publishers will bring out the next volume in a form worthy of their excellent reputation, and that the translator (if the same translator be retained) will show himself capable of thorough accuracy and fidelity.

—Macmillan & Co. have brought out a reprint of the 'History of the Buccaneers of America,' which was published in 1816 by Captain, afterwards Rear-Admiral, James Burney of the British Navy. This work must in no wise be confounded with Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Buccaneers and Marooners of America,' which, in fact, merely reproduced portions of the narratives of Exquemelin, Ringrose, and Capt. Johnson. Admiral Burney's book is more in the nature of a digest of the two first of those authors, with additions from other sources, printed and manuscript. The heroes of Mr. Howard Pyle's volume are Sir Henry Morgan and Capt. Bartholomew Roberts, whereas Capt. Edward Davis, one of the most respectable of Buccaneers, plays the principal part in Burney's 'History.' In Mr. Pyle's volume, the Spanish Main and the West Coast of Africa are, for the most part, the scenes of action, while the South Seas were the place where the Admiral's merry men chiefly played their part. The get-up of the volume is admirable, but the publication is a mere reprint, with all the errors of the original, notwithstanding that the facilities afforded by the Public Record Office, London, are within the reach of everybody. When shall we find the statement at page 44, that the French and English made their settlements at St. Christopher on the same day, set right? The fact is that Sir

Thomas Warner had planted a colony at St. Kitts about two years before the Sieur d'Esnambuc, in his damaged frigate, arrived at the island and was made welcome by the English, who were at the time awaiting an attack from the avenging Caribs of the neighboring islands. The Caribs came, and were defeated by French and English. The island thereupon was divided between the two European nations.

—In connection with the various publications relating to the buccaneers, it ought to be noted that modern publishers may thank their stars that they did not live contemporaneously with Sir Henry Morgan. The first English translation of Exquemelin was made at the instance of Crooke, a bookseller. Sir Henry Morgan brought an action against Crooke, "proved all he did was by virtue of a commission of ye Governor of Jamaica and ye King's authority, and recovered £300 or £400 damage from Crooke, about that some I am sure Crooke himself told me. After which his History of ye Buccaneers was looked upon as fabulous, and sold for noe more than wast paper." This much can be learned from the Camden Society's second volume of 'Correspondence of the Hatton Family' (p. 225). Any author in search of a subject for a good biography would find such in the life of Sir Henry Morgan. Ample materials, full of fresh facts, are to be found in the Public Record Office, London. A glance at the index to the last Calendar (Colonial series) that has been published under the editorship of Mr. Noel Saintsbury, will satisfy any one that such is the case.

—Ever since the year 1853, that English official annual entitled 'The Nautical Almanac and Astronomical Ephemeris for the Meridian of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich' has been prepared and published under the superintendence of Mr. J. R. Hind, F.R.S., who attained early prominence among astronomers by his discoveries of a half score of minor planets, and his authorship of treatises on 'Comets' and 'The Solar System.' His administration of the office has been marked by an ultra conservatism which cannot be said to have won applause in all English scientific circles. Year by year the opening paragraph of the preface to the 'Almanac' has read, "The contents and arrangement are the same generally as those of the preceding year." In spite of the conservative policy in its management, the British Nautical Almanac has had a vast growth, chiefly in connection with the development of British marine interests, and its sales of 30,000 or 40,000 copies annually are probably far in excess of the combined sales of the similar publications of all the other nations of the world. At the end of the present year Mr. Hind will relinquish the office of superintendent, and seek that retirement to which his long service and his distinguished career entitle him. The Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty have made a happy selection of his successor in Mr. Arthur M. W. Downing, F.R.A.S., now and for many years of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, where he has had the best of training and abundant experience in computational astronomy. The Nautical Almanac Office is in Verulam Building, Gray's Inn, and the sum of $17,000 is annually appropriated from her Majesty's Treasury for its maintenance. The salary of the Superintendent is $3,000, and this billet has always been filled by an astronomer of eminence. About sixty years ago, a committee of the Royal Astronomical Society drafted the 'Ephemeris and Almanac' in an improved and greatly enlarged form. The recommendations of this Committee set the style and form for the 'Almanac' which has been substantially adhered to ever since, notwithstanding the growth of the sciences of astronomy and navigation. Now, however, an entire and thorough revision is urgently demanded, and Mr. Downing will devote himself at an early day to this remodelling, though it seems unlikely that he will introduce any sweeping changes at once, perhaps not before the issue for the year 1900, which will be published four or five years hence.

DYER'S GODS IN GREECE.

Studies of the Gods in Greece at Certain Sanctuaries Recently Excavated. By Louis Dyer, B.A. Oxon., late Assistant Professor in Harvard University. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

It is pleasant to welcome back in this work certain discourses which are not strangers on American soil. The substance of the book was delivered in a series of lectures before the Lowell Institute. They comprise studies of the greater gods of Greece, of the growth and purification of their worship, of the spirit and form which it assumed in connection with certain shrines and sanctuaries, "where," as Mr. Dyer says, "that old-time worship of ideals, by some miscalled idolatry, grew pure and yet more pure, broad and broader still, until its inner significance and truth were no longer to be confined within old forms, could be fettered no longer by old bands; and lo! Christianity was there to gather in a heritage of high-born thoughts from Greece."

Some years ago Mr. Andrew Lang, in his 'Myth, Ritual and Religion,' traced the primitive foundation on which rest many rites and superstitions—crude notions and barbarous observances which he showed that the Greeks, notwithstanding the beauty of their culture, shared with Hottentots and Mexicans and the tribes of the Pacific islands. Mr. Dyer prefers to dwell upon the reverse of the medal—on the side that is turned towards us by Mr. Pater in his 'Marius the Epicurean'—upon that upward spiritual progress in which "the ape and tiger die." "Christianity as we know it," he observes, "Christianity as we prize it, is not solely and exclusively a gift from Israel. It is time to open our eyes and see the facts new and old that stare us in the face, growing more clear the more investigations and excavations on Greek soil proceed. To the religion of Greece and Rome, to the Eleusinian mysteries, to the worship of Æsculapius and Apollo, to the adoration of Aphrodite, is due more of the fulness and comforting power of the Church to-day than many of her leaders have as yet been willing to allow." As a help in tracing the sources of such influence, in diffusing a "genial catholicity of appreciation," he associates a study of the sanctuaries of the greater deities still haunted by the spell of "that beautiful religion whose fifth essence and nobler form has passed into our own"; and hence his design embraces a description of recent discoveries in connection with the sites of the temple of Demeter at Eleusis, the Æsculapius of Athens and Epidaurus, and the temple of the Paphian Aphrodite.

These studies traverse a wide field of archæology and of general scholarship; they include a chaos of opinions and material on which the author has very skilfully impressed the mould of artistic harmony. The chapters on Dionysus are really a triumph of orderly and lucid exposition, enabling one to grasp and follow the most complicated, elusive, and contradictory attributes of this strange and potent deity. The original conditions under which the lectures were written imposed a popular style upon the author; but, indeed, no reader who has the slightest interest in ancient ideas and art need feel any dread of the erudition which is here worn with so much lightness and grace of manner, and is brightened by the gleanings of personal observation on the sites which are described. All is fish that comes to Mr. Dyer's net; and in treating a subject which has so many aspects, he displays an equipment unusually complete and many-sided.

But beyond and beside what learning and research can accomplish, Mr. Dyer aims at something more. He has tried to seize and reproduce the vanished spirit of ancient worship, to evoke the presence that once dwelt in ruined shrines and vivified observances which we now with difficulty comprehend, or regard coldly as dead and preposterous superstitions. For such a task imagination is needed as well as science, and unquestionably Mr. Dyer is furnished with both sympathy and imagination. He brings to bear in a useful measure some of the gifts of the poet. The total effect is a synthesis very charming to the popular mind, as well as helpful to the student. All that our author says, in Mr. Pater's words, of the authority of the poets, of the necessity of applying the poetic imagination in reconstructing the religious attitude of the past, is true; true also is the caution he adds against "a certain cynicism in that over-positive temper which is so jealous of our catching any resemblance in the earlier world to the thoughts that really occupy our minds." Mr. Dyer is troubled with no such cynicism, as appears in his use of language in the article on Æsculapius, where he speaks of the "vicar of Apollo," "the mediator," "means of grace," "the collect of Aristides," and of a statue of the deity which "gazes—as if kindly to entreat with welcome all those who suffer and are heavy laden." These phrases have certain associations; they are fine strokes which, taken together, produce an effect that may be entirely accurate; if accurate, the tone of the picture may well furnish occasion for deep reflection. It is not always possible to give chapter and verse for things so evanescent and subtle as religious emotion and the varieties of its manifestations—to give a qualitative and quantitative analysis of that which cannot be seen or touched or handled. It is not fair, indeed, when Mr. Dyer's object is to present a living whole, to ask that he shall analyze and anatomize at the same time, and tell us where he got this or that detail or impression, what is his voucher for it. All we can fairly ask is that the imagination, like Socrates's cockchafer, shall be allowed to soar, but, at the same time, be tethered fast to the facts. One may feel that the net impression of certain chapters is perhaps too favorable, too roseate; that the influence of Aphrodite, of Apollo, or Æsculapius was never quite so gracious and benign as Mr. Dyer's fancy pictures it. He has a lover's eye for the life and ceremonial and religion that he describes; and who shall say whether the color and atmosphere and beautiful haze with which he adorns his picture truly belonged to the scene, or really never were, on land or sea, and are only a part of the poet's and the lover's dream? This, we admit, is a vague criticism, but the question itself is subtle and illusory. At any rate, if a corrective is needed for Mr. Dyer's glasses, the reader will find it in Plutarch's treatise on superstition, with its vivid detail of the features of that grim spectre which

"frowned from the heavens upon mankind" in the days of Lucretius as well as of Epicurus.

It is very neat and striking to say of Apollo that he, rather than Zeus, was governor of Olympus: "Zeus was a king among the gods who reigned but governed not. His Premier was the Delphian god." It is an aphorism which might have shocked the piety of Æschylus and Sophocles, yet its truth is reflected throughout the action of such plays as the "Eumenides," the "Œdipus Rex," and the "Iphigeneia in Tauris." These all show, what history declares, that the Delphic shrine was the most important religious power and influence in Greece. From a subtler point of view, Apollo was the source and ordainer of Greek theology. He is the inspirer of the poets who are the makers of its theology. He is, moreover, the highest ideal of character in the Greek pantheon. Mr. Dyer dwells on this fact with his usual enthusiasm. We confess that we do not always find his enthusiasm substantiated by the particular instances he quotes. The sudden passion of Apollo for Cyrene which Mr. Dyer finds so "noble and chivalrous," has been interpreted quite otherwise; the moral of his conduct in that case, it is to be hoped, was clearer for the youths of Greece than it is at present for the commentators of Pindar, in a scene where apparently Apollo is headstrong and it is the centaur Cheiron who preaches reserve and decorum. If we are to press at all the naïveté of such narrative, we should be puzzled by Apollo's manners in the very next ode.

Is it not, again, a false note to say of the same deity, "He deals no death to womankind; here is one test of his chivalry"? Is there any evidence that the early partition of functions between Apollo and Artemis, by which the masculine deity inflicts sudden death on men, and his sister on women, rested on any conception of a chivalrous scruple which stayed the hand of the sun-god from the gentler sex? Nor is it very safe to quote the "Ion" as a voucher for Apollo's character. Even if we do not go the length of accepting the hyper-ingenuity of Dr. Verrall's arraignment, it must be acknowledged that the general impression the play produces is unfavorable to the god, and is not dispelled by the apology of Athene at the close. That worldly personage who provides for the political future of his illegitimate son, who shrinks from the awkwardness of a domestic scene with Creusa, and who expressly recommends deceit through the mouthpiece of Athene, is really a typical Greek, possessed of the average virtues and failings of the period, and only wearing Apollo's name. He cannot be quoted as an example, or as the ideal of a cult. The pure and high-minded zealot Ion is indeed a startling contrast to his divine father. He is the real Sir Galahad, the sole character in the play who can be used to point a moral and adorn a tale. All that we are criticising here is the appositeness of certain illustrations to prove that Apollo embodied and anticipated the virtues of the Round Table. For such a claim the poets are rather slippery and discordant witnesses.

An excursus on the deification of the Roman emperors explains the situation and the causes which could originate a practice so alien to our modern conceptions. We are apt to think of it as an act of grossest flattery and hypocrisy. As a matter of fact, it was the result of the enlargement of the empire, of the annexing of Oriental peoples and the importation of Oriental modes of thought. To this class of minds the deification of powerful men, living or dead, was a natural impulse—an impulse which survives in full force in Hindustan at the present day. As Sir Alfred C. Lyall says: "The Indians worship all things created, but above all things men and women." A large part of the Roman world, therefore, in deifying the Emperor, was simply following an irresistible bent, and was acting in the spirit of the Sepoy who adored his British officer in spite of protestations, and was disciplined accordingly. The emperors were not so puritanical. They submitted graciously to a homage which was as spontaneous as it was convenient for purposes of statecraft. Hence arose, as Mr. Dyer puts it, "a seemingly incongruous compound of Asiatic piety and European bureaucracy"—a compound which, in some particulars, the Vatican may help us to understand. In the provinces, as well as in Italy, guilds of freedmen and tradesmen sprang into existence, calling themselves Augustales, and these centres of worship became also centres of political influence. The Greeks took kindly enough to the new cult, for it was native to their ways of thinking, and they had worshipped heroes from Achilles and Protesilaus down to Brasidas and Lysander. The poets, too—Virgil and Homer—became high-priests of the latest avatar, and wrote hymns in its honor with a certain amount of fervency and conviction. Strangest of all was the manner in which the unheard-of and universal sway of the Emperor impressed the imagination of sober and sceptical Romans of the highest culture—men like Tacitus and Quintilian and Pliny. The empire furnished Quintilian with his metaphor of the god "who administers the universe." Pliny himself is willing to accord to Vespasian, whom he calls "maximus ævi rector," a sort of Comtist apotheosis. And yet this was the age of which Juvenal could say that the very babes no longer believe in the lower world and its hobgoblins; and Pliny's hero, Vespasian, died with the jest upon his lips, "Ut puto, deus fio!"

We must pass over with regret a swarm of curious and interesting details which tempt one's notice—the sketch of the history of Greek medicine, in the chapter on Æsculapius; the illustration afforded by Apollo's plea in the "Eumenides" of the custom of the *couvade* (his reasoning, by the way, is precisely paralleled in the 'Mahabharata'); the lucid discussion of Aphrodite's origin and affinities; and, finally, the description and plan of the temple at Old Paphos, which was anticipated to a certain extent in the *Nation* (September 6 and 13, 1888). We can only allude to the dissertation which, setting right a common mistake about Mount Olympus in Cyprus, identifies it with Mount Troodos instead of Santa Croce; which restores, also, Bocarus, "the river of a hundred mouths," to its rightful place in Salamis, whence it was deported by a sleepy blunder of the geographer John Meursius. These points are traced out at great length, with a scholar's keen scent, and are set forth with a delightful humor which makes one forget the flight of time. It is not easy to find fault with a style whose *lactea ubertas* only an enemy would call at times diffuse. When we light upon this rendering of two famous lines of Archilochus—

> "Wood makes the trough to knead my bread withal,
> Wood makes the cask to keep Ismarian wine,
> Wood makes the deck where drinking I recline"—

we rub our eyes, and wonder whether we have been always wrong in supposing that this "wood" meant *spear*, and that the sentiment is the same as that of the song of Hybrias, *i. e.*, "My sword is my fortune."

An eminent advocate of scientific training has lately been expressing a despondent view of classical studies. He thinks that they tend to sophistical discussion and a disregard for the truth. It is to be hoped that works like Mr. Dyer's will dispel some of these alarms, and will show that we are all in our various lines pursuing the truth. When you have found the truth, there is no harm in telling it in an agreeable and attractive manner, and this Mr. Dyer certainly does. His work shows that combination of learning with literary taste and skill which may fairly be said to characterize the best type of English scholarship—the type which is represented by the names of Jowett and Jebb and Nettleship and Conington.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

'Among the Camps' (Scribners) is a collection of stories which Mr. Thomas Nelson Page has contributed to *Harper's Young People*. They are five in number, each having reference to some incident of the Civil War. A vein of mingled pathos and humor runs through them all, and greatly heightens the charm of them. It is the early experience of the author himself, doubtless, which makes his pictures of life in a Southern home during the great struggle so vivid and truthful. There is none of the bitterness of the contest, however, to be perceived in the book, as the author has wisely chosen incidents in which Confederate and Union soldiers meet only to do some kindness to a child.

'Men of Iron,' by Howard Pyle (Harpers), is an unusually entertaining and stirring story, the scene of which is laid in England during the reign of Henry IV. The fortunes of the hero, Myles Falworth, from the time that he comes, a raw country lad, to enter the service of a great noble as squire, until he wins a bride and his father's pardon by a successful tourney (very spiritedly described) before the king, will be followed, by every boy reader especially, with the deepest interest. There are numerous striking scenes which admirably show the manner of life among the retainers of a great household, and the sports and exercises which formed the chief part of the education of a knight. The not too archaic style of the narrative lends reality to it, and the illustrations, drawn by the author, add much to the attractive appearance of the book.

'A New Mexico David,' by Charles F. Lummis (Scribners), gives, in a number of short stories and sketches not remarkable for literary quality, a clear impression of some aspects of life in Arizona and western New Mexico. The Pueblo Indians and the Mexicans of mixed Spanish and Indian blood are the principal figures, and unconsciously we absorb a good deal of information about them and about their savage neighbors, the Navajos, Apaches, and Comanches. The descriptions of New Mexican games, and the instruction "How to Throw the Lasso," will be hailed by boys in want of a new "fad."

The scene of William Stoddard's 'Little Smoke' (Appletons) is laid in the Black Hills. The real hero, however, is not the Sioux boy whose name the book bears, but Bert Raynor, a plucky Ohio boy, who, having ventured into this region in company with two prospecting miners, is captured by the Indians. They spare him solely because of his courage and endurance. Life in a lodge is well described, as are also some of the sports of the Ogalallah youth. Interwoven with Bert's story are the adventures of his two white companions, which are amusingly told. Gen. Custer's defeat and death and Bert's escape are the closing incidents. The book has a number of excellent illustrations by Fred S. Dellenbaugh.

We are somewhat doubtful whether the first and most ambitious of Mr. Richard Harding Davis's 'Stories for Boys' (Scribners) can be properly so considered. It is a very clever piece of extravagant humor, which men rather than boys will understand and appreciate. This is not the case with those which succeed, and of which boat-racing, football, and tennis are the themes. These are related with much vigor and dash, while the heroes in each are fine, manly fellows who will prove good companions to the boy reader. The main incident of the closing story of the collection—an unsuccessful attempt to induce a young jockey to cheat in a horse-race—will, we are glad to think, be unintelligible to many lads.

'The Boy Travellers in Northern Europe,' by Thomas W. Knox (Harpers), is the best of the series which we have read. The countries visited, Holland, Prussia, Denmark, and Norway, are described in a clear, if not always lively, way, the accounts of scenes and places being illustrated by unusually well-chosen pictures. The author errs, perhaps, in putting a little too much condensed history into the conversation and diaries of his youthful travellers. The make-up of the volume is marked by the same excellences as that of its predecessors, including the device of route-maps on the inside of the covers.

'The Pilots of Pomona,' by Robert Leighton (Scribners), has for its scene of action the Orkney Islands. Adventure abounds, and is in general probable enough. One incident, however, certainly puts too great a strain upon credulity. For a boy adrift upon the Arctic Sea to discover and board a vessel apparently deserted, and to find the dead bodies of the crew in a state of almost perfect preservation, scattered through the ship in life-like postures, thirteen years after they had perished, is a palpable invention, and one not called for by the plot. Mr. Leighton's style is thoroughly good, with a judicious admixture of dialect. The careful descriptions of scenery, animals, and plants (or, rather, lack of plants), together with manners and ways of life in the Orkneys, have every appearance of accuracy, and may well interest not only the boys, but their fathers and mothers, too.

'We All,' by Octave Thanet (Appletons), a pleasant little story of a fortnight's happenings on an Arkansas plantation, is made to read us the lesson of human brotherhood. A Chicago boy, the spoiled child of a millionaire, is brought to visit his poor Southern cousins, and learns, while sharing their busy, unconventional life, that luxury is not the only good thing in the world. Rheumatic old Aunt Valley, playing Kuklux with the help of little Larry and the docile mules mounted with pillows, cuts a figure not soon to be forgotten. Altogether, the book is brightly written and gives a vivid picture of lonesome plantation life.

The 'Jo-Boat Boys,' by the Rev. J. F. Cowan (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), is one of those children's books which are said to be "just the thing for Sunday-school libraries." It is a dull story, and its only excuse for existing lies in the fact that it tries to picture the life of a neglected and little known group of people, the river boat-dwellers at Pittsburgh. But this is done with so little sympathy, the diction is so stilted and unnatural in spite of a large amount of slang, that the result is anything but convincing. As for the plot, it can be considered possible only on the ground that truth is stranger than fiction, while its intricacies confuse no one but the author.

'Half a Dozen Girls,' by Anna Chapin Ray (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), is full of observation, and makes a laudable attempt to find material for a story in every-day life. But while most of the characters are fairly natural, some are quite overdone. Particularly is this true of the severe Aunt Jane, a progressive and conscientious woman, but, paradoxically, "so busy doing good that she has no time to be good." The talks of two mothers with their children furnish the didactic note, which seems to us a little out of date. Their main idea is one which we have somewhere met with before, namely, that "home is woman's sphere." Hence much fun is made of the woman with a career, although in the last chapter it is intimated that one girl goes to college and another studies medicine.

A posthumous work, 'Last Words,' by the lamented Juliana Horatia Ewing (Roberts Bros.), turns out to be simply a collection of the author's last-published writings, and to contain only one or two sketches which have not seen the light before. "Mary's Meadow," the principal story in the book, is a charming description of the doings of some delightful children, well-bred, as Mrs. Ewing's children always are, and as far from priggishness as from anything coarse or vulgar. A considerable part of the volume is taken up with matter more or less horticultural, and the "Letters from a Little Garden," as well as some of the stories, give many useful bits of information and general principles for inexperienced gardeners. From Mr. C. D. Warner's dedication of 'My Summer in a Garden,' in which he plainly implies that his wife's pretended help in his gardening was really no help at all, Mrs. Ewing infers that American women perhaps do not "*grub* so energetically" as their English cousins. Very likely this is true; our wilting summer heats might dampen the ardor, as they certainly would the clothing, of even an English grubber. But if Mrs. Ewing had ever seen the flowers which a New England woman, overburdened with house and farm cares, sometimes manages to coax from the arid soil of a Northern hillside, she would have been convinced that love of flowers, even to the point of grubbing, is not unknown on this side the Atlantic. Her many lovers will welcome the picture of Mrs. Ewing given as a frontispiece, which, although its reproduction is far from satisfying the artistic sense, conveys a pleasant impression of a very admirable personality.

We are afraid that 'Jolly Good Times at Hackmatack' (Roberts Bros) will seem to young readers a misnomer for Mrs. M. P. W. Smith's reminiscences of an earlier time in New England. The terribly wearisome Sundays she describes, the rigid home-discipline, and the lack of sympathy, or at least absence of its expression, between parents and children, cannot be overlooked for the sake of the many out-door delights, nor for popcorn, apples, and cider in the evenings at home, nor even for that priceless treasure, cross but capable Liddy Ann, who cou'd and did make endless mince-pies and doughnuts.

'Betty: a Butterfly,' by A. G. Plympton (Roberts Bros.), tells the old story, *amor omnia vincit*, in a rather novel way. Flighty little Betty, who was always troublesome and often naughty while in the care of stiff Quaker "Aunt Nancy," learns to be a thoughtful and unselfish child when taken to live with her more demonstrative Uncle Richard, to whom she gives her heart at once in the most unreserved fashion. Her goodness, indeed, fairly rises into heroism when she risks her life in the attempt to save from his burning studio the precious picture which is to make her uncle famous.

Prof. John Trowbridge, in 'The Electrical Boy' (Roberts Bros.), has happily combined with an interesting story of a New York waif's adventures enough information about electricity to make a wide-awake boy want to know more. The many friends whom little Richard makes on his way through life, and his few enemies, furnish the book with a variety of characters, and, as the scene shifts from New York tenements, dime museums, and electrical workshops to an Arizona mining camp, there is no tiresome sameness in the surroundings. The vagaries of Swamm, who plays the part of villain through all his protean changes of disguise, are sufficiently amusing. The great Montana giant, with his huge frame and timid character, overmastered by the one passion, ruling even in death, not to be exhibited, is another original figure. The book is altogether readable and full of life.

The Century Co. add to the holiday list three pretty books reprinted from *St. Nicholas:* a new and enlarged edition of 'Baby World,' already a nursery favorite; 'Marjorie and her Papa,' by Robert Howe Fletcher; and 'Lady Jane,' by Mrs. C. V. Jamison. The first two are for the "wee, wee" children; the last, for the "middle-sized" ones.

A Score of Famous Composers. By N. H. Dole. T. Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. 540.

Mr. Dole has chosen for his book a half-punning title, which has only this disadvantage, that it may have prevented him from adding a few more names to his list that are quite as deserving of notice as Purcell or Glinka. The list includes, besides these two, Palestrina, Bach, Handel, Gluck, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Rossini, Weber, Schubert, Spohr, Meyerbeer, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Chopin, Berlioz, Liszt, Wagner—that is, thirteen Germans, two Italians, one Frenchman, one Pole, one Hungarian, one Englishman, one Russian. The name of Glinka seems oddly chosen, in view of the fact that both his two countrymen, Rubinstein and Tchaikovsky, are greater composers and much better known in our concert halls. But the facts about him will be new to most readers, and Mr. Dole has been able to make use of Glinka's memoirs at first hand. Mr. Dole was a musical critic for some years, and knows what he is writing about; the information he gives is remarkably accurate, and based on the most recent sources; indeed, he has collected his facts from so many sources that even a special student of musical literature occasionally comes across an anecdote or bit of information new to him. Principally, however, this collection of brief biographies is intended for the general reader and young student of music, who will have to go far to find another book of its kind so full of interest, combined with accuracy and freedom from petty partisan spirit. It is the composers themselves, rather than their works, that are here considered; so the book may be used as a sort of piquant sauce in connection with a brief history of music, such as Henderson's, Fillmore's, or Langhans's.

A few of Mr. Dole's statements may be questioned. We were not aware that Wagner declared of his youthful symphony that it "had many singular errors." It is technically a correct composition, but Wagner poked fun at it (a few months before his death) because it had themes "which it is easy to write counterpoint on, but difficult to express anything with"—a delightful aphorism for the advocates of "absolute" music to ponder over. Nibelungen is repeatedly spelled "Niebelungen"; and why say "Meistersingers," which

is neither German nor English? The startling assertion is made that "the published list of Liszt's pupils gives the names of 227 men and 183 women." The list printed as an appendix to Pohl's Life of Liszt (Reclam) is very much smaller, but perhaps the authority quoted by Mr. Dole enumerated all those who call themselves pupils of Liszt, in which case, indeed, as he says, "the list is not complete." In view of recent events in France, it is amusing to read, in the Meyerbeer biography:

"For the first time in its history the Opéra Comique opened its doors to a foreigner. Meyerbeer was allowed to write for that world-famous stage, and his first work was 'L'Etoile du Nord.' Owing to the outbreak of war with Russia, the censorship nearly forbade its presentation; but owing to the personal influence of Napoleon III. it was permitted after a few textual changes were made, such as eliminating the expression '*Vive la Russie*,' and changing the word *tsar* to *ciel*."

Life of General Houston: 1793–1863. By Henry Bruce. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

It cannot be said that this Life of Gen. Houston, in the series of "Makers of America," is anything but a very careless and unsatisfactory performance. It is written in a peculiarly irritating and wearisome style of self-sufficiency and newspaper omniscience, which it is hard enough to endure in journalism and still more in what professes to be permanent literature, and with a snip-snap epigrammatism which cannot do better than to characterize Andrew Jackson as a "scoundrel" and to describe the career of Aaron Burr as the "most fascinating in American history." As a specimen of its style and accuracy may be quoted: "There is a monument somewhere in Texas with this inscription, 'Thermopylæ had its survivors, the Alamo had none.' I have forgotten the circumstances. The words can hardly be forgotten." It would hardly be supposed that any American schoolboy would be ignorant that the inscription on the monument to the defenders of the Alamo in San Antonio reads: "Thermopylæ had her messenger of defeat; the Alamo had none," or that any one writing about the history of Texas would dismiss it in such a flippant paragraph.

The principal material for the book is obtained, by the aid of the scissors chiefly, from the pamphlet by C. Edwards Lester, entitled 'Sam Houston and his Republic,' written a good deal at the dictation of Houston himself when he was considered as a possible "hurrah" candidate for the Presidency of the United States, and in the very "high-falutin" style of the campaign biography; and a few personal anecdotes and reminiscences culled here and there from books give it its only value. There is no appreciation whatever of Houston's peculiar character, or his place as a remarkably interesting specimen of that type of the adventurous, practical-minded, reckless, and shrewd frontiersman, as developed by the conditions of American life in civilizing the wilderness—at once knight-errant and colonizer, adventurer and business man. The eccentricities and weaknesses of Houston's character, his childlike vanity, theatrical posing, impulsive recklessness, and self-indulgence were only upon the surface. At bottom there was the fund of saving common sense, the shrewd and prudent persistence and capacity, the sincere and far-sighted patriotism, which were no less remarkable in his administration of the civil affairs of the young republic of Texas and in his resistance to the secession madness, than in the Fabian policy of drawing Santa Anna into the interior and inducing him to divide his forces before he pounced upon him and swept his army and his prestige out of existence at San Jacinto. Houston can hardly be called a great man in the sense that Washington, Franklin, and Lincoln, or even Jefferson and Jackson, are, but he was a remarkable one, with strong and original characteristics. He performed great and valuable services to the nation, and it is a pity that there is not some adequate account of his character and career that shall not be a mere eulogy of the half-mythical founder of a State, or a mere record of personal eccentricity and adventurism.

Pictorial Astronomy for General Readers. By George F. Chambers, F.R.A.S. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 16mo, pp. 267.

There is no lack of popular books about astronomy by those who look upon the subject from the inside, as, Herschel, Secchi, Newcomb, Langley, Young, Lockyer, Ball. Mr. Chambers is none of these. He is not a scientific observer of the stars, nor has he an ordinary astronomer's acquaintance with celestial mechanics. He is a well-known compiler of astronomical books, useful in their way, but marked by incompleteness and a want of discrimination. The present little treatise will serve the purpose of a person who wants some light reading with pictures touching most of those important topics of astronomy that call for no mental exertion, about right in most of its statements, and not seriously unjust in many of its appreciations. To show how simple everything is here made, we annotate a short passage taken almost at random. The numerals in parentheses refer to our remarks below:

"In calculating the different positions of Mars (1), and comparing his own observations (2) with those of Tycho Brahe, Kepler was astonished at finding numerous apparent irregularities (3) in Mars's orbit, and still more in its distance from the earth (4). He soon saw (5) that the orbit could not be circular, and eventually recognized that it must be (6) an ellipse, with the sun occupying one of the two foci. . . . The path of a planet once traced, the next thing (7) to determine was what regulated the irregularities observed in its course. Kepler, having remarked (8) that the velocity of a planet (9) seemed to be greatest when it was nearest to the sun, and least when it was most remote from the sun, proceeded to suggest that an imaginary line joining the centre of a planet and the centre of the sun would pass over equal areas in equal times. . . . He sought to discover if any relation subsisted between the diameters of the orbits and the times occupied by the planets in traversing them. After twenty-seven years (10) of laborious research (11), he found out that a relationship did subsist, and thus was able to assert his third law."

(1.) Kepler did not set out by calculating places of Mars from its elements, but on the contrary by endeavoring to deduce from the observations the eccentricity of the orbit.

(2.) At the time referred to, Kepler is not known to have observed Mars, and only a very few of his observations were used by him in the investigation of the motions of that planet.

(3.) What incited Kepler to his great work was not finding irregularities, but a belief that by a method of calculation different from that in use (based on apparent instead of mean oppositions) known seeming irregularities could be made to disappear.

(4.) The distance from the earth could not be a subject of observation, and consequently irregularities in this distance could not be detected. The only thing in the work with which we can connect this belongs to a later time, after a great part of the work had been done and a corrected theory of the earth's motion had been made.

(5.) For "soon" read: after five years of diligent research.

(6.) This "must be" conveys no hint of the mode in which the opposite errors of two hypotheses directed Kepler's suspicions to the ellipse as the form of the orbit.

(7.) Mr. Chambers writes as if Kepler first ascertained the form of the orbit and then introduced the principle of areas. But it was the other way. He had assumed this principle long before he dreamed of the orbit not being circular. Indeed, without some such assumption he would not have had sufficient data to determine the shape of the path, since the distance of Mars could not be determined except by an intricate procedure seldom applicable. Indeed, except for movements in latitude too slight to prove much, all that is observed is variable movements in longitude.

(8.) This remark was of course one of the earliest generalizations concerning planetary motion.

(9.) A *superior* planet is meant.

(10.) The discovery was made 1618, May 8. Twenty-seven years before, Kepler had not taken up the pursuit of astronomy.

(11.) Although he puzzled long over the figures before he happened to light on the true relation, there was nothing to be called systematic research, nothing comparable for an instant with the work upon Mars.

In short, the author correctly states Kepler's laws; but as to how he came by them (further than that two were from studies of the motions of Mars) he seems to have not the slightest idea. To show that the passage is not exceptional, as this comes from p. 10, we will see what we can find on the tenth page from the end. We find this:

"His [Ptolemy's] great work was the celebrated Μεγάλη σύνταξις, better known by its Arabian designation of The Almagest. This work contains, amongst other things, a review of the labors of Hipparchus; a description of the heavens, including the Milky Way; a catalogue of stars; sundry arguments against the motion of the earth, and notes on the length of the year."

Even the title is wrongly given, and the description of the contents is as if one should explain that the Bible is a work containing among other things a discussion of the age of Moses, a description of Solomon's temple, a list of commandments, sundry exhortations against sloth, and the memoirs of Paul of Tarsus.

Das Papstthum. Von I. von Döllinger. Neubearbeitung von Janus 'Der Papst und das Concil,' im Auftrag des inzwischen heimgegangenen Verfassers, von J. Friedrich. Munich. 1891.

What little doubt may have remained as to the authorship of 'Janus'—a work which stirred so profoundly the Catholic world during the Vatican Council—has been removed by the publication of a new edition under the editorship of Prof. J. Friedrich, a disciple of Dr. Döllinger and the well-known historian of the Council. The intimation of a dual authorship in the Preface to the first edition was justified by a little collaboration on the part of Prof. J. Huber, but virtually the entire work was Döllinger's. He always regretted that, with a view to popularizing the volume, he had omitted all reference to the sources on which it was based—an omission of which Cardinal Hergenrother and his other opponents took full advantage. He never replied to their attacks, but in his later years he grew solicitous to see the work issued

in a more perfect shape, with a refutation of the arguments alleged against it. This labor he confided to Prof. Friedrich, who, until the death of his revered master, worked upon it under his eye. It is at last completed and forms a portly octavo of nearly six hundred pages. The thoroughness with which the editor has performed his task is evidenced in the extent of the notes, which, allowing for their smaller type, must contain nearly as much matter as the original text. These consist partly of citations of authorities, partly of rejoinders to Hergenrother and others, and partly of new material, completing and perfecting the necessarily rapid sketch which Döllinger had so hastily traced. A fairly full index adds much to the value of the volume as a work of reference.

Though written as a *pièce d'occasion*, for a special time and purpose, 'The Pope and the Council' contains the quintessence of such varied and profound stores of learning, so clearly and incisively set forth, that its value is not ephemeral. It is well worth study by all who are interested in the questions constantly arising from the tireless political activity of the Holy See—questions which are not confined to Europe, but, like the Catholic Church itself, are coterminous with the globe. In its present shape, with its ample apparatus, this volume worthily preserves in a permanent form a pitiless exposition of the methods by which the papacy has, step by step, advanced to the domination of the Church and to the establishment of the most extraordinary spiritual despotism that the world has seen.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sir Edwin. Japonica. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Austin, J. O. The Ancestral Dictionary. Providence, R. I.: The Author.
Balg, G. H. The First Germanic Bible. B. Westermann & Co.
Ball, Sir R. S. Star-Land. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Bien, H. M. Ben-Beor: A Story of the Anti-Messiah. Baltimore: Isaac Friedenwald & Co.
Bissell, Dr. Mary T. Physical Development and Exercise for Women. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Bostwick, Lucy W. Margery Daw's Home Confectionery. Brentano. 50 cents.
Butterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys in Australia. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.75.
Cameron, E. L. A Hard Lesson. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Campbell, Sir G. A Ruby beyond Price. New York: Minerva Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Carmen: The Toreador Song. Brentano. $1.50.
Chester, Eliza. Chats with Girls on Self-Culture. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Church, Rev. A. J. The Story of the Odyssey. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Church, Rev. A. J. The Story of the Iliad. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Cronise, Florence M. Princess Ilse. Chicago: Albert, Scott & Co.
Crosby, Rev. Howard. Sermons. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Crummell, Rev. A. Africa and America: Addresses and Discourses. Springfield, Mass.: Willey & Co.
Crump, C. G. Landor's Imaginary Conversations. Vol. III. London: J. M. Dent & Co. $1.25.
Dewar, J. Dyspepsia. ["Red Cross" Series.] Brentano. 50 cents.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Marie Antoinette and the Downfall of Royalty. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Sanders, Daniel. 366 Sprüche. Leipzig: Ernst Keil's Nachfolger.
Savidge, E. C. Life of Benjamin Harris Brewster. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Scalvini, A. The Knights of the Green Cloth. St. Paul: The Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Schouler, James. History of the United States under the Constitution. Vol. 5. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.25.
Schubin, Ossip. Countess Erika's Apprenticeship. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Scott, Walter. The Lady of the Lake. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Seeley, C. S. The Spanish Galleon. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Sermons by the Monday Club. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society. $1.25.
Sheppard, Elizabeth. Charles Auchester. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Sloane, T. O'C. Electricity Simplified. [New York: N. W. Henly & Co. $1.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. Gloria. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Stalker, Rev. J. The Preacher and his Models. [Yale Lectures on Preaching. 1891.]. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Stalker, Rev. J. Temptation. Fleming H. Revell. 20 cents.
Stanley, Rev. A. P. Historical Memorials of Westminster Abbey. Illustrated Edition. 2 vols. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Stark, J. H. History and Guide to the Bahama Islands. Boston: Photo-Electrotype Co.
Steele, Rev. G. M. Rudimentary Ethics. New York: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Stephens, H. Morse. A History of the French Revolution. Vol. II. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Stokes, Prof. G. G. Natural Theology. [The Gifford Lectures, 1891.] London and Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Straight On: A Story for Young and Old. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Sudermann, Hermann. Dame Care. [The Odd Number Series.] Harper & Bros. $1.
Sunter, Mrs. J. P. All around the Year. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Swiss Pictures: Drawn with Pen and Pencil. London: Religious Tract Society; New York: Fleming H. Revell Co. $3.20.
Tales of To-Day and Other Days. Cassell Publishing Company. 50 cents.
Taylor, R. W. C. The Modern Factory System. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Thoughts from Earnest Women. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 15 cents.
Tom Tucker and Little Bo-Peep. Cassell Publishing Co.
Tourgée, A. W. A Son of Old Harry. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.50.
Trechmann, Emil. A Short Historical German Grammar. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Trumbull, Rev. H. C. Friendship the Master-Passion. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles. $3.
Twichell, Rev. J. H. John Winthrop. ["Makers of America."] Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Tyrrell, Prof. R. Y. Cicero in His Letters. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Vacaresco, Hélène. The Bard of the Dimbovitza. London: James R. Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Verity, A. W. Milton's Ode on the Morning of Christ's Nativity, etc. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 70 cents.
Vincent, Rev. M. R. Exegesis. Charles Scribner's Sons. 30 cents.
Wadsworth, Wedworth. Leaves from an Artist's Field Book. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $4.
Wagner, L. Names, and their Meaning. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Walker, Rev. G. L. Thomas Hooker. ["Makers of America."] Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Wallace, Gen. Lew. Ben Hur. 2 vols. [The Garfield Edition.] Harper & Bros. $7.
Waller, A. D. An Introduction to Human Physiology. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.

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SHORT STORIES. The Oak of Geismar, a story of the first Christmas-Tree, by HENRY VAN DYKE. Illustrated by Howard Pyle. Espero Gorgoni, Gondolier, a story of a Venetian gondolier, by F. HOPKINSON SMITH. Illustrated by the author. A Little Captive Maid, by MISS SARAH ORNE JEWETT, with illustrations by Herbert Denman. A Charge for France, by JOHN HEARD, JR. Illustrated by L. Marchetti. A Fresh Water Romance, by GEORGE A. HIBBARD. Peleus to Thetis, a poem by BESSIE CHANDLER. Illustrated with a decorative border by Herbert Denman. THE POINT OF VIEW, short poems, etc.

AN EXCEPTIONAL YEAR.

THE Year 1891 has been marked by a greater advance than any similar period since the Magazine was established. Not only has the literary and artistic excellence been maintained and increased, but a corresponding gain has been made in the sale and influence of the Magazine. At the end of 1891 the circulation has risen to more than 140,000 a month, and it may justly be promised that the further improvements for the coming year will be proportionate to these largely increased opportunities.

FOR NEXT YEAR.

It is not possible to give, in a brief space, an account of all the features in preparation, but the following announcements will indicate that the material is deficient neither in importance nor range of subject:

THE POOR IN THE WORLD'S GREAT CITIES.

It is proposed to publish a series of articles, upon a scale not before attempted, giving the results of special study and work among the poor of the great cities. They will be written by authorities so experienced in their respective fields that the series will appeal to civilized people the world over. The plan will include an account of the conditions of life in those cities (in many lands) where the results of research will be helpful for purposes of comparison, as well as for their own intrinsic interest. The treatment will be thoroughly popular and the elaborate illustrations will make the subject vivid. Additional particulars may be found in the prospectus appearing in the Christmas number.

IMPORTANT MOMENTS. The aim of this series of very short articles is to describe the signal occasions when some decisive event took place, or when some great experiment was first shown to be successful:—such moments as that of the first use of the Atlantic cable, the first use of the telegraph and telephone, the first successful experiment with ether, the night of the Chicago fire, the scene at the moment of the vote on the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, etc., etc. Each of the topics, it is expected, will be described by an eye-witness.

WASHINGTON ALLSTON. UNPUBLISHED REMINISCENCES AND LETTERS of this foremost among early American painters. Two articles, which will appear early in the year, give most entertaining glimpses of the original personality of this famous artist. A number of illustrations will lend additional interest to the articles.

OUT OF DOOR PAPERS. In the early spring will be begun a number of seasonable articles, among them being: SMALL COUNTRY PLACES, how to lay out and beautify them, by Samuel Parsons, Jr. FISHING LORE FROM AN ANGLER'S NOTE BOOK, by Dr. Leroy M. Yale. MOUNTAIN STATION LIFE IN NEW ZEALAND, and RACING IN AUSTRALIA, by Sidney Dickinson, with illustrations by Birge Harrison. The illustrations which will accompany this series are made from original material, either photographs or sketches, secured for this purpose.

PARIS THEATRES AND CONCERTS will be the subject of four articles by W. F. APTHORP. The author has had the advantage, of unusual privileges, and the cordial co-operation of some of the first actors, managers, and critics. Among the illustrations are some by M. Morand, the artist of the Théâtre Français and himself a playwright.

RAPID TRANSIT IN CITIES. Two articles of great importance by MR. THOMAS CURTIS CLARKE, the well-known engineer, on this subject, will be, in all respects, among the most notable papers of the year, taking up their subject in its widest range, and showing its increasing need of consideration with the enormous growth of our great towns.

THE NICARAGUA CANAL, SPEED ON RAILWAYS, ETC. Two articles on the NICARAGUA CANAL, the result of a special investigation of the present state of the undertaking, elaborately illustrated. There will be articles on the AUSTRALIAN RAILWAYS (as the only profitably operated government system existing), by D. H. NEALE; on THE SPEED OF LOCOMOTIVES (which is just now attracting special attention), by H. WALTER WEBB; and on the GREAT WATER-WAY FROM CHICAGO TO THE OCEAN, by LIEUT. CHARLES C. ROGERS, U. S. N. Illustrated.

AMERICAN ILLUSTRATORS. A series of articles on modern illustrators, with examples of their work, will be begun early in the year. This will be of the greatest interest to all readers who watch in the Magazine from month to month the drawings which, in these days, are so accurately reproduced as to represent the artist at his best. The group of illustrators, whose work will appear in this series, comprises VEDDER, COX, LOW, FROST, PYLE, BLUM, and others.

THE ILLUSTRATIONS of the Magazine, during the coming year, will be of increased interest and beauty. Not only have the services of the best American artists been enlisted, but also several French painters and illustrators, whose work represents the very highest standard, have been engaged. Among others, CHARLES DELORT, L. MARCHETTI, ALBERT LYNCH, EUGENE MORAND, and many others whose works and names are equally well-known.

MR. ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON will continue to contribute to the Magazine during 1892. In addition to the serial "THE WRECKER," which is now appearing, there will appear, in an early number, an account of a journey which Mr. Stevenson, the grandfather of the novelist, made with Sir Walter Scott. Mr. Stevenson discovered this manuscript while looking over some old papers at his home in Samoa and has written an introduction to the narrative.

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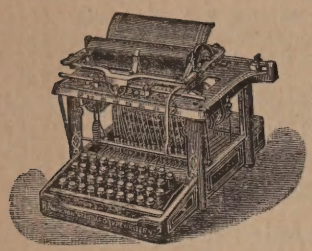

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1890		1,357,821 14
Total Marine Premiums		$5,187,152 33
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1890, to 31st December, 1890		$3,792,974 46
Losses paid during the same period	$1,423,467 21	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$753,158 86	

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United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$7,599,315 00
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Cash in Bank	198,428 18
Amount	$12,527,334 68

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 3, 1891.

The Week.

THE latest "health bulletin" upon Mr. Blaine's condition is sufficiently explicit, both in its contents and in the circumstances of its publication, to command the thoughtful attention of President Harrison. According to the Philadelphia *Press*, which publishes the bulletin, Mr. Blaine visited Philadelphia on Friday last for the express purpose of having himself examined with a view to ascertaining his ability to withstand the strain of another Presidential campaign. "A close friend of the Secretary," says the *Press* of Monday, "said yesterday that Mr. Blaine hesitated in his candidacy, and was seriously counting the cost to his health, knowing the arduous character of such a contest, and doubting whether he was physically able to stand the strain. These doubts, it is said, were removed by what his physician told him." The bulletin, which has been published all over the United States, gives us what his physician told him. In brief it was that Mr. Blaine is a "well man; for his years he is sturdy," and "he will be even better in six months from now." The Republican National Convention will meet just six months and four days from this time, so he will be in his best condition at the very moment when the delegates are assembling. The physician goes on to say that there is no doubt in his mind that "Mr. Blaine's health is excellent," that he has made it so by the "exercise of common sense, not medicines"; that at Bar Harbor "he went out riding so far per day, walked a certain distance, and played hand-ball a fixed length of time"; and that a couple of weeks ago Mr. Blaine wrote to him saying that he "walked two miles every day," and "very often a mile at a stretch." Finally, when the physician examined him, Mr. Blaine pulled up his right arm and the physician "felt his muscles." "They were good and large."

Simultaneously with the publication of this bulletin, there appears another publication, distributed likewise throughout the country, saying that Mr. Blaine wrote both the New Orleans and the Bering Sea correspondence with his own hand. This will be interesting news to the President's son, who has informed the country on several occasions that his father is entitled to the credit of both these diplomatic achievements. Simultaneously, also, with the bulletin appears a statement from Syracuse that James J. Belden, who "doesn't stir round for nothing," has started a Blaine club in that city, and has been attacked by the editor of the Syracuse *Journal*, whom President Harrison made Postmaster, for dragging thereby the "great name of James G. Blaine, the peerless statesman and foremost American of his age, in the mire of dirty politics." The editor-postmaster makes the following among other assertions: "James G. Blaine is always a Republican. He has no sympathy for treachery in the party which he honors and which has honored him. He never took office from it to turn upon its candidates and attempt to defeat them in an election. He is a leader of Republicans — never sulking, never taking mean revenges. It is scarcely less than profanation to take his name for use by political thugs and sluggers in a campaign of personal revenges and partisan reprisals." Has the editor-postmaster forgotten the letter which Mr. Blaine wrote to Mr. Richard Harrington in the Folger campaign? That letter was dated October 20, 1882, and in it Mr. Blaine said: "For the remainder of this campaign, Republicans everywhere should bend their energies to securing a majority in the next House of Representatives. *Whatever causes of just discontent may exist with State nominations, unfairly and injuriously thrust upon the party, and whatever means may be taken to resent such wrongs and repel such indignities*, it is evidently the duty of all true Republicans to use every honorable effort to hold control of the popular branch of Congress." Does not the editor-postmaster remember that that letter was the Blaine signal to "put a knife" into Folger, and that it was obeyed so well that Mr. Cleveland had a majority of 192,000?

Gov. Hill's fight for the control of the Legislature grows in intensity every day, and is leading him into performances which are remarkable even for him. When the Supreme Court in Onondaga County began on Monday to consider the responses of the election inspectors who had been ordered to recanvass the returns of the Second Assembly District, and correct the errors they had made in spelling the name of the Republican candidate, it was discovered that the inspectors had taken no action, for various reasons. One reason was, that a Democratic Supervisor, or member of the County Canvassing Board, had departed for parts unknown with some of the incorrect returns in his pocket. Another reason was, that other of the incorrect returns were in Albany, having been taken there on the order of the Governor, to be used in a hearing which he was conducting in regard to the conduct of the Republican Clerk of the Canvassing Board who had refused to sign the certificate which the Democratic majority had ordered to be issued to the Democratic candidate. Justice Kennedy, who might be a good deal more temperate in his observations than he is, denounced the runaway Supervisor and the Governor in equally vigorous terms, and it cannot be denied that the two are placed before the public in about the same degree of unfavorable light, since neither of them has any business to be meddling with the returns while they are still under consideration by the Canvassing Board. The Governor's conduct at the hearing of the clerk was about as partisan as it could be, he so far forgetting himself at one point as to tell the clerk, who sought to say a word in his own defence: "You shut up! You have nothing to say here."

The most surprising act of the Governor, however, has been the convening of an extraordinary special term of the Supreme Court at Syracuse, and the designation of Morgan J. O'Brien of this city to preside over it. It is generally believed that he has taken this step in order, as his organs in the press put it, "to checkmate" Justice Kennedy. We shall be greatly surprised if Justice O'Brien allows himself to be used for any such purpose as this implies. The spectacle of the Governor of the State setting up a branch of the Supreme Court to checkmate the decisions of the regular branch, because they interfere with his plans for capturing the Legislature, is a public scandal of the first magnitude. It may be that there is other court business which impels to the step, but the Governor's friends do not make that excuse for it. The worst feature of the Governor's side of the Onondaga contest is that all his efforts, in and out of the courts, are bent on preventing a revision of the returns by the inspectors for the correction of their own blunders. He thus admits that a fair count would show that the Republican candidate was fairly elected. He is in a similar position in the other contested cases.

Senator Carlisle has written a letter to Mr. John DeWitt Warner on the subject of the Speakership, disabusing the minds of such as may read it of the conception that Mr. Mills is a man of infirmities of temper which would unfit him for the Speakership. Having disposed of this matter, Mr. Carlisle adverts to another of even greater interest, *i. e.*, the policy of the Democrats in Congress on the silver question. Upon this point the Senator from Kentucky holds very sound views. He says that the Democratic party is united on the tariff question, but divided on the silver question. "Why shall we," he asks, "on the eve of a great national contest, when victory is almost within our grasp, abandon or ignore a vital issue, upon which we are united, and waste our strength in a fruitless controversy among ourselves over questions which can be better adjusted after it has been determined what part of their earnings the people shall be permitted to keep?" The importance of this deliverance by Mr. Carlisle can hardly be overestimated when we consider the commanding position he holds in the party, having been thrice Speaker of the House,

and representing a free-coinage State in the national Senate. It is not to be supposed that Mr. Carlisle wrote these words without due consultation and due understanding. We look upon his letter as very nearly equivalent to a guarantee that no free-coinage bill will pass Congress during the coming session.

Senator Pugh of Alabama has written a very unwise and schismatic letter on the silver question in reply to Senator Carlisle. We call this letter schismatic for two reasons: first, because it tends to divide the Democratic party into two factions to be beaten in detail by their common enemy, the Republican party; (2) because it proposes to introduce a new plank in the platform of the Democratic party in advance of the meeting of the National Convention. The last convention, the one which met at St. Louis on the 7th of June, 1888, did not pass any resolution on the silver question, but it did endorse the financial policy of the Cleveland Administration as "wise and conservative." It declared that that policy had "not only averted disaster, but greatly promoted the prosperity of the people." We all know what that policy was touching the silver question. It was diametrically opposed to the policy which Senator Pugh advocates, and which he now wants to thrust into the platform in advance of the meeting of the Convention. We have little fear that the party in Congress will go ahead of the Convention and run down a steep place into the sea, but if it does so, its fate will be sealed as surely as was that of the Ohio Democrats when they put free coinage into their platform. If free coinage would not win in Ohio this year, what is the chance of its winning in any Northern State next year?

Senator Pugh cannot take leave of the subject in hand without a fling at "Wall Street." This is the usual mark of the demagogue in financial matters. Wall Street happens to be the most convenient place for settling the balance of trade of the country—that of Alabama as well as that of California and of Maine. It may not always be so, but it is so now, and thus it comes about that money accumulates there in the shape of bankers' balances. Now the accumulation of money anywhere is a good target for demagogues. It is of no consequence who owns it. It is of no consequence if all the people of the United States who own anything beyond the clothes on their backs have some share of this money or some interest in it. It is "Wall Street" just the same—a terrible monster and an object of loathing and horror to Congressmen of a certain type. What Mr. Pugh's type is we can judge from a sample of his legislation on the statute-book. Some years ago there was a bill pending in the Senate to extend the National Bank Act—the original act being about to expire by limitation. This was a fine chance for somebody to do some harm to the system, and Mr. Pugh embraced it. He offered an amendment providing that no bank should be a member of a clearing-house where silver certificates were not received in settlement of balances. Silver certificates are not legal tender. The Government has nothing to do with clearing-houses any more than it has with any kind of labor-saving machine. A clearing-house is a contrivance for swapping checks. The banks meet in a common place for this purpose, instead of each one sending a messenger to all the others to collect what is due to it, at the risk of being robbed on the street. Mr. Pugh's amendment, therefore, provided in effect that unless national banks would accept something which was not legal tender in the payment of balances among themselves, they should be required to send messengers daily through the streets with piles of money at the risk of being robbed. Strange to say, this amendment was actually adopted by a wise Senate, and is now on the statute-book. It is worthless and nugatory, however, for all purposes, because it did not provide that the banks should *pay* silver certificates to each other as well as receive them.

There are not many "morals" to be drawn from the full official figures of the recent election in this State. Mr. Sheehan, the Democratic candidate for Lieutenant Governor, ran 6,882 votes behind Mr. Flower; and Mr. Vrooman, the Republican candidate for the same office, ran 6,621 votes ahead of Mr. Fassett. The total vote of all parties for Governor was 1,161,853, against 1,317,263 for Governor in 1888, and 1,026,239 for Governor in 1885. Mr. Flower's total vote is over 81,000 greater than that cast for Hill in 1885, and Mr. Fassett's is over 43,000 greater than that cast for Davenport in the same year. In comparison with the vote for Governor in the Presidential year of 1888, Mr. Flower has over 67,000 less votes than Hill received, and Mr. Fassett has over 97,000 less than Warner Miller received, though Miller received in that election over 19,000 less votes than Harrison. A curious revelation of this year's returns is the total for the Prohibition candidate for Governor, namely, 30,353, against 30,231 in 1888, and 30,867 in 1885.

The official canvass of the Massachusetts election shows a total vote for Governor this month of 321,673. This is a poll without precedent in the record of State elections, the only approach to it being the 312,357 votes in the year when Butler was beaten for reëlection. In 1889 the total was but 263,047, and in 1890, when Congressmen also were elected, it rose no higher than 285 526. Last month's contest brought out within 23,000 of the Presidential vote of 344,448 in 1888, and the result thus in every aspect records the most impressive verdict ever rendered by the voters of the State in such an election. The Republican State ticket below its head received votes rising from 150,697 on the Auditorship to 157,216 for the very popular candidate for Lieutenant Governor. The Democratic nominee for the latter office had 145,865, which appears to represent the normal strength of his party, so that on the purely partisan issue the Republicans ought to have elected the Governor by over 11,000 plurality. Gov. Russell received 157,982, which was 12,000 more than the regular Democratic vote, and 6,467 more than his Republican opponent. Apparently about two thousand of the extra 12,000 came from the People's party, which polled only 1,772 for its candidate for Governor, but ran up its vote for Secretary of State to 3,729. Another thousand came from the Socialist Labor party, which cast 2,525 for Auditor, but only 1,429 for Governor. About fifteen hundred more seem to have voted for some of the minor candidates on the Prohibition ticket, but to have supported Russell for Governor. The remainder of his lead, somewhere between 8,000 and 9,000, represents Republicans who stood by their party on the rest of the ticket, but proved their independence by voting for the other party's man for Governor, on the simple ground that he was better qualified to fill the office.

When the Postmaster-General advertised for bids under the Mail-Subsidy Law, he laid out a roseate programme with his sixty-two routes, several of them transatlantic and others calling for the establishment of new lines to South America and different parts of the known and unknown world. At the time the bids were opened, on October 26, it was found that but eleven routes were bid upon. Of these, four called for the opening of new lines. It now appears, however, that two of the four showed some "irregularities" in the bids, and had to be rejected, namely: the Boston-Liverpool route, upon which the "Columbia Safety Steamship Company" was to put a fleet of first-class vessels earning $4 a mile from the Government, and the New Orleans-Colon route, for which the Pacific Mail Company put in a bid. That modest organization seems to have withdrawn this bid, apparently for fear that the new law might be brought into discredit if a clear majority of all the contracts should turn up in its hands. As it is, it has four routes out of the nine upon which bids were accepted. Three of the others go to companies having established lines, upon which they will not need to put a single new ship or other improvement, and for operating which precisely as they do now they are to get a bounty from the Government with no service rendered therefor. Some second-class ships are to begin running between New York and Buenos Ayres on December 1, 1894, provided nothing happens in the meantime to discourage the contractor. He has a route upon which an experienced steamship president has said that the *Augusta Victoria* could not comply with the conditions of speed, yet he proposes to undertake the job with second-class steamers. The other new vessels to be built under the law are all fourth-class. We do not wonder that the great subsidy advocate, the *Tribune*, took two days to comment upon

this result of its famous policy—nine routes, of which the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, of odorous memory, gets four!

A year or two ago, when McKinleyism was rather more aggressive than it is now, we were told that the increased tax on this or that article would amount to only three cents per head of the people of the United States. The people, however, decided, so far as they have been able yet to decide, that they would rather keep the three cents themselves. And now the organ of the Manufacturers' Club in Philadelphia, playing a variation on the tune, tells us that the sugar bounty will be only $9,000,000 this year, whereas the receipts from the tax on beer will be $28,000,000. In other words, the beer tax will pay the sugar bounty and leave $19,000,000 to the good. Again it says that the tobacco tax will yield $33,000,000, or enough to pay the sugar bounty three and a-half times. Contemplating the internal revenue as a gift enterprise, it says that the sum so collected will pay all the pensions and the sugar bounty, and leave a remainder of $15,000,000. This is a most dangerous suggestion, since it notifies all the people of the United States who are willing to take a bounty, where it may be obtained. Think of fifteen millions of unclaimed money! It is like the estates in the Bank of England that are awaiting heirs from the Smiths, Halls, and Joneses whose progenitors emigrated to America in the time of Charles I.

The Boston *Journal of Commerce* has taken pains to get at the bottom facts regarding the recent reduction of wages in the iron works of Jones & Laughlin of Pittsburgh. Several contradictory stories have been in circulation regarding this matter. Mr. Jones is the ex-Chairman of the Republican National Committee, having been the immediate predecessor of Quay in that position. Consequently, many Republican papers have been unwilling to believe that wages had been reduced by his firm. It was almost as bad as the bankruptcy of the Chairman of the American Protective Tariff League soon after the passage of the McKinley Bill. The Boston newspaper says that, in consequence of the conflicting stories, it "took occasion to ascertain the facts from an entirely reliable source, and outside of the firm." The finding is as follows:

"On Thursday, November 5, an order went into effect which affected the wages of several hundred men employed as laborers, but the change was not absolute as regards a reduction in pay. In all, about 1,200 men were included; all are now required to work ten hours per day, instead of nine as formerly. Some had their wages reduced from $1.50 to $1.35 per day, but not the entire 1,200 laborers. The virtual decrease made by the added working time affects, perhaps, 400 more. In those cases where no extra working time was added the pay was cut, and in several departments both changes were made."

We advise that this paragraph be clipped out and collated with some dozens, or scores, or hundreds of other like testimonials to the advantages reaped by labor from the McKinley Bill.

"G. W. S." writes to the *Tribune* that somebody of the name of Curtice Bond has been casting aspersions on the fair fame of Mr. Blaine by a Dalziel telegram to the London press. "G. W. S." has had a conversation on this subject with "a person in authority" named X—he seldom has intercourse with persons of lower grade. The narrative, as he gives it, proceeds in this way:

"You will not have forgotten one shameless attack on Mr. Blaine which was sent over here by Dalziel's New York agency; one for which Mr. Curtice Bond assumed the responsibility in his character of Mr. Blaine's friend. On the morning when it was published in the *Times* I said to a person in authority, who must have read the despatch:

"'Look here, X. Suppose I should cable to New York that Lord Salisbury had a partner in the sealing business in Bering Sea, and that he was preventing a settlement and sacrificing his country to his partner, and for the sake of his own share in the plunder, what would you say?'

"'What on earth do you mean?'

"'I mean that that is exactly what Mr. Blaine is accused of in the Dalziel despatch from New York in this morning's *Times*.'

"He reflected a moment, and answered:

"'Well, it is a shame. I never looked at it in that light before.'

"By which I understood him to mean that so long as the calumny affected Mr. Blaine only, it never struck him as a calumny; apply it to Lord Salisbury, and the infamy of the charge, and of him who made it, became apparent at once."

Yes, but suppose he had cabled to New York that Lord Salisbury had written a letter to a person applying for a Government charter, or land grant, or favor of some sort, saying: "I will not be a deadhead in this enterprise. Kind regards to Mrs. Fisher." The effect of this kind of a cablegram would have been serious, because Lord Salisbury is not suspected of writing that kind of letters. With Mr. Blaine the case is different, and therefore cablegrams of this kind occasion no surprise, and few people take pains to ask whether they are true or not.

Some doubt appears to exist as to the provisions of the Brazilian Constitution in regard to filling the Presidency in case of a vacancy such as has just occurred, even the Brazilian Minister in Washington not being able last week to enlighten a newspaper correspondent on the subject. Article 41, section 1, of the Constitution of Brazil declares that the Vice-President, "elected simultaneously with the President, shall serve in place of the latter in case of impediment, and succeed him in case of vacancy in the Presidency." But article 42 adds: "In case of vacancy from any cause in the Presidency or Vice-Presidency before the expiration of the first two years of the Presidential term, a new election shall be held." As Fonseca's term had not yet covered a single year, it is clear that Vice-President Peixoto can succeed him only temporarily. The regular date for Presidential elections is March 1, and it may be that a new choice will be made then. The Congress, at the time of its dissolution, was engaged upon legislation carrying out the provisions of the Constitution relating to the Presidency, but had enacted no measure which would direct in the present emergency. Much depends, therefore, upon the kind of man Peixoto turns out to be. Congress has been reconvened by him, and the whole question of the succession may be settled this month in an orderly and lawful manner. Everything now promises a continuance of the republican form of government, though, for Brazil, it must be a *form* in a double sense for a long time to come.

Our esteemed contemporary, the *Brazilian Republic*, favored us with thirty-five copies of its issue of September 19, and a like number of its issue of September 26. We were somewhat at a loss to account for such a generous remembrance until we came upon the following editorial admission:

"We have a contract with the Brazilian Government, in virtue of which we send to Europe 1,000 copies, 1,000 to the United States and Canada, and 1,000 more we are distributing in Brazil. The amounts paid? That is our business. The objects sought? To spread the clear light of truth, etc."

After that there can be no question of the editor's entire sincerity and disinterestedness when he proceeds to sing the praises of "the best of Brazilian statesmen." He refers to the man who had given him his contract, Baron Lucena, who has since accompanied Fonseca to retirement. We fear that the contract is now in danger of cancellation, and that we shall have to get along, in the future, with a single copy of our unpurchasable contemporary.

The acute financial embarrassment of the Spanish Government is somewhat difficult to account for in view of the prosperous condition of Spain's foreign trade as revealed in the returns for 1890, just published. The exports reached a value of $187,551,976, a gain of $10,180,000 over those of 1889, and the imports amounted to $189,427,585, an increase of $14,965,260. The preceding year, moreover, showed a considerable advance over the results attained in recent years, so that the last year ought to represent a high degree of prosperity; and, as the national revenues are largely derived from customs duties, the embarrassment of the Treasury seems singular. If the public declarations of an ex-Minister are to be believed, the explanation is to be found in the extraordinary incompetence and dishonesty of the civil service. The Government ought to have a sufficient revenue from the existing laws of taxation, he asserts, but too much of the money collected from the taxpayers never enters the Treasury. We cannot enter into the arguments which the ex-Minister advances, except to say that the charge of incompetence is universally admitted, and to such a degree that it comes to about the same thing as dishonesty. That is to say, the spoils system, which has full swing in Spain, loads so many men upon the civil service whose only claim is partisan activity, that the whole service is thoroughly demoralized.

HOW RECIPROCITY WAS SET GOING.

THE evidence which we presented a fortnight ago to show that the reciprocity agreement with Brazil was dishonorably obtained by Mr. Blaine, has gone uncontradicted. That neither he nor Mr. Mendonça has denied the fact, although the latter at least, as we know, has been asked to deny it, is an added and strong proof that the charges recite the truth. But it has been said that there is an antecedent absurdity in supposing that Mr. Blaine could have promised to shut out Cuban sugar from the free market accorded the Brazilian product, in view of the fact that the Aldrich amendment to the McKinley Bill made the offer of reciprocity to all countries. Thus Gen. J. W. Foster was reported as saying: "No person or government having a knowledge of the law of Congress under which the negotiations were carried on, could have been misled by any such alleged promise. The third section of the Tariff Act is an offer to all countries," etc. The Boston *Journal* has said that this statement of the case makes the charge against Mr. Blaine "ridiculous." It may be well, therefore, to review the history of the reciprocity clause and its working, in order to show that Mr. Blaine was in desperate need of getting some country to appear to accept that legislation seriously, and so to have an example to hold up before the others.

Going back to the fall of 1889, we find Mr. Blaine negotiating a genuine reciprocity treaty with Brazil. Commissioners from that country were in Washington, on the invitation of our Government, empowered to offer certain concessions, and were ready to accept Mr. Blaine's offer of free sugar as a sufficient equivalent. No secrecy was affected about this, and, indeed, during the Senate debates on the reciprocity clause it was distinctly stated as an objection to making sugar free that it would upset the treaty which Mr. Blaine and the Brazilians were on the point of signing. Before that, as is well known, Mr. Blaine had cast all his influence against free sugar in the House; and his fierce denunciation of the McKinley Bill, with the famous hat-smashing episode in the presence of the Senate Committee on Finance, were the direct result of his disappointment at the loss of his sole available material for a treaty.

Then came the reciprocity manœuvres in the Senate. McKinley in the House had argued for free sugar solely on the ground of revenue reduction; the Aldrich amendment coolly asserted that sugar was made free "with a view to secure reciprocal trade." This did not suit Mr. Blaine any better. His ideas were brought out unmistakably in his letter to Senator Frye, and more especially in the amendment and remarks of Senator Hale, offered as they were, without any concealment, in the name of the Secretary. What the latter wanted was the restoration of sugar to the dutiable list, with the proviso that the President should be authorized, "without any further legislation, to declare the ports of the United States free and open to all products of any nation of the American hemisphere, whenever and so long as such nation" should give free entry to certain exports of the United States.

This was a fair and reasonable basis of reciprocity. We would call attention, however, to the fact that Mr. Blaine intended to exclude Cuba as well as Canada from its operation. In his letter to the President, transmitted by the latter to the Senate, he took pains to speak of the countries represented in the Pan-American Congress, and the *nations* of the American hemisphere, as the sole ones with which he wished to secure reciprocity. The peculiar phraseology he employed, as also that of the Hale amendment, was commented upon in the Senate, and it was admitted that it was intended to shut out Cuba and Canada. Neither of those countries sent delegates to the Pan-American Congress, and neither of them is an independent nation. This is a point which those would do well to remember who now assert that it would have been preposterous for Mr. Blaine to hold out the idea to the Brazilians that he would favor their sugar and shut out the Cuban product. He certainly intended to do that in the beginning, however his conduct may have been shaped by circumstances subsequently.

But the Senate rejected Mr. Blaine's plan and accepted the Aldrich amendment. It did this in the face of Senator Evarts's unanswerable argument against its constitutionality, and with the unconcealed idea that it would be taken as so much buncombe, and would never have any practical effect. Thus, Senator Hoar expressed the general sentiment on the Republican side when he said, after tacitly admitting that the Aldrich amendment was unconstitutional: "I regard the amendment . . . rather as a declaration of purpose than as a definition of legislative policies and enactments." The House finally accepted the amendment, with Speaker Reed's cynical remarks about it as the best indication of the spirit in which the action was taken. It was regarded as a harmless bit of sentiment, which might serve its purpose in the canvass, and then would never be heard of any more. The Brazilian negotiators themselves had declared that if Congress made sugar free, they should have nothing more to ask of this country, and so there would be no basis for a treaty. That the President would ever exercise the unconstitutional power voted him in the Aldrich amendment was universally regarded as out of the question, especially after the overwhelming Republican defeat in November, 1890.

These, then, were the circumstances under which Mr. Blaine set about securing a reciprocity agreement with Brazil. The representatives of that country had said there was no longer room for a treaty; they had already received from this country the last favor they could ask. Yet it was not long before they were recommending a treaty to their home Government, and doing it, so four ex-members of that Government assert, because Mr. Blaine had assured them that he would secure free sugar for them and refuse it to Cuba. Without some such promise, their action is wholly unintelligible. On Mr. Blaine's part there was need of some such way of getting reciprocity started, if the whole thing was not to flash in the pan. With one country accepting it, he could persuade or bully others into doing so, and, in fact, as soon as the Brazilian agreement was made public, the joyful *Tribune* hailed it as the means of exerting "powerful pressure" upon other countries. Thus, far from there being an antecedent absurdity in the Secretary's promise to Brazil, we have shown that no other hypothesis so well explains the facts—this, be it remembered, apart from the positive evidence which we have advanced to show that there was such a promise, and which, as we said above, has gone uncontradicted.

GOV. RUSSELL ON THE MASSACHUSETTS ELECTION.

THERE is no political leader who is surer of a hearing than the young man who was re-elected Governor of Massachusetts three weeks ago, after a most exciting canvass and on the largest vote ever cast there in a State election. There is no subject, too, about which the public would rather have his views than the significance of this very election, upon which Gov. Russell contributes an article to the December number of the *Forum*.

The Governor begins with a reference to the contest of 1890, when, for the first time since the war, the Democrats elected a majority of the Congressmen and a Democratic Governor, after a campaign which was "chiefly directed against the McKinley Bill." He recounts the desperate efforts made by the Republicans ever since his inauguration last January "to redeem Massachusetts," telling how they made their organization more thorough and efficient than ever before, formed a State club and local clubs, opened their campaign a fortnight before the Democrats, covertly appealed to race and religious prejudice, put the Collector of Boston and other Federal officials upon the stump, held more campaign meetings than had ever been known even in a Presidential year, and, in short, made a "supreme effort" to win. They had always claimed that the result in 1890 was a snap judgment upon a small vote, and that a full poll would restore the old Republican majority; but, although the total proved to be 36,000 larger than in 1890, the Democratic Governor was reëlected by a plurality but little diminished.

The importance of this result, in Gov. Russell's opinion, arises from the fact that the Republican leaders made their campaign chiefly upon national issues. "They declared from every stump that the electoral vote of Massachusetts would be in danger in 1892 if a Democratic Governor were re-elected in 1891." The Democrats were glad to meet them on this line. National issues were aggressively raised in their platform; such Congressional leaders as Mills, McMillin, and Springer took the stump; the tariff issue was kept at the front, and the McKinley

Bill was made the subject of constant attack. "Democratic success was won in Massachusetts last year upon this issue, and victory was again achieved this year largely upon the same ground."

Gov. Russell shows how the Democrats put the Republicans upon the defensive on the silver question, by adopting a platform which placed the party definitely and aggressively in favor of a sound currency and in opposition to the dangerous law passed by the last Republican Congress. While not claiming that the silver question was important enough to affect the result materially, Gov. Russell thinks that the attitude of the Democrats towards it helped the party to achieve its victory. But the main element was the growth of tariff-reform sentiment. The Democrats declared for the repeal of all provisions in the McKinley Bill which raise duties, and also for the repeal of all taxes upon food, fuel, fibres, ores, and crude or partly manufactured materials necessary in the processes of the State's domestic industries. Nearly the whole iron industry of Massachusetts, and a large section of the wool manufacturing industry, have been brought by the pressure of business interests to adopt this position in favor of free raw materials, and the Democrats thus appealed to a community which was in a mood to hear their arguments with candor. Upon the significance of the election as affecting this issue, Gov. Russell quotes in his article from his speech delivered in Faneuil Hall on the day before the election, in confident anticipation of the result actually reached: "It means, first, that Massachusetts adheres to her demand of last year for free raw materials, for the benefit of her industries and her people. It means that she demands that her sons—first, last, and always—shall stand for her rather than for Ohio or Pennsylvania, and that she stands behind those sons who have stood true to her. It means that she is willing to take her chance in any fair competition, but she demands that in that competition her hands shall not be tied. She objects to a policy that would destroy her natural advantages; she protests against law holding the knife that would cut the throat of any of her industries. True to her history and her traditions, true to the great agitations that she has led for human rights, for freedom and equality, she protests against unequal and unjust taxation."

Gov. Russell's remarks as to the prospects of the Massachusetts Democracy in the future will be read with lively interest. He points out that the recent growth of the party dates from the Presidential election of 1884, when "a large body of independent voters, including many of the most distinguished and influential men in the State, left the Republican party." Since then these voters have been gradually becoming more closely attached to the Democratic party, until he thinks that to-day nearly all of them are in its ranks. Cleveland's Administration did much to strengthen his party in the State and to give it the support of the business community. The Governor concludes:

"It cannot be claimed that Massachusetts can yet be counted as a Democratic State, whatever she may become in the immediate future; but the two last elections have shown that she is a State where the balance of power is held by a body of independent voters whose political action is guided by principle, and who are firm supporters of tariff reform. The Democratic party of Massachusetts cannot hold out to the national Democracy any strong prospect of securing the electoral vote of Massachusetts next year for any candidates, or for any policies, which cannot command this support; but these voters have now every inclination to continue to give their support to the Democratic cause, and a reasonable course on the part of the national Democracy will probably make Massachusetts a Democratic State in 1892. In order to attain this end, it is of paramount importance that the tariff question should be kept at the front in the next Congress, and that it should be made the one great issue of the Presidential campaign. If the Democratic party should commit itself—as fortunately there is now very little chance that it will—to the free coinage of silver, it must be frankly acknowledged that the Democratic ticket would have little chance of success in New England in 1892, whatever might be its prospects elsewhere. We have shown in Massachusetts that we can hold what we have won upon a vote 32,000 larger than that of last year [the official count makes it 36,000 larger]. The Democracy of this State is united and aggressive, and under favorable conditions it believes that it can again hold its own upon the yet larger vote which will be cast in the Presidential year. It only asks of the national Democracy a fair opportunity to make this contest."

This is the sort of talk which must have effect, for it comes, not from a "doctrinaire" or "theorist," but from a politician who has just won one of the greatest victories in recent political history. There is no more "practical man" extant than one who can not only carry a State long controlled by the opposite party, when the "tidal wave" runs his way, but can do it over again a year later, in face of unexampled opposition. What politicians always want to find out is how to carry elections. Gov. Russell has shown that he knows the way.

THE SILVER SITUATION.

Some little interest has been infused into the silver discussion by Mr. J. Edward Simmons's suggestion in the columns of the *Evening Post* that the Secretary of the Treasury be invested with power to sell silver bullion as well as to buy it, in order to replenish his gold resources. Secretary Foster, in his speech at the Chamber of Commerce dinner, had declared that he had the right, under existing law, to sell bonds bearing interest as high as 5 per cent., in order to replenish his stock of gold, if necessary. He had also affirmed that it was his duty to do so whenever that contingency should arrive. "Why not sell some of the silver?" asks Mr. Simmons.

The same question came into the mind of the late Secretary Windom, when he was wrestling with the silver problem soon after the Harrison Administration came into power. Mr. Windom saw that something evil would grow out of that clause in the Republican platform which condemned the Cleveland Administration for its unfriendliness to silver. So he began very early to "start a back fire." One of his plans was that the Government should buy silver and issue notes on it, and then sell the silver to redeem the notes on presentation, or at least to retain the option to sell it. But this did not please the silver-men. The silver-miners saw that if this plan were carried into effect, the Government would cease to be a buyer of any *net* amount of their product. The Treasury would be like a warehouse which buys wheat at some times and sells it at other times, really exercising no influence on the market. The silver-producers would lose their special favors, and be relegated to the condition of the producers of other things. The silver-men who are not miners, but who call themselves "the debtor class," or claim to represent that class, opposed the selling of any silver because that would tend to prevent depreciation of the standard of value. What they wanted was a cheaper dollar—a seventy-cent dollar or something lower—and they knew it would be impossible to get this if the Secretary had the power to sell silver for gold in order to redeem his Treasury notes. So Mr. Windom's plan fell through. Nevertheless, there is a good deal of virtue in it, and we shall hope to hear more about it by and by.

The silver situation is one which can not last. The purchase of seven tons of bullion per day to be stored in dark places is too great a strain upon the Treasury, and is becoming too grotesque for the public sense of humor. Secretary Foster has his eye fixed on Europe, and is looking anxiously for signs of relief from that quarter, in the shape of a new bimetallic conference. Mr. Jesse Seligman has been cruising around with a quasi-diplomatic mission to bring the Continental Powers into the movement. Somewhat earlier another gentleman visited England for the same purpose. A cable telegram the other day said that Mr. Seligman had had an interview with M. Ribot, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, and that the latter had said that, while he sympathized with Mr. Seligman's views, France could not take the initiative in calling a new conference, and that Mr. Seligman had thereupon gone to Egypt to spend the winter. In the convenient company of the Sphinx that amiable gentleman may learn quite as much about the future of bimetallism as from all the cabinets of Europe.

It is the common opinion now that Congress will do nothing with silver this winter. This opinion is grounded upon the triumphant success of the Democrats in New York and Massachusetts on anti-silver platforms, and their humiliating defeat in Ohio on a free-coinage platform. If Congress does nothing, the purchase of seven tons of bullion per day will go on until the Treasury breaks down under the strain and the Secretary begins to sell bonds to replenish his gold balance. It would be a mistake to suppose, however, that the silver extremists will remain quiet. They see the danger that awaits them when bond-selling becomes necessary. That would mean that the people of the United States were borrowing money in order to pay silver-miners a higher price for their work than the market affords. There are few persons so squint-eyed that they cannot see this when the bond-selling begins. Naturally, in such a case many would join Mr. Simmons in asking, "Why not sell the silver instead of selling bonds"?

This danger, this rock ahead, is clearly perceived by the silverites, and they will try to avoid it by a change in the present law, if they cannot do more. The first change they will ask will be an amendment to compel the coining of all the bullion bought by the Government, because bullion can be more easily sold than coin. The public would see good reasons for selling bullion when they would not see reasons for selling coin. To get the daily quota of seven tons of bullion into the form of standard dollars will be the first push of the silver crowd if they are not strong enough to pass a free-coinage bill. Very likely they will try also to repeal the clause which declares it to be the purpose of the Government to keep the different kinds of money at par with each other. If they do this, they will proclaim their own intention to depreciate the standard of value and to demonetize gold. It will be worth something to have this purpose set forth in black and white.

THE PROSPECT IN ENGLAND.

THE English Conservatives have followed the example of the Liberals in getting up a "convention," not for the purpose of nominating candidates, as in this country, but simply to enable the chief men of the party to make speeches and compare views on the party prospects. In other words, the Conservative Convention at Birmingham is an answer to the Liberal Convention at Newcastle. The Conservatives formally join issue with the Liberals, not only on Home Rule, but on the disestablishment of the Anglican Church both in Wales and in England, and, in spite of the past promises of the Ministry, the Convention voted against the bestowal of local government on Ireland. In the opinion of good observers, however, the Irish Local Government Bill foreshadowed by Mr. Balfour will be introduced just the same in the next session, with the hope or expectation that some excuse for dropping it before the dissolution of Parliament will be furnished by Liberal obstruction. If this should come about, the Ministry would be able to go to the country at the general election with the cry that they had tried to give the Irish all the management of their own affairs that was good for them, but were prevented by the Liberal-Irish coalition. If on this the Conservatives came back to the House with a good majority, probably nothing more would be heard of the scheme. A great many good old-fashioned Tories dislike it, and if it were proved that the Ministry could win without it, it would be definitively laid aside. The Liberals are, however, fully prepared for this programme, and have determined, if Mr. Balfour introduces the bill, not to furnish any excuse for failure to pass it. The secret belief of the leading Tories, from Lord Salisbury down, is that arbitrary rule, to the extent provided by the Coercion Act, is good enough for the Irish, but they are afraid to avow this doctrine to the new democratic constituencies in England.

What is most interesting in the rival platforms of the two parties is the way in which they are trying to outbid each other for the votes of the laborers, especially the agricultural laborers. These until now have been an unknown quantity in electoral calculations. The belief of the Tories when they extended the franchise— one of the pleasing humbugs invented by Beaconsfield—was that the Squire and the Parson, who are natural Conservatives, would be able to control the labor vote in the country districts, so that the new democracy would be "a Tory Democracy," and would stand for Church and King against the wicked Radicals and levellers of the towns. But this is now turning out to be a complete delusion. It is admitted on all hands that the agricultural laborer is, as a voter, in full revolt against his old patrons and guides. It has taken him until now, for he is not quick-witted, to find out that he can vote as he pleases, and there is much reason to believe that the party of his choice, for the present at least, will be the party to which the Squire, the Parson, and the Farmer do *not* belong. Like the negroes of the South after their enfranchisement, he feels that his employers are not to be trusted politically, however kindly his relations with them personally may be. A correspondent of the London *Times* travelling through the country looking up election signs and "straws" had been foreshadowing this for some weeks before the South Moulton election, at which the Conservatives had such a rude awakening, due mainly to the desertion *en masse* of the agricultural laborers.

Accordingly, the great Conservative cry now is that something must be done for "Labor." One proposal is to apply the chief provisions of the latest Irish Land Act to England so as to enable laborers to purchase small holdings with Government aid. Another is to encourage the election of Labor candidates to the House of Commons, provided they are Unionists. Mr. Chamberlain has a scheme of compulsory insurance for sickness and old age, like Bismarck's, and he is trying to persuade the public, amid more or less laughter, that this is what he had in mind when he talked of the "ransom" which property-holders owed to the poor for having kept them out of their own so long. Of course, also, the Birmingham Convention resolved in favor of the establishment of "a labor department," to be presided over by a Minister of the Crown to be termed a "Labor Minister." No political sop for Labor is now complete without some provision for this functionary. What he is to do, or can do, for Labor, nobody ever explains, or indeed knows, but his existence gratifies the workingmen and seems to dignify manual toil in the eyes of the community; besides which, the place is pretty sure to be filled by a laborer. The only service a Labor Department can render or has rendered the laborer anywhere is the collection of information about wages and strikes, as in the instance of our State Commission. More than this the Government cannot do for the laborer without either depriving him of a portion of his individual freedom by enacting such measures as a compulsory eight-hour law, or giving him, or compelling some one else to give him, money which he has not earned. The mischief which all such schemes do, lies in the support they give to that unfortunate superstition of the modern laborer, that the "State" has somewhere a reservoir of wisdom and of cash which it can, if the rich and well-to-do will let it, draw on at any time for a sudden and immense alleviation of the lot of the sons and daughters of toil. That this superstition will not disappear from the modern world without the trial of some very disastrous experiments, is greatly to be feared.

Both of the English parties may now be said to have made their final appeal to the constituencies. Their programmes differ only with regard to the Welsh Church and Home Rule With regard to all other topics they go to the country on their respective reputations for sincerity and real trust in popular capacity and good sense. What the Liberals anticipate from the general election, which will probably take place next spring, is a majority of about ninety, including the Irish. They do not believe they can with this carry a Home Rule Bill without having another dissolution forced on them by the House of Lords, but it will hardly do to dissolve again immediately. They will probably stay in office after a check on this question by the Lords, as they have often done before on other questions, but the delay will tell heavily on their leader. That is to say, the chances increase every day that Home Rule will be achieved, if ever, by other hands than Mr. Gladstone's.

THE CITY OF INITIATIVES.

PALERMO, November 13, 1891.

THIRTY-ONE years ago we left Palermo, literally a heap of ruins, with Garibaldi, for Milazzo. The indomitable islanders who first, in the year of revolutions, 1848, had thrown down the challenge to the Bourbons, "Reform or Revolution," had been crushed, not conquered. For the next ten years they gave their oppressors no peace. No reforms or constitutions would content them now, for they had realized the truth of Mazzini's teaching, that no part of Italy could be free or independent until the whole should be united. When Lombardy was freed by the French and Sardinian armies, and the rulers of Italy bethought themselves only of northern Italy, Sicily determined to "strike the blow" on her own account. Crispi, with a halter round his neck, twice traversed the entire island, promising that if the people took the initiative, their Italian brothers would come to the rescue. They rose in arms and were partly subdued. The conspiracy of the Gancia was discovered, the conspirators executed. Then the bands took to the mountains, and Rosalino Pilo landed in a little fishing-boat, and sent the fiery cross throughout the country with the tidings, "Garibaldi is on the way to rescue." Then Garibaldi landed at Marsala, fought his way up by Calatafimi, dashing in with his red shirts, and Picciotti, crossing the Admiral's Bridge to beard the lion in his den; and all the people rose to welcome him, improvising barricades, defying the troops in the fortresses and in all their positions. Then followed the cruel, useless bombardment, then the surrender, and Palermo in ruins acclaimed the dictator, and at his bid-

ding proclaimed Victor Emanuel King of United Italy, with Rome for capital.

But Garibaldi had the Neapolitan continent yet to free, so that Sicily was left to herself for a time; the flower of her youth of all classes joining him on the continent to free their Neapolitan brothers, from whom they had received little kindness nor, it must be confessed, much gratitude for their services. The Plébiscite confirmed the will of the islanders to form part of united Italy, but for many a long year the moral unification was a desideratum. The Moderate party, who held the reins of government for sixteen years, understood nothing of the nature of the peo le. The Garibaldian leaders were all ex elled; the Sicilians who had taken part in the revolution were looked on as revolutionists pure and simple. The island was filled with soldiery, and the law of conscription, which the Bourbons had never dared to apply, was most harshly enforced. The Bourbon rulers had treated Sicily as a conquered people: no roads, no railroads, no schools; the misery was frightful. The new rulers did nothing for the alleviation of misery or for the amelioration of the economical and social condition of the priest-ridden populations. In 1862, when Garibaldi again landed in Sicily, and made Palermo his headquarters for the campaign to oust the French from Rome, the islanders answered to his call, and for this crime they were made to pay heavily in the following years. Martial law was proclaimed, citizens were shot without trial, the prisons were crowded, the law of suspects was applied without investigation, hundreds were deported to certain places, and in the chief towns civil and military authority was invested in the same person. In 1866, when the law for the sequestration of ecclesiastical property was passed, the religious orders and numbers of their adherents formed a conspiracy which very nearly succeeded; but the dread of destroying unity brought out the best qualities of the people, who rallied round the authorities and saved the city from bloodshed.

The Marquis di Rudini, now Prime Minister, was then syndic of the city of Palermo, and then, a young man of thirty, he made his mark. That was the time for the governors of Italy to have studied the nature of the people and to have held out the olive branch. But it was an *à priori* conviction with them that Sicily could be governed only with "blood and iron." So things went from bad to worse until, in 1875, the last Moderate Ministry brought in a bill for the grant by Parliament of fresh exceptional laws; Cantelli, the Home Minister, affirming that Sicily was ungovernable by any ordinary law. He informed the House that at that moment there were 152,000 persons subject to special surveillance by the police, besides the numbers in prison condemned or awaiting their trial. The fourteen articles of the law proposed were modelled on the English coercion laws for Ireland, four of which were quoted as models. But the committee chosen to examine the law rejected it in toto. "What Sicily wants," was the conclusion, "is a rigid application of the common law. The island has ever been treated as a conquered State. Of all the grants made for roads, railroads, schools, Sicily has not had even a partial share. The agents of police are the scum of the old police force of the dethroned princes. The well-disposed inhabitants have no security that if they help the authorities to discover real malefactors, they will not become victims and be left to fight their own battles."

The law was rejected, and in the following year the Ministry fell. Nicotera, the survivor of Pisacane's expedition, "the wounded of Sapri, the galley-slave of Favignana," was the first Home Minister of the Liberal party, Depretis being Premier. Whatever other defects he may have had, as a firm administrator of law and justice he has never had a rival. While he set himself to extirpate the Camorra in Naples and the Mafia in Sicily, he infused such confidence in the law-abiding and order-loving citizens that they rallied at once to his side. He chose an energetic prefect, Malusardi, who broke entirely with the system of ignoring lawlessness in high places and punishing it only when discovered in the lower ranks of society. When he entered on his functions, the proprietors of villas and estates in the country round Palermo dared not visit them for fear of blackmail being levied, with the alternative of being seized and kept in caves or grottoes until the sum demanded was paid down. He succeeded in arresting the chiefs of most of the bands, discovered who were the *manutengoli* (the go-betweens), and whether they were such from willing consent or through fear. The former were first admonished, then, if they continued in their evil practices, were arrested; the latter were protected and encouraged. In a couple of years the city and the neighborhood were restored to a normal state. The city revived from that hour. Political parties and administrative factions still rage in Palermo, as unfortunately elsewhere in Italy, but, be it said to the honor of the people, all the administrators of the city's finances and affairs have had the welfare of the citizens at heart, and have not wasted the substance of the commonwealth in corrupt speculations or in works of useless decoration. The result is that Palermo is transformed—cleansed, sanified, and at the same time beautified.

I arrived here some days since after a brief sojourn at Naples, about which city I prefer to write on my return, as at present it is "under the ban"—that is, the municipal council was dissolved some time since, and a royal commissary appointed. Most of the public institutions are undergoing "inspection and inquiry," so that in this abnormal condition of affairs it is hardly fair to speak in the terms of blame and deprecation which alone could be used. I will only say that all that Pasquale Villari wrote about the so-called works of sanitation is inadequate to express the horror with which the state of the wretched inhabitants inspired us. The money voted by the country for the poor of Naples has been applied entirely to the construction of fresh streets and palatial residences for the well-to-do classes. The Porto Pendino and other quarters have been partly destroyed to make room for the new streets and buildings, but not a single house that the poor people expelled can pay for has been built in the quarters where they have their occupations; hence all the *fondaci* and the *bassi*—cellars, dens, and dog-kennels—of which so much was written at the time of the cholera, are now doubly crowded by the poor wretches expelled elsewhere. The filth, the stench, the misery, therefore, is doubled. All this happens from the insane system adopted by the municipality of contracting with a society of mere speculators, who, of course, have looked after their own interests and cannot be blamed for so doing. However, the term of the royal commissary's authority does not expire till next month. The Government has still some power over the Society, and even when the next municipality is elected, "something may yet be done." So we will wait and hope, and report progress or regress after our Sicilian tour.

Here in Palermo a quite other system is adopted. Here, as in Naples, the cholera made sad ravages, especially in the poorer quarters of the city, and here it was decided that disembowelling (*sventrimento*) and a thorough reform of sanitary arrangements was necessary. But Palermo is so little visited and so little known to the rest of Italy that no national gift was proposed for her benefit. Simply the commune was authorized to contract a loan for thirty millions at 3 per cent. to be repaid in thirty years. Of this not six millions have yet been expended, and yet the whole city strikes you as having been rebuilt. So entirely is this the case that, after traversing it from the sea to the innermost recess of the golden shell, then, taking it by quarters, little can be recognized save the old Porta Felice, the *quattro cantoni*, the old Cassaro—now, of course, Victor Emanuel and Via Macqueda. All the old labyrinths of alleys and by-ways have disappeared, broad streets traverse the entire city from north to south, from east to west; and on either side palaces, houses of one, two, three (never more than four) stories are built or in process of building, or wide spaces are left for those who may choose to build in the future. Matters here are managed in this wise: The vast plan for sanification was laid out in 1886, and approved after many changes by the municipal council and modifications by the Government had been introduced. Then very gradually the municipality expropriated certain of the worst quarters, but only when sure that all the inhabitants could find house-room at the same prices, without being deported from the theatre of their daily work. This was not difficult to insure, as the municipality, availing itself of the law of 1885, which permits any unsanitary property to be taken and paid for at a certain price, gave orders for the demolition of the houses within a given period, then made no attempt to find "societies"—simply let on unlimited lease the ground-soil to private individuals, or (as in most cases) sold it. Here there have been no huge *società edilizie* running up jerry-built houses on borrowed capital, and, failing, leaving them unfinished. Simply private individuals have built for themselves, or for letting, such houses as they have thought fit; the municipality merely compelling them to keep in line and to build with decency. So sure do the purchasers feel of letting that they have often built splendid houses and rows of houses touching the back walls of the houses that are yet to be demolished, so that they shall be dry and habitable by the time the expropriation shall be carried into effect. At the present moment house-rents have fallen in Palermo, as there is more than abundant house-room for all. This is good for the public if bad for the builders.

Whenever the municipality has desired to attract the poor to a certain spot, they have built and opened an elementary school, and this more even than a church attracts the very poorest classes. This is one of the most hopeful signs in Palermo. I have not yet visited any of the town schools, but have spent long afternoons at the different *asili rurali* (infant schools) in the outskirts of Palermo. This is quite a new feature for the country. In the "good old times" the street Arabs even of the city were left to run wild, half-naked, and uncared for; as for the children of the outskirts, I never saw such specimens of 'cute, quick, starved childhood as were gathered into the Garibaldi Institute by Al-

berto Mario and made soldiers of in a trice. This Institution was destroyed by some Piedmontese hater of the "Nice cabin boy." Now into these *asili* they come in crowds at eight o'clock in the morning, and are kept there till four or five in the afternoon. The only obligation is that they shall have white pinafores, no matter how much mended if clean and not in holes. The nine *asili* are maintained by private charity, so that there are no fixed funds, and the "soup" which forms the essential feature of the Neapolitan infant-schools cannot be provided. Surprising to relate, all the children are provided by their parents with sufficient bread and some sort of *companatico*, a tomato, an apple, a bit of cheese; and, now the oranges are ripening, the much-cherished fruit is eagerly devoured. At worst, they have the *fichi d'India* (prickly pears) in abundance, and as all the children are of parents who belong to the fisherman or peasant or common working class, they get a hot meal at home when the day's work is done, of maccaroni and beans or some other vegetable; on Sundays, maccaroni and *sugo*, sauce made of tomatoes and onions. They look healthy and are of normal size for their respective ages; there is none of the servility, "the kiss-your-hand fashion," of Naples. Some of these schools have three or four or even five elementary classes, into which the children pass from the *asili*; and in the Educatorio Whitaker there are five hundred children and a normal school for the education of schoolmistresses, all Sicilian, with an addition of a class for Froebel's system. This was founded by the nephews of the famous Ingham of Marsala renown, and is now in a flourishing condition, only more funds are necessary.

It is wonderful, here as in Naples, what private charity does and can effect. There the industrial schools founded by Casanova are growing more perfect every year. There the hospital for poor children condemned to undergo surgical operations is a model unsurpassed in London, and the Ecce Homo, once a disorderly brothel for oblates, now transformed into a home and industrial school for orphaned girls left homeless by the cholera, is already a thriving institution. But in Naples the public charities are in a deplorable state. Here we have yet to visit them. Meanwhile one is cheered and hopeful to see that in this most important part of the social programme the well-to-do portion of the citizens are doing their part right well and earnestly. They are only awaiting the coming of Queen Margaret to inaugurate a magnificent hospital for poor children and an institute for the education of the blind. On the whole, Palermo is, by far, the cleanest, brightest, most thriving city that I have visited for a long time. The taxes are high, but the municipal budget balances itself, work is abundant and well-paid, and Palermo has effected all these reforms by her own unaided perseverance. Garibaldi rightly named the city of his love "the City of Initiatives."

November 14.—I thought I would not close this letter till I had seen the arrival of their Majesties, whose visits to the island are so few and far between (the last was in 1881). Never, to say the truth, have I seen such a welcome accorded to royalty in Italy or elsewhere. That the Sicilians, or at any rate the Palermitans, are all for a constitutional monarch I was aware—no republican propaganda has ever taken root here; but the rapture of the greeting given passes expression. For the last month nothing else has been talked of save the coming of the sovereigns for the opening of the Exposition. Fabulous sums have been spent by the ladies in toilettes for the reception of her Majesty; the dressmakers and the modistes have been working night and day. But what is more touching by far is that the poorest woman "made Saturday" on Friday in her honor. I had no idea how clean the poorest people are until my late "slumming" here. On Saturdays they clean everything and scrub their one-roomed tiled or brick floor like an Anglo-Saxon housewife. "*Fare il sabbato*" (to make Saturday) is a Sicilian proverb for doing a thing thoroughly. So yesterday, to be free for the sight of the royal heads, all cleaned their houses a day earlier.

At first a very official reception was arranged, with all the troops turned out on the sea-wall. One of the daintiest ladies of an old aristocratic house said to me, "What a pity! If Palermo is left in the hands of the people, there will be the most perfect order and a most hearty welcome, but the people turn restive at the sight of troops and police." I happened to be at the Prefect's when the Commander General of the troops stationed in Palermo came in and read a telegram from the King expressly ordaining that there should be no troops whatsoever. The General looked at the Prefect and the Prefect looked at the General, but a member of the aristocracy and a municipal assessor who were present said, "Wise King Humbert! He seems to know our people!" I must confess that I thought of the attempt made on Humbert by Passamante, and the torrents of blame that were poured on Cairoli's head in 1878, but I wronged Palermo in the thought.

Before dawn all the citizens were on foot, the landing place was bowered with greenery, all ugly corners hidden in flowers and leaves. The old Garibaldians claimed the first place, and, dressed in their red shirts and caps, all with medals, they took their posts at seven A. M. I wandered in and out all down the Corso Vittorio Emanuele. Not a window but had its flag (all bear the white cross now), its magnificent old tapestry or modest drapery—here the names of the King, Queen, and Prince worked in flowers; there some emblem of welcome. And every window and balcony was occupied. The people had taken possession of every lamp, cornice, grating, and of the sea-wall. Eight, nine, ten struck, and every now and then the salutes fired filled the spectators with hope that the longed-for were coming; but not a sign of impatience or weariness, not a shout nor a cry. One used to the noise and restlessness of Naples can hardly understand this grave, serious, yet intensely enthusiastic people.

In order to see properly, we footed it, with a carriage in reserve. Though the *America* was sighted at half-past nine off Monte Pellegrino, two hours passed before the landing was really made. The sea and land blended in a crowd of heads. The municipal bark, with the meritorious syndic, Senator Emanuele Paternò, and the Prince of Camporeale, the President of the Exposition Committee, went off, and as the *America* cast anchor a salvo of welcome poured out from the fort of Castellamare and the ships of all nations anchored in the bay; then one deep, prolonged *evviva*, and the sovereigns stepped on shore. Here the ladies of Palermo in fresh, rich morning toilets, with Signora Paternò Vassallo, wife of the syndic, presented the Queen with a splendid bouquet of flowers such as Palermo only can produce. The Prince of Naples offered his arm to the mayoress, and Humbert, bowing right and left, looking well and pleased, took the bouquet from the Queen and handed her into the carriage. The Garibaldians, in their red shirts and medals, followed immediately as guard of honor—a fitting escort for the son of the King who from their *Duce* received two kingdoms as a gift. Then the workingmen's societies, with their respective flags and mottoes; then, pell-mell, "all the world"—all Palermo certainly, and hundreds of visitors from every part of Italy: Senators, Deputies, all the provincial authorities, etc. The order was simply perfect, and the *evvivas*, continued as they were, did not stun one as often elsewhere. The crowd separated either side the royal carriage so that the procession through the streets went at an ordinary pace. Taking a carriage, we reached the royal palace on whose balcony we last stood with Garibaldi, and there the crowd seemed to exceed that on the quay and in the streets. Here there was slight confusion, and four of the Garibaldians, in keeping the ranks, were thrown down and, I fear, hurt. At the foot of the staircase stood the clergy of the Palatine Chapel and Monsignore Di Marzo (I noted that the Cathedral is decked for the morrow's service). As their Majesties appeared on the balcony, one shout reëchoed from the enormous piazza, "Viva il Re! Viva la Regina! Viva il Principe di Napoli!" The King has been moving about Palermo all day long, has visited the Exposition and expressed himself delighted with his reception, as well he may be! I attach little importance to royal visits in general, but this one is significant. All the other cities of Italy are the resorts of the King and the Queen—Naples most of all; but Palermo, not to speak of the rest of the island, has been forgotten, ignored, neglected. Now continental Italy will see that Palermo is one of the first, best, most orderly and progressive cities of the new kingdom, and it may be that the island will have justice done at last.

I close before the inauguration of the exhibition takes place, as those ceremonies are all alike. Their Majesties will not be able to see much, as most of the galleries are in confusion, but this was unavoidable, since, if the opening had been delayed, the opening of Parliament would have taken place first, and the Ministers could not have accompanied the King. Crispi is still the idol of the Palermitans, but they are prepared to give a hearty welcome to Di Rudini, their own citizen and Deputy, and to Nicotera, who spent three years in the dungeons of Favignana on their coasts, and who, again Minister of the Interior, must be well satisfied with the aspect of the city which he delivered from the horrors of coercion. J. W. M.

MARBOT IN THE SAXON CAMPAIGN.

PARIS, November 13, 1891.

NAPOLEON, when he left the army during the retreat from Russia, gave the command of it to Murat, "who, in these circumstances, showed himself inferior to his task." It must be confessed that the cold paralyzed almost every will; there was no discipline left; every morning thousands of dying soldiers were abandoned in the camps chosen for the night. Some colonels, Marbot among them, organized a sort of brigandage: they sent expeditions into the villages, which brought back cattle, salt meat, flour. Marbot gives curious examples of the effect of the intense cold which began in December. A division, composed of 12,000 conscripts, had left Wilna and joined the army. The transition from the well-warmed barracks to the field was fatal to it; the division was almost completely destroyed. "The cold produced even more terrible effects on 200 Neapolitan cavaliers of King Murat's Guard. They came to meet us after having long sojourned in Wilna: they *all* died the first night they slept

on the snow." The Germans, Italians, Spaniards, Czechs deserted and took refuge in the villages. The retreat was, in one sense, easier than could have been expected, as the Russians, accustomed to their warm *izbas*, suffered quite as much as, if not more than, the invaders; Kutuzoff contented himself with following the French army at some distance with a feeble vanguard. The Cossacks alone rode round the army, but they were easily repulsed. On the 13th of December, Marbot saw again the Niemen at Kovno, the last Russian city. How different did the French look from what they were five months before! They were now in Prussia, and Prussia was still an ally; the inhabitants treated the French soldiers kindly. Marbot slept in a bed, and the transition made him ill. Almost all the officers became ill in the same way from the same cause.

Marbot has a chapter on the causes of the disasters of the Russian campaign. He attributes them chiefly to our want of interpreters and complete ignorance of the Russian language; to the blind confidence of the Emperor in the fidelity of his allies; to the belief, which Napoleon entertained too long, that he should bring Alexander to terms, and dictate articles of peace in Moscow. He attaches little, if any, influence to the burning of Moscow; the destruction of that city was not so complete that there did not remain churches, barracks, palaces, and houses enough for a whole army; there was also an immense amount of provisions. The losses of the grand army in the Russian campaign were enormous but have sometimes been exaggerated. Three hundred and twenty-five thousand nine hundred men had crossed the Niemen (155,400 Frenchmen and 170,500 allies). In February, 1813, 60,000 Frenchmen recrossed the Niemen; 30,000 prisoners had remained in Russia, who only returned to France after the peace of 1814. The total loss of the Frenchmen was therefore 65,000 dead. Marbot preserved his regiment with so much care that out of 1,048 men who had entered Russia he lost only 355, and he could, in February, 1813, show at Dresden 693 men who had all made the Russian campaign. This exceptional number was noticed by Napoleon, who paid great compliments to the Colonel of the Twenty-third Chasseurs.

Napoleon had to make exceptional and even illegal levies to place his army again on a war footing; he made a great mistake in leaving about 70,000 men in the garrisons of the German cities, which he was unwilling to abandon, but which he could not hope to keep if he was not victorious in the open field. Marbot joined his dépôt at Mons, in Belgium, and reconstituted rapidly several squadrons. He joined his regiment again only after the battles of Lützen and of Bautzen. The French army had never been finer. The navy had given splendid men to Napoleon, and he had besides taken men from the gendarmerie, but, on the other hand, all the allied troops were on the point of abandoning the cause of France.

"Napoleon," says Marbot, "ought to have treated with his adversaries, and, before all, ought to have conciliated his father-in-law, the Emperor of Austria, by giving back to him Dalmatia, Istria, Tyrol, and a part of the other provinces which had been conquered in 1805 and 1809. Some concessions made to Prussia would have calmed the allies, who, it seems, offered to give back the French colonies and to guarantee him all the provinces as far as the Rhine and the Alps, as well as upper Italy; but they expected him to relinquish Spain, Poland, Naples, and Westphalia."

The Allies had an army three times as numerous as the army of Napoleon: he had 320,000 men in Germany; they had as many as 800,000. He would not treat on these terms; he dismissed Metternich, who had come to negotiate with him, with much arrogance. An immense circle was forming, however, round the French army; the armistice was broken as soon as the circle was complete, two days before the date fixed by the Convention. The Allies had cognizance of all the dispositions of Napoleon's army, through the treason of Jomini. Marbot is severe on Jomini, who was a Swiss, but whom Marshal Ney had protected, had made a French officer, and taken as an aide-de-camp, and who, through Ney's influence, as well as by his own talent, had rapidly become a general. Jomini went over to the Russians, taking with him all the notes relative to the opening campaign and the disposition of the French army. It was by his advice that Alexander, who took him as an aide-de-camp, opened hostilities two days before the day fixed for the rupture of the armistice. The Emperor inflicted a defeat on Blucher on three successive days, and forced him to retire behind the Katzbach, when, learning that the army of Schwartzenberg, 200,000 strong, was entering Saxony, he marched rapidly on Dresden, which was occupied by Saint-Cyr.

Marbot gives an account of the battles of the 26th and 27th of August, before Dresden. The Allies were obliged to retreat; on the second day they had lost as many as 20,000 men, killed or wounded, and 20,000 prisoners. Schwartzenberg was retreating towards Teplitz in Bohemia. Unfortunately, Vandamme, who pursued the retreating enemy, found himself confronted at Kulm by overwhelming forces; he refused to surrender, and was himself made prisoner. The battle of Kulm cost the French 2,000 men, killed or wounded, and 8,000 prisoners; 10,000 men succeeded in escaping from Kulm. Saint-Cyr and Mortier, who were at Dresden, ought to have helped Vandamme; their inaction was the cause of his defeat. At the same moment, Oudinot suffered a defeat at Gross-Beeren, and Macdonald on the Katzbach. Napoleon's victory at Dresden thus became useless. Marbot played his part, with his usual bravery, on the Katzbach; he gives a very detailed and graphic account of this bloody encounter. The army of Napoleon lost at the battle of the Katzbach 13,000 men killed or drowned, 20,000 prisoners, and 50 guns. It was a great disaster. Macdonald, who was the cause of it, assumed the whole responsibility for it before his assembled generals and colonels. The army retreated on the Elbe. Marshal Ney was beaten at Jüterbogk by Bernadotte. For a fortnight the French army remained round Dresden; Marbot camped at Pilnitz, and while he was there, he saw the first Tartars and Bashkirs, armed only with bows and arrows, who had come to join the Russian army. Napoleon one day visited Marbot's regiment. "I was getting ready to shave in the open air, before a small glass nailed on a tree, when I felt somebody touch my shoulder. . . . As I was in the midst of my regiment, I turned rapidly, wondering who could presume on such familiarity with the Colonel. I saw the Emperor, who had come in a postchaise with a single aide-de-camp." Napoleon wanted to examine the position; he wished also to examine some Bashkir prisoners.

On the 28th of September Napoleon passed in review Marbot's corps, and on this occasion he made him an officer of the Legion of Honor, a baron, and gave him a *dotation*. He praised Marbot's regiment, and said it was the only one which kept in good order at the Katzbach, which took guns from the enemy, and repulsed the Prussians wherever it found them. The army slowly concentrated round Leipzig, and the Allies took the same direction. The Emperor arrived in that city on the 15th of October. Deaf to the advice of the King of Würtemberg, who was the most faithful of his allies, Napoleon resolved to give battle, and not to effect his retreat towards the Thüringer-Wald and Hesse, a mountainous country where defence was easy. The King of Würtemberg did not conceal from the Emperor the fact that the movement of the German people had become irresistible, and that he would soon be obliged himself to fall in with it. The King of Bavaria sided with the Allies, and his army had marched already on the Rhine. When Napoleon heard of it, it was too late; he had with him 157,000 men, and he had to fight Schwartzenberg who had 350,000 men.

The battles round Leipzig were terrible struggles. Marbot, before they took place, was camped near an ancient Swedish earthen redoubt, on the Kelmberg. One night, he saw three men on horseback on the Kelmberg, and was near enough to hear their conversation: one of them told the others that there were no Frenchmen in sight, and that "their Majesties" might approach. Marbot, and those who were on the watch with him, soon saw about twenty people on the Kelmberg. Marbot was already hoping to make the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia prisoners, when one of his soldiers imprudently fired a shot and killed a Prussian major in the midst of the group on the Kelmberg. Immediately their Majesties and their suite disappeared at full gallop. The battle began the next morning; it lasted three days. On the 18th, the Saxons turned against the French, in the midst of the battle. Bernadotte opened his ranks to them and immediately turned their artillery against us. During those fatal days, Marbot received in the thigh an arrow which was four feet long; he had it extracted immediately and did not leave his regiment, even for a moment.

Napoleon was forced to retreat after the battles of Leipzig. He had very little ammunition left; he had lost 40,000 men, killed or wounded; the enemy had lost 60,000. The bridge over the Ulster was blown up too soon, and the French army was cut in two. This was a terrible disaster—worse than the three days' battle. I cannot follow Marbot in all the details of the retreat of his regiment; he was never more brave and active. I must refer the reader to Marbot's own book. The end of this third volume of his Memoirs, which, alas, is the last, is sad. Napoleon, when the campaign of 1813 was over, had lost all Germany, all Spain, the greater part of Italy; and the army of Wellington, which had crossed the Pyrenees, was camping on French territory. Marbot speaks rapidly of the invasion of France by the Allies; the subject was too painful for him, for he was really attached to the Emperor. His book ends thus: "The cause of Napoleon was now lost [alluding to the proclamation of the Bourbons by the Senate], though his adherents were infinitely more numerous than those of Louis XVIII., as the event proved in the following year."

Correspondence.

THE EARTHQUAKE IN JAPAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers have by this time received full telegraphic news o the destruction and

ruin caused by the recent terrible earthquake in central Japan. At the present writing it seems that some 80,000 houses are destroyed and about 8,000 people killed. The number of people left homeless reaches far above 300,000. Doubtless there have been funds started in the United States for the relief of the sufferers. My object in writing this brief note is to urge upon those disposed to give, the great need of sending as much relief as may be. The particular feature of the calamity is not merely the loss of homes, but the destruction of means of livelihood. The most prosperous potteries in Japan have been laid in ruins. Dikes and irrigation works must be rebuilt before agriculture can be resumed with safety.

The result is, that for months to come a large portion of the people will be without any income from their occupations, even supposing they are able to borrow funds for rebuilding. Besides this, it must be understood that Japan is a poor country as compared with America. There is not enough to spare, however charitably disposed her people may be, to give adequate relief to their fellow-countrymen. It is to be hoped that the people of the United States will come to the aid of Japan. A dollar will go a long way here; it will keep twenty-five people alive for one day; and every dollar sent here will tell. I dare say that the Mission Boards will all forward contributions of clothes (winter) and money. If one desires to send direct, the best address would be "O. Keil, Secretary Yokohama Chamber of Commerce Yokohama, Japan."

Sincerely yours, J. H. W.

Tokio, November 9, 1891.

PATRICK EGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I do not doubt that Patrick Egan has adopted a mistaken policy, and that his having been accredited to Chili has been a misfortune for that country, the United States, and his own reputation as a public man. But I must ask to be permitted to protest against your using such expressions regarding him as "illiterate foreign adventurer," his "not even [having] a decent English education, nor any large business experience," etc. I knew Mr. Egan for the twelve years previous to his leaving Ireland, and had a high opinion of him. He conducted an extensive business in Dublin, and was esteemed even by political opponents as an upright, straightforward man. There was nothing about him to lead me to suppose he was less literate than the majority of us who have not received a university education. I have always maintained that he was right and justified in leaving Ireland. He had had, as Treasurer of the Land League, the handling of large sums of money under circumstances which rendered it impossible for him to guard the directions in which some of it may have drifted. Considering the then temper of the Government, and the state of public feeling in England after the murder of the Secretaries, and the ease with which juries of men prepared to believe anything could be packed, his liberty was not worth a day's purchase. The *Times* Commission afterwards proved that nothing really could have been urged against him. The vast majority of Irishmen feel that they owe him an eternal debt of gratitude for the probity and self-abnegation displayed in his management of the money affairs of the League. Nor can they forget that the unmasking of the Pigott forgeries was due almost entirely to his business regularity and foresight in preserving sundry of Pigott's letters to him.

Our trained diplomatic service may have its advantages; nevertheless, in foreign relations you appear to come off as smoothly upon the whole as we do. The spoils system on either side of the Atlantic is, of course, to be condemned. Nor does it appear to me becoming that a great country like the United States should be represented by one who has but lately become a citizen. From what I have read from time to time in your columns, I should, however, suppose that you have often been represented abroad by men far less qualified as diplomatists than Mr. Egan.

Very sincerely yours, Alfred Webb.

Dublin, November 19, 1891.

MR. WARNER'S "EVIDENCE IN FULL" COMPLETED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last week's issue, Mr. J. B. Warner professes to give the "evidence in full" respecting Prof. Royce's suppression of my reply to his (the latter's) avowed "attack." The long letter he publishes as "evidence" on this point is evidence of nothing but the lawyer's attempt to put forward his own baseless assumptions in his client's behalf as if they were assured facts. The adroit assumption in this case is, that the "language" of my suppressed reply was improper, and justified exclusion of the reply from the *Journal of Ethics*. This assumption I deny with vigor; and, what is more telling than any denial of mine, Dr. Adler and Dr. Royce, as editors of the *Journal*, denied it themselves, when at first they both accepted the reply for publication, had it put in type, and sent me proofs both of the reply and of Dr. Royce's rejoinder to it. The subsequent rejection of my reply, under Mr. Warner's advice, cannot undo the effect of their previous sanction of it as *perfectly fit for publication*.

But the "evidence in full" on this point cannot be given without showing, by actual quotation, what really was the "language" to which Mr. Warner so unreasonably objected. I have no right to ask you to devote much space to such quotation; but, relying on your well-known fairness, I must ask leave to cite, as a fair specimen of the "language" objected to, the opening of the suppressed reply. The passages here italicised were marked by Dr. Royce himself as the grounds upon which he and his lawyer based their threat of prosecution and their suppression of the reply itself. It will be perfectly clear to any fair-minded man that they were aiming to force me either to concede that Dr. Royce's original article was a legitimate criticism, or else to lose all opportunity of being heard in self-defence.

That his article was a libel, and not a fair criticism at all, has been proved in my pamphlet beyond all possibility of a successful reply; and the reader, bearing this in mind, will judge for himself whether the "language" as such, or whether the effort to defend myself against the libel, was the real ground of Mr. Warner's threatening letter. The following passage from the suppressed reply is a fair sample of its "language" throughout:

"The mere fact that, in the *International Journal of Ethics* for last October, there appeared a hostile review of my book entitled 'The Way Out of Agnosticism,' by Dr. Josiah Royce, assistant professor of philosophy in Harvard College, would not induce me to break my uniform custom of silence in such cases, were it not that Dr. Royce *oversteps the limits of legitimate literary criticism, throws out personal accusations of a slanderous nature, and resorts to empty and undignified official denunciation* in order to flank indirectly a philosophical position which he has not ventured openly to assail. *His mode of attack is a marked case of 'reversion' to controversial methods which, common enough some centuries ago, are happily going out of use to-day. Dr. Royce presumes to accuse me, falsely and injuriously*, of 'frequently making, of late, extravagant pretensions as to the originality and profundity of [my] still unpublished system of philosophy,' *and of 'sinning* against the most obvious demands of literary property rights'; and he even goes so far as to issue a solemn 'professional warning,' formally addressed to 'the liberal-minded public,' against myself as a philosophical thinker and author. Such tactics as these *are unknown among reputable literary men. They are justified by no higher ethical principle than that which dictated the old pettifogger's advice to the young one: 'If you have no case, abuse the counsel on the other side.'*

"This paper, therefore, is written *as a reply, not to a critique, but to a libel.* If I notice below what Dr. Royce puts forward as 'criticisms,' it is not because they deserve to be noticed as such, but solely because they are made to serve as the ostensible warrant and support of *his libellous 'professional warning.' And the only reason why I make my defence in these columns is that, believing the 'liberal minded public' to be a just judge, I have greater confidence in the court of reason than I have in the courts of law.*

"When civil-service reformers plead the urgent necessity of political reform, they are irrelevantly charged by the adherents of the spoils system with being 'hypocrites and pharisees.' Precisely so, when I plead the urgent necessity of philosophical reform, *I am irrelevantly charged by Dr. Royce, in effect, with being a false pretender, a plagiarist, and an impostor.* The charge is just as true in one case as in the other. But, be the charge true or untrue, the attention of keen and candid minds is not to be diverted by this perfectly transparent device from the main point of reform. In both cases, interests more important than any personal reputation are at stake; and loyalty to interests more important than my own reputation requires me *now to expose Dr. Royce's endeavor to divert attention by irrelevant, useless, and utterly unprovoked vituperation from the main point of philosophical reform.*"

Will any fair man say that the "language" here used is other than temperate, dignified, and parliamentary? I protest against Mr. Warner's attempt to misrepresent the character of my "language," as improper in any degree. A libelled citizen has a right to defend himself against the libel; and, when Dr. Royce blew his bugle-blast of defiance, "We must show no mercy, as we ask none," he deprived himself of all excuse, in the eyes of men who prize the good old English principle of fair play, for seeking refuge behind a menace of prosecution. And here I must express my surprise at Mr. Warner's statement that "Prof. Royce sought my advice in consequence of threats of a law-suit from Dr. Abbot." I never threatened Dr. Royce with a law-suit at all.

Francis E. Abbot.

Cambridge, November 28, 1891.

[We cannot print any more letters respecting this controversy.—Ed. Nation.]

ROSSETTI'S FRANCESCA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an interesting review of Mr. Norton's translation of the "Inferno" which appeared in the *Nation* for November 5, I find no mention of Dante Gabriel Rossetti's version of the celebrated Francesca di Rimini passage, though other and (as I think) inferior metrical versions are quoted in comparison with the prose. Nor, indeed, am I sure that Rossetti's has ever had adequate publication; I myself only know it from its being quoted in a lecture on Dante by Mr. William Davies of Rome, a friend of Rossetti's. It is not to be found, I am

told, in Rossetti's complete works. The passage begins:

Quando risposi, cominciai: o lasso . . .
(When I made answer, I began: alas . . .)

But, not to trespass upon your space, I will give only the lines quoted by your reviewer:

"One day we read for pastime and sweet cheer
Of Lancelot, how he found Love tyrannous:
We were alone and without any fear.
Our eyes were drawn together, reading thus,
Full oft, and still our cheeks would pale and glow;
But one sole point it was that conquered us.
For when we read of that great lover, how
He kissed the smile which he had longed to win—
Then he whom nought can sever from me now
For ever, kissed my mouth, all quivering.
A Galahalt was the book, and he that writ:
Upon that day we read no more therein."

Retaining the original form both in metre and rhyme, it is at the same time, I think, far more poetical and far more literal than the versions of Cary and Byron. Only a great poet, equally at home in the two languages, with an almost magical gift of giving an Italian grace and flavor to unexceptionable English, could accomplish such a *tour de force*. Even he, I suspect, could not have kept it up through the whole of the 'Commedia.' Still, one wishes he had tried.—Yours respectfully,

M. D.

"UNWELL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In p. 337 you quote the Rev. Christopher Wordsworth as commenting that *unwell* is "said to have been coined by Horace Walpole." But my *Modern English* shows that, at least in its Scotch form, it was in existence long before Horace Walpole's time. Sir Thomas Urquhart wrote, in 1653:

"Whilst they were on this Discourse, and pleasant Tattle of drinking, Gargamelle began to be a little *unweil* in her lower Parts."—*Rabelais*, Book L., Ch. vl., in Vol. I., p. 19 (ed. 1694).

That *unwell* was formerly considered to be Hibernian appears from a letter of Lord Chesterfield's dated in 1755; and, in 1781, as I have elsewhere pointed out, William Cowper called it "the Irish term." However, Miss Elizabeth Carter used it in 1761 and 1764; and shortly afterwards, as could be evidenced, it became common enough. Coleridge has it in 1796, and Southey in 1797 and 1798. Yet, in the present century, it has been stigmatized as a "Yankeeism."

The verb *backen*, which also you remark on, is a familiar word here in Suffolk. F. H.

Marlesford, England.

"GOD SAVE THE MARK!"

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This exclamation occurs twice in Shakspere, and the almost identical "God bless the mark!" twice. The passages are:

"The Jew, my master, who (God bless the mark!) is a kind of devil" (*Mer. of V.*, ii. 2).

"Of guns, and drums, and wounds (God save the mark!)" (*1st Hen. IV.*, i. 3).

"And I (God bless the mark!) his Moorship's ancient" (*Othello*, i. 1).

"I saw the wound, I saw it with mine eyes—(God save the mark!)—here on his manly breast" (*Rom. and Jul.*, iii. 2).

The commentators all (so far as my reading goes) agree that no satisfactory explanation has been given of this phrase. One conjectures that it may have been an exclamation used in archery, and another that it may have some reference to the mark or cross used instead of a signature; but they neither show that it was ever so employed, nor do they point out the relevancy of such meanings in the passages cited.

If we put aside the use by *Iago*, where it seems merely an exclamation of contempt and disgust, we find that by the other speakers it seems to be used as a deprecatory formula accompanying the mention of something maleficent, as the devil, and wounds. In the passage last cited, the context, "*here*, on his manly breast," shows that the *Nurse* touches her own breast to indicate the exact place of *Tybalt's* wound; but, before touching it (or as she touches it) she says, "God save the mark!"

Now we know that in superstitious times men believed that they lived in a perpetual beleaguerment of malignant powers or demons, always on the watch to harm them in body or soul; and a careless act, word, or gesture might give a disastrous opening. Against such mishaps Christians were taught that the handiest prophylactic was the sign of the cross, which put all demons at once to flight. So I conceive that when the *Nurse* touches her breast she makes a cross upon it—"God save the mark!" being equivalent to "God protect from harm the place I now cross"; and this custom I surmise to have given origin to the phrase. As the English gave up the habit of crossing themselves, the original significance was gradually forgotten, until the phrase was used much as writers and speakers of the present day occasionally use it, without any idea of what it means or what they mean by it.

A curious passage in Petronius seems to support this view, and indeed gave me the notion of this explanation. Trimalchio is telling a story of witches yelling around a house in which a youth has just died. One of the family, a bold Cappadocian, draws his sword, rushes out of the house, "et mulierem, *tanquam hoc loco* (*salvum sit quod tango*), mediam trajecit." Here Trimalchio evidently touches his own or his neighbor's body to indicate the spot where the witch was pierced, and uses at the same time a protective, or *averruncine*, formula to avert possible mischief.

Wm. Hand Browne.

Baltimore, November 23, 1891.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' forthcoming publications include a sumptuous edition of Irving's 'Sketch Book'; 'Napoleon,' by W. O'Connor Morris, in the "Epochs of History Series"; the fourth volume of the Talleyrand Memoirs; 'Teufel, the Terrier,' by Charles Morley; and 'Improbable Tales,' by Clinton Ross.

'Letters of Charles Dickens to Wilkie Collins,' edited by Laurence Hutton; the 'Life of General Thomas J. Jackson ("Stonewall"),' by his wife, Mary Anna Jackson; 'From the Easy Chair,' selections by George William Curtis from his thirty years' store of papers in *Harper's Magazine*; 'Peter Ibbetson,' by George du Maurier; and 'Jasmin: Barber, Poet, Philanthropist,' by Samuel Smiles, are in the press of Harper & Bros.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish immediately 'Masterpieces of American Literature,' selected from thirteen authors.

D. C. Heath & Co. announce 'Business Law,' by Alonzo P. Weed.

The new London edition of the late Dr. Carpenter's 'The Microscope and its Revelations,' edited by Dr. Dallinger, will bear in this country the imprint of P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia.

Two books for young men, 'Brave and True,' by Thain Davidson, D.D., and 'First Battles and How to Meet Them,' by Frederick A. Atkins, are to be issued by the Fleming H. Revell Co.

Mrs. Flora Haines Loughead has begun the serial publication of her own novels through C. A. Murdock & Co., San Francisco, 'The Man from Nowhere' leading off this "Gold Dust Series."

A History of the Holy Land, upon which Mrs. Oliphant has been engaged, is to be published by Macmillan, with illustrations from sketches made by Hamilton Aïdé.

Saxon & Co., London, have secured the rights of translation of a taking French story for boys, 'The Adventures of a Prehistoric Boy.' It is to be published in January, fully illustrated from designs by Félix Régamey.

The librarian of the Bodleian initiates the "Bodleian Facsimile Series" with a photolithograph of the unique and perfect 'Ars Moriendi' of 1491, either Caxton's or Wynken de Worde's production; and an historical tract printed in Rome in 1572, the year of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, describing the solemn procession in that city under the Pope's direction "per la felicissima noua destruttione della setta Vgonotana." These facsimiles will be marketed at a shilling each through B. Quaritch and the Clarendon Press Depository.

We learn from the *Academy* that the Shelley centenary will be marked by the offer of a monument of Shelley in marble and bronze, either to the nation or some public body, as the gift of Lady Shelley. The anniversary is also to be made the occasion of the publication of the Shelley Concordance by Mr. Ellis. The Shelley Society, for its part, proposes to repeat the performance of "The Cenci," but over this project there seems to hang some doubt.

Mr. William Hamilton Gibson's engravings of the delicate things of the roadside and the fields and streams have long charmed the eyes of those who appreciate either nature or the fine hand of art, and a few of them have been enough to make single numbers of a magazine rememberable. He has now given a royal abundance of these treasures of the graver in a thick volume, 'Sharp Eyes: A Rambler's Calendar of Fifty-two Weeks among Insects, Birds, and Flowers' (Harpers), which is illustrated with 275 cuts, many of them of marvellous truth of delicacy in rendering, and all full of the spirit of animate nature. There is a generous text besides, descriptive of the habits, aspects, and curiosities of minute life, the natural history of the summer grass and air; and the story is told so as especially to interest the sharp eyes of young people. A better book to develop the young naturalist out of the schoolboy could hardly be put into the hands of youth; but the marginal picture comment outweighs the text, and the eye is continually diverted from reading to look on the things themselves. The volume is luxuriously printed on heavy paper, and is an example of the best work of the press from which it proceeds.

Another nature volume which is mainly interesting from its illustrations is Mr. W. H. Downes's 'Arcadian Days: American Landscapes in Nature and Art' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat). The text is from the pen of an observer of landscape with the prepossessions of an artist, and flows along with great placidity and self-enjoyment, and not without some charm for the like-minded reader. The only distinctive trait it has is, that it pleads for our own landscape as the proper subject of American painting, and quite deserving of such regard; and with this end in view the author dwells on the picturesqueness and the various beauty of a higher sort which New England ways afford, from the farms to the seashore. The illustrations are by Mr. A. H. Bicknell, and though they lack character, as a rule, in

several of them there are excellent simple effects, particularly of hillsides and roads. As a whole, they are too sketchy and rudely done to support Mr. Downes's suggestion as to the Americanization of our landscape art so forcibly as would have been desirable.

Estes & Lauriat renew this year their well-known line of reprints of classic works, illustrated with tinted photogravures or gelatine prints. In two volumes each they present Bulwer Lytton's 'Rienzi' and 'Last Days of Pompeii,' in the faultless typography of the University Press, Cambridge, with fifty plates respectively, appropriate to the text. Those which are not ideal restorations in the case of Pompeii have been specially made from views taken on the spot. Some of the Roman views, too, are evidently of recent date, and so are creditable to the publishers' enterprise, though one might have preferred glimpses of the state of the Forum, for instance, as nearly contemporary with the age of Rienzi as possible. The covers of both books are elaborately designed with strong color contrasts in good taste. A companion undertaking, in one volume of a larger size, is Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' from the same press, and adorned in its turn with twenty-five plates, all scenic, and many of them fine. It is needless to say more than that here are three extremely attractive and sensible gift-books.

Mr. Harrison S. Morris edits a collection of poems of the sea and the seashore under the title 'Where Meadows Meet the Sea: A Collection of Sea Songs and Pastoral Lays' (Philadelphia: Lippincott). This is illustrated with twelve cuts by F. F. English, which reproduce in a simple way characteristic seashore scenes. The anthology itself is excellent, including nearly 150 poems from the best writers of this century, both English and American. America, it is true, is represented mainly by Walt Whitman, whose work in the comparison declares itself as not poetry, but nevertheless expresses with romantic feeling and occasional power characteristic traits of the ocean. The pieces of little merit are comparatively few, and the body of the volume is of high excellence.

Two pretty companion gift books in white and gold, 'Roses of Romance' and 'Flowers of Fancy,' are issued by Roberts Brothers of Boston, with illustrations by Edmund H. Garrett. The first volume is from Keats, and includes "La Belle Dame sans Merci," "Isabelle," "The Eve of St. Agnes," and "Lamia"; the second is Shelley's, made up of the "Cloud," "Skylark," "West Wind," and "The Sensitive Plant" and "Witch of Atlas." Nothing could be better than such texts, but the illustrations in their turn reach an equal degree of inferiority, being superlatively tasteless in design and slovenly in execution. Such work as the cut figuring the Witch of Atlas as "Arion on the dolphin's back" ought to be impossible at this late day.

Mr. Brander Matthews has done a service to students of the drama and of the history of the British theatre by collecting in a tasteful volume the 'Dramatic Essays of Charles Lamb' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), in which the scattered criticism and portraiture of that most conversable of essayists on the stage are gathered and set by themselves with excellent effect. Mr. Matthews leads off with a pleasant essay of his own—a task of difficulty, since one must hit a peculiar tone of felicitous agreeableness if his pen is to keep company with Lamb's and not suffer; but he has written admirably, and is at the same time light in touch, frankly critical, and sincerely appreciative. He places Lamb, as a writer on the theatre, with Colley Cibber, and declares the two without rivals. He shows the deficiencies of Lamb as a dramatic author in his own attempts, but speaks of the "damned piece," "Mr. H.," with more goodwill than it has hitherto met with, and takes an unctuous pleasure in recalling the fact that the farce was acted in Philadelphia by Mr. Wood's company in 1812 "with extraordinary success." Here is another instance, he evidently means to say, of the superior appreciation of an English author by our countrymen. The entire essay is interesting, and is characterized by that union of practical knowledge with the literary instinct which papers on theatrical subjects are usually most lacking in; and the volume as a whole appeals as much to lovers of the stage as to students of literature—perhaps more.

Mr. Hogg's 'Uncollected Writings of De Quincy,' previously noticed, is issued in a second edition by Macmillan.

Oriental reinforcement of Christmas enjoyment seems to be in order, even though coming from so distant a source as the Land of the Rising Sun. Sir Edwin Arnold's book entitled 'Japonica' (Scribners) is timely in its appearance, for in both inward spirit and outward dress it belongs to holiday publications. Lured to Japan, as he tells us, not by guide-books or volumes of travel, but by a grammar, Sir Edwin found "a whole Japanese syntax constructed on the refined and gentle as well as eminently Christian principle of exalting another and depreciating one's self." When just about to leave the land whose language is governed by Christianity in grammar, Sir Edwin received an invitation to furnish three articles for *Scribner's Magazine*. These were duly written, and are now reprinted in a sumptuous volume with Mr. Robert Blum's fine illustrations. Distilling the essence of the best European and American writings concerning Japan, whether descriptive, critical, or philosophical, adding his own brilliant and kindly, rather than keen or profound, observations, and flavoring all with the honey gathered by his own study of the native poetry, he presents us, as it were, with a pretty vase filled with sweet odors. His charming style and broad charity will surely swell the volume of travel towards the land whose praises are sung from the carmine head-line on the title-page to the colophon which, in an oval of Japanese script, is "Sir Edwin Arnold's Seal." Of Mr. Blum's illustrations it may be said that their charm is that of intense realism combined with poetic selection and grouping. An artist's eye has chosen the subjects, which are treated with power and, considering that no color is used, with remarkable effect. The dainty material and elegant mechanical execution make this book one of the most inviting of parlor-table books of the season.

'By Land and By Sea' is the title of a handsomely printed and illustrated book of travels by the late Harriet E. Francis of Troy, N. Y. Accompanying her husband, the Hon. John M. Francis, in his diplomatic mission at the courts of Greece, Portugal, and Austria-Hungary, this lady enjoyed excellent opportunities of travel and observation. Her keenness of insight is noticeable, and her story of incidents, with chats about history and legends heard or read by her, are in quality rather above that of the average of round-the-world tourists. There are ten "chats" and as many printed extracts of letters descriptive of scenery or people. Occasionally we find a misprint, misspelling, or information of uncertain value, but in general the work is entertaining. The abundant full-page illustrations are creditable to the taste of the author who selected them, as their execution is to the publishers (Nims & Knight, Troy).

'Swiss Pictures Drawn with Pen and Pencil' has appeared in a new edition (Fleming H. Revell Co.), with some new illustrations by Whymper, and a practical map in which the principal peaks as well as the mountain villages are conspicuously marked for the convenience of tourists. The pictures take up almost as great a part of the 216 pages as the letter-press, which is by the late Rev. S. Manning. The book was originally issued in 1866, and in the present edition an attempt has been made to bring it up to date by including places which have since become popular, and mention of some recent mountain railways—not the very latest, however. A useful feature is a table in the appendix, showing at a glance the height of the principal mountains and passes. Some of the pictures illustrate the disadvantage of introducing figures of city folks in landscapes: the mountains remain unchanged, as do the peasants, but the women no longer wear hoopskirts.

One of the most attractive and popular of German holiday books is Cotta's *Musenalmanach*, which was revived last year under the editorship of Dr. Otto Braun. There is a certain poetic fitness in the reappearance of this venerable annual after nearly a century's sleep, as indicating a possible literary fulfilment of the Kyffhäuser prophecy. The volume for 1892 comes to us in a festive garb, the very pink of bibliopegic art, and the 300 pages of contents are as fresh and as free from fustiness as the dainty exterior. In fine, it is a Rip van Winkle of marvellously youthful mien and quite modern attire, and has awaked out of its long slumber, like the seven sleepers of Ephesus, with no traces of age in its features and no cemeterial scent in the folds of its garments. Fiction is represented by Paul Heyse's "Vroni," the scene of which is laid in the Bavarian highlands. Heyse is unsurpassed in Germany as a writer of short stories, and this tragic tale is one of his best. The prose is followed by what Milton calls "numerous verse," of which "Die Hexenmühle," a narrative poem by Otto Roquette, "Das Maienfest," by Isolde Kurz, "Die Unschuldigen Kindlein," by C. F. Meyer, and "Herzensfrühling," by Ludwig Fulda, may be especially mentioned. Six heliotypic reproductions of paintings by Höcklin, Falkenberg, Max, Von Blaas, Hoff, and Rössler greatly enhance the beauty of the work.

In anticipation of more extended notice, two books of decided merit may be commended to lovers of literature as well as to students. Mr. Mackail's 'Select Epigrams from the Greek Anthology' (Longmans, Green & Co.) may fairly be called a work of art. It is by far the best anthology ever edited in English, evincing the nicest taste and scholarship in introduction, translations, and notes. The typography is everything that a "gentleman and scholar" could desire. Prof. Mahaffy's 'The Greek World under Roman Sway' (Macmillan) continues his 'Greek Life and Thought,' noticed some years ago in these columns, and displays the same freshness of treatment, the same research in a somewhat neglected and out-of-the-way field, enlivened at intervals by discussions of life and morals which have a perennial interest.

In 'English Social Movements,' by Robert A. Woods (Scribners), one finds a good deal of information about English labor organizations, new and old, the various Socialistic leagues and their aims and methods, the university settlements and reformatory schemes of the churches in London, and other similar subjects. The account aims to be objective,

and is consistently so almost throughout; occasionally the writer's sympathy with Socialistic doctrine comes to the surface. His evident open-mindedness lends significance for American readers to what he says in his preface: "I may express my increasing conviction of the substantial emptiness of the kind of criticism made upon the constitution of English society, which is intended to be an indirect felicitation of ourselves over our own social conditions. The American aristocracy is more powerful and more dangerous than the English. And it can no longer be taken for granted that workingmen are better off in the United States than in England. . . . We are beginning to see that the problem of lower New York is in some respects even more serious than the problem of East London."

Mr. Archibald H. Grimké's 'William Lloyd Garrison, the Abolitionist,' just added to the "American Reformers Series" published by Funk & Wagnalls, is the third attempt in English to abstract in one volume the four volumes of the Life edited by Garrison's children and published by the Century Co. A fourth attempt, by Mr. Goldwin Smith, is, as we have already announced, passing through the press. Mr. Grimké's possesses a peculiar interest in that the author has in his veins the blood of the race for whose redemption the *Liberator* was founded. A noticeable warmth of feeling and rhetorical exuberance proceeds from this cause, and will not be harshly criticised. Mr. Grimké has a good constructive sense, and has made a book which hangs well together. His narrative is animated throughout. He is not a mere eulogist, and does not approve Garrison's judgment or policy at all points, but is fair in defining them. The most serious omission is in the matter of non-resistance and the Non-Resistance Society, the latter not being even mentioned. This is to lose the key to Garrison's character at once as a man and as a reformer, and an indispensable clue to the understanding of his relation to political abolitionism in the guise of the Liberty Party. Mr. Grimké shows here more than elsewhere a want of grasp of his abundant material.

In "Excursions among Words," by Eugene Field in the Chicago *News*, much good advice is given to journalistic writers which we fear it is too much to hope they will follow. But the English language is a very dangerous subject to dogmatize upon. Mr. Field begins: "There is no such word as 'wended'; the past of wend is 'went.' A man cannot be said to have wended his way. He either went his way or has went his way." Perhaps this is some of Mr. Field's humor. More probably he had forgotten Scott's—

> "Then slower wended back his way
> Where the poor maiden bleeding lay."

Music is the comprehensive title of a new magazine edited and published by Mr. W. S. B. Mathews of Chicago. In size and external appearance it resembles the *Forum*. Mr. Mathews is well known to the musical world through his books 'How to Understand Music,' his 'Popular History of Music,' etc.; and the first issue of his magazine gives evidence that he takes his task very seriously. *Music* is intended to be "a convenient medium of intercommunication between the best minds of the musical profession in the United States and the world," and the editor thinks that music has made sufficient progress in this country to call for an organ similar in scope to the literary magazines, in which there will be room and pecuniary compensation for articles that would be excluded by their dimensions from the daily papers and the weekly musical papers, which are chiefly devoted to criticism of current events and to trade matters. The November number of *Music* has a timely article on Paderewski, with a portrait, and articles on the Dignity of Music, Music in the Columbian Fair, Music and the Individual, Some Pedagogic Needs in Music, book reviews, etc. Among the contributors to the December number will be Messrs. Upton, Liebling, Tomlins, Fillmore, and Dwight.

The November Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an account of a journey in Persia, by C. E. Biddulph, the most interesting part of which relates to the great salt deposit known as the Darya-i-Namak. This is a tract of hollow ground more than fifty miles long by twenty broad, "covered with an incrustation of solid salt several feet in thickness in most places, and in some parts, it might be said, of almost unknown depth." There is apparently but a single path across it, and the passage must be made at night, as the dazzling reflection of the sun's rays prevents persons from seeing where they are going, and, once off the track, they are almost hopelessly lost. Mr. Biddulph crossed by moonlight, and found the surface like a frozen pond, except that "instead of being continuous, it was broken up into countless polygonal blocks, whose dimensions varied from six inches across to two or three feet or more." There was no vibration of the incrustation perceived, nor impression made upon it by the camels and horses; and an attempt to break off a block of salt with a hammer and an iron tent-peg was unsuccessful, the peg being bent nearly double. A few fragments were chipped off, which, after a day or two, became soft and friable and changed color from purest white to a slaty blue. Just before the further side of the deposit was reached, the caravan got off the track, and the animals sank almost to the girths "in a substance that resembled exactly melting snow." Among the other articles are some interesting "Notes on the Sabæans," an obscure Persian sect, who call themselves "followers of John [the Baptist]."

The late John Marshall, one of the most distinguished surgeons and comparative anatomists of England, and Professor of Anatomy to the Royal Academy, left at his decease last year a set of anatomical drawings of which he made use in his lectures to the Royal Academy. They remain the property of the family, as each professor is expected to furnish his own drawings. As the Professor was too mindful of the claims of humanity to leave behind him a fortune, his family would be glad to find a purchaser for the drawings. They are about eighty in number, and might well become the property of some institute. Mrs. Marshall's address is Bellevue House, Cheyne Walk, Chelsea, London.

—When M. Eugène Melchoir de Vogüé two or three years ago delivered his address upon his reception into the French Academy, we noted it as the first signal, shown from a high place, to mark the turn of a religious and literary tide. Ever since 1848 the tide had been setting towards naturalism in literature, while in religion and morals it seemed to be flowing towards an abyss of mere negation. If M. de Vogüé was not the first to see that an ebb was coming, and in fact had begun, he was at least the first to cry aloud that this was so. His views were soon taken up by others: by M. Paul Desjardins in the *Journal des Débats*, in *Figaro*, in the *Revue Illustrée;* by M. Eugène Hollande in the *Ermitage;* by M. Édouard Rod in a striking series of articles in the *Revue Bleue*, since collected into a book under the title of 'Les Idées morales du temps présent'; and by many other writers of less weight. Most of these welcomed, or deplored, the coming of a neo-catholicism, a religion of faith and hope and love accompanied by a certain revival—or recrudescence—of ecclesiasticism. How this would come about none knew; that it would come, none seemed to doubt. A new writer, however, has just appeared upon the scene, M. Henry Bérenger, President of the Association des Étudiants. In a fine study, which appeared in the *Revue Bleue* of October 10, entitled "Les Idées modernes dans les livres de M. de Vogüé," he takes up the whole question from a quite different point of view. It is a contribution to the discussion which deserves a careful reading, and which does not lend itself to any process of compression by which a fair notion of it could be given. He looks for no success in the experiment of putting the new wine into the old bottles over again, and expects no revival of Catholicism in France. M. Édouard Rod looks for such a revival, and so, too, apparently, does M. Jules Simon. But M. Henry Bérenger may perhaps comfort himself, if these excellent judges prove to be in the right, with the reflection that, after all, not even the Holy Roman Church is a finality to every religious mind, since many have passed through it, as also through the Greek and Anglican communions, to the Catholic Church of mankind.

—Prof. Rodolfo Lanciani has republished from the *Monumenti Antichi* of the Academy dei Lincei, Rome, a monograph entitled 'L'Itinerario di Einsiedeln e L'Ordine di Benedetto Canonico.' His publication will be of especial interest to the students of the topography and antiquities of the Eternal City. The "Itinerary" discovered at Einsiedeln dates from the eighth century, but, in the opinion of Prof. Lanciani, it is merely a copy of the names of localities and monuments on a much earlier map, and may therefore be accepted as throwing light on Rome during the fourth century. It gives eleven tours or itineraries for pilgrims and strangers to follow in their sight-seeing, setting down the places of interest on each side of the streets. The 'Ordo Benedicti' furnishes similar notes—but of a later period, it being a work of the twelfth century—for seven walks through the city. Prof. Lanciani has edited both these authorities with great care, collating, wherever material for collating exists, all references by early or mediæval writers to the buildings mentioned. He gives in facsimile several pages of the original manuscripts, as well as plans and pictures of the more important sites. Most valuable, perhaps, is his large plan of Rome, on which, by the use of black and red inks, he enables one to see at a glance the points visited by the traveller of Einsiedeln and by the Canon Benedict respectively. In this way, not only the changes in the nomenclature of particular monuments, but also the disappearance of old buildings and the appearance of new ones, are readily illustrated. As we should expect, many of the old Roman names—the thermæ of the emperors, the Circus Maximus, the palaces of Nero and Trajan—are omitted from the later itinerary. The Canon records many more churches and shrines, and even in cases where the monuments of the pagan city still remained—as the baths of Caracalla and of Diocletian—he deemed them unworthy of mention to the pilgrim who went to Rome to be edified by its Christian monuments. The later authority passes over the Roman Forum with slight mention, but from the earlier we learn, for instance, that the *cavallus Constantini* stood not far from the arch of Severus,

—We will not undertake to discuss the archæological details which Prof. Lanciani's monograph brings forward, but we will point out that his work, although it is primarily addressed to antiquaries, necessarily throws side-lights on topics of wider interest concerning the post-imperial history of Rome. To take a single example, the itinerary of the twelfth century starts from the Church of St. Anastasia—an indication, as Prof. Lanciani remarks, that the influence of the Byzantine tradition was felt long after the Western and Eastern Churches had drifted far apart. Again, these two lists of buildings—for guide-books in the modern sense they are not—furnish testimony on the much-mooted question as to when the spoliation and destruction of the edifices of imperial Rome began; they do not, of course, give particulars, but from the fact that we know that this or that building was still standing in the twelfth century, we know that it could not have been demolished by the Teutonic invaders. We can also guess, but with less certainty, as to the population of the city, when we know what parts of it were occupied and how thickly it was dotted with churches. Prof. Lanciani's monograph is published with all the luxury of type, paper, broad margins, and folio size in which foreign learned societies like to indulge. When will they learn, however, that a good index, like an honest heart, is better than all this outward finery?

—The Asiatic Society of Japan publishes a pamphlet of much interest to those engaged in the comparative study of institutions, entitled 'Notes on Land Tenure and Local Institutions in Old Japan.' The pamphlet is based upon the researches of the late Dr. D. B. Simmons, an American physician whose long residence in Japan had familiarized him with the customs of the people, and whose character and abilities were such as to have secured him an exceptional place in their regard. His death unfortunately prevented him from going very far with these investigations, and his memoranda were left in a chaotic state. Mr. John H. Wigmore has edited them, so far as it was practicable, adding much from his own knowledge and securing some contributions from Japanese scholars. The result is but a fragment, but it is fascinating in its suggestiveness. We catch glimpses of a society possessing many resemblances to that of England in prehistoric or early historic times, not only in its feudal customs, but also in the relations of the people to the soil which they tilled. There are indications that, as in England, the serfs of early times represented the conquered peoples, whether aborigines or earlier immigrants than their conquerors, and that the mass of the common people of to-day represent the descendants of the early serfs. Many details are given as to local institutions, the divisions of the land, the size and tenure of holdings, the administration of justice, etc., as well as some curious specimens of feudal laws and customs. The essay opens up a tempting field of study.

STEPHENS'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.—I.

A History of the French Revolution. By H. Morse Stephens. Vol. II. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

FIVE years have elapsed since Mr. Morse Stephens published his first volume. Readers interested in historical research began to fear that some calamity had arrested the progress of the work. It is with keen satisfaction that we now find that this fear was groundless. The two volumes taken together bear out the opinion which we formed when we first became acquainted with Mr. Stephens's writings, that his book when completed will be the leading English authority on the annals of the Revolution.

Few indeed are the critics who have any claim to criticise the details of Mr. Stephens's narrative, for the men who in England or America possess anything like his knowledge of the period with which he deals form a very small and select class. This notice is not, we must in fairness add, written by one who claims to belong to this chosen body of historical experts. But it is possible and desirable to form and express a judgment of Mr. Stephens's book, not from the point of view of specialists, but from the point of view of that large and more or less well-informed public for whose benefit and instruction his 'French Revolution' is written. All that we attempt is, to consider fairly the characteristics of our author's work and to "criticise" it in the true sense of that word—that is, to give an estimate of it which may avoid the impertinence and the irrelevancy at once of flattery and of censure.

There is a certain simplicity about Mr. Stephens's whole manner of work and mode of thinking which renders the task of criticism comparatively easy. A little reflection shows that his treatment of the French Revolution, especially in his last volume, is marked by one sterling merit which many readers will deem a defect, and by one fault which to many readers will undoubtedly seem a merit. Mr. Stephens's great merit is his serious and laborious honesty of purpose. Hence, a determination on his part, which might be called excessive if in such a matter excess were possible, to state facts in the plainest and simplest manner, and to avoid at any cost of temporary popularity the vice of sensationalism. To a generation who have delighted in Carlyle's highly colored pictures of revolutionary scenes, and in his rhetorical and occasionally bombastic moralizing on historical crises, or who have drawn their conceptions of the events which a century ago astounded Europe from the over-colored dramatization of Carlyle published by Dickens under the form of a novel, Mr. Stephens's pages will be grievously disappointing: but every lover of historical truth will feel grateful to him for his abstinence from every attempt either "to point a moral or adorn a tale." He has remembered, what we have all of us too much forgotten, that an historian is neither a dramatist nor a moralist, but is primarily an investigator. It may be frankly admitted that Mr. Stephens has really no turn for the much overrated art of word-painting, and it is just where the events he narrates are the most theatrical that his deficiencies as a narrator are most apparent. But, on the other hand, if he does not give his readers scenes, he gives them facts, and if he is least interesting where other writers most successfully excite the imagination or arouse the passions of students, he is able by the mere force of truth to give an interest to just those subjects which are of the highest importance for the understanding of a great crisis in European history, but which, because they do not lend themselves to dramatic representation, are most constantly overlooked.

A few examples, taken from scores of instances to be found in Mr. Stephens's pages, will give some slight idea of the way in which his honest and plain statement of fact adds to our knowledge. On no man has more misrepresentation been lavished than on Marat. That at the end of his life he was a sanguinary maniac is to our mind perfectly clear from Mr. Stephens's own narrative, though this is not exactly the conclusion at which he himself arrives. It is, however, also certain that Marat was no "horse leech," but a man of very considerable literary, philosophical, and, above all, scientific acquirements. He held medical degrees from many universities; he was a good classical scholar, acquainted with most modern languages. Before the Revolution, he held a good medical appointment connected with the court; he possessed the friendship of Franklin, and, before the outbreak of the revolutionary movement, had studied English society on the spot, and had, with a sagacity not found among many of his contemporaries, noted some at least of the defects of the English Constitution. Certainly, to understand this man "it is necessary to get rid of preconceived ideas. Suspicious and irritable, excitable and sensitive to an extreme, he attacked everybody, and attacked them with unaccustomed violence. But with all this he was in private life a highly educated gentleman. The extent of his attainments appears from his numerous works, and it must be remembered that he could not for years have been a fashionable physician and held a court appointment without being perfectly polite and well bred." About the perfect politeness and good breeding of Marat we may, with the highest respect for Mr. Stephens, entertain some doubt. Patients tolerate much from a physician who cures; eccentric brutality no less than urbane suavity has led more doctors than one to fortune. But it is clear enough that the popular picture of Marat is at best a caricature. He may, as we think he did, have turned into a morose and bloodthirsty agitator. But half the instruction of revolutionary crises is lost if we do not recognize the fact that the victim of Charlotte Corday was at the beginning of his career no brutal ruffian.

Take, again, our author's account of the September Massacres. He is not here at his best. The terrible tale needs to be told by a master of narrative. But even here we learn from him definite facts hardly ascertainable from the pages of most historians. We know precisely how long the massacres lasted and how many were their victims. "They began at midday on Sunday, September 2; they continued throughout September 3; the total number of the victims has been variously stated from 850 to 1,458 by serious historians, and probably may be fixed at about 1,100. . . . On the morning of September 4, Roland appeared . . . at the bar of the Assembly and remarked: 'Yesterday was a day upon the events of which a veil should be drawn. I know that the people, terrible in its vengeance, has yet made use of a certain justice.'" These statements may seem bald, but they give us the gist of the whole matter. Pages of eloquence might give us far less information, and also make far less impression. So it is in everything of which Mr. Stephens treats. The King's trial is not in his pages a grand scene, but we learn from him, what we do not learn from our sensationalists, the way in which men really voted, and the strange inconsistency which marked their conduct at a terribly perplexing crisis. We venture, however, to say, as we have already intimated, that it is in the dryer portions of his subject that Mr. Stephens's high qualities as an historian are best displayed. The history of the Republican army and navy, the nature of the Great Committee, the whole system of government by committees, wherein the Con-

vention was the unconscious imitator of the Long Parliament, the policy of alternate rash philanthropy and of unscrupulous tyranny which roused civil war in San Domingo, the composition of the Girondin party, the great part played by the so-called Men of the Plain, whose services to their country have been rewarded with oblivion—these and a score more of topics of which most Englishmen know nothing, and of which it behooves us all to know if we are to draw any useful instruction from history, are absolutely forced by our author on the attention of his readers. Nor does his merit end here. His love of facts is fatal to crude theories. It does much to modify received views; it does still more to destroy our writer's own theories. It is his highest praise that his honesty of statement enables us to correct what to many persons will seem the errors, in one respect, of his historical inferences.

Mr. Stephens's one fault is a crudeness of political judgment which leads him, we do not say to defend, but certainly to palliate, the Terrorists and their policy of terror. The novelty of the view taken by him of the Reign of Terror will recommend his history to all lovers of paradox, but it must in fairness be admitted that he is no paradox-monger. No one stands at a greater distance from writers such as Froude, Carlyle, or Victor Hugo. He has no special admiration for revolutionists. He is absolutely free from the delusion—and this is one of his greatest merits—that the Jacobins were men of any exceptional ability. "It is necessary," he writes, "to understand that these twelve men [the members of the Committee of Public Safety] were not exceptionally gifted, specially trained administrators. There were most probably hundreds of other men equally qualified to put an end to anarchy and to reorganize France, . . . but circumstances thrust these twelve men to the front." He does not, again, hold, if we understand him rightly, that the Terror was in the main the result of panic. What he maintains is, that France was failing to ruin for want of a strong government, that the Committee of Public Safety, with its absolute and unlimited power, was the kind of government which the country for the moment needed; that the Committee organized of set purpose a system of government through fear, that in the execution of this scheme they put thousands of innocent men to death, not because these victims of judicial murder had committed crimes, nor because their executioners believed them to be criminals, but because the rulers of France thought that fear of death was the best instrument for maintaining the discipline of the nation. Mr. Stephens further, as we understand him, holds that the Terror was, from a political point of view, justified by success, and that it may at least be doubted whether any other method would have saved the unity and the independence of France. It is difficult to represent briefly and fairly views from which a critic dissents, and which are to be gathered inferentially from expressions scattered up and down a long narrative. The following sentences, however, go a good way to justify our account of Mr. Stephens's judgment of the Terror:

"Many evil deeds," he writes, "were done during the Reign of Terror, much blood was wantonly shed, yet for the organizers of the system excuses can be made. They honestly believed that the steady succession of executions was necessary to maintain peace and good order in France, and that, to save much bloodshed from anarchy and civil war, it was necessary that some lives should be solemnly taken with judicial forms. This may not be a valid excuse to strict moralists, but it is an intelligible attitude to adopt."

The attitude is undoubtedly "intelligible"; so was the attitude of Catiline, of Tiberius, of Pilate, of Nero, of Charles IX., of Judge Jeffreys, and so has been, and always will be, the attitude of every tyrant, bigot, fanatic, or scoundrel whose name history hands down to execration. It does not need a "strict moralist" to condemn murder, or to denounce judicial murder as the very worst form in which the worst of criminals can take away the lives of his fellow-men. This, we are well assured, Mr. Stephens himself knows as well, and feels as keenly, as any of his readers. The point, and the only point worth discussing (for the question of morality is settled past discussion), is whether, on any view of expediency, the Terror admits of political justification. That the statesmanship of the Terrorists was execrable no one really denies; what we do deny is that it was statesmanship at all, and our great respect for Mr. Stephens's honest work makes it a duty to deal with it honestly, and say that, in his criticism of the Jacobin leaders, his political judgment is, on the facts as he himself narrates them, utterly at fault. It is, as we have pointed out, his special merit to have tested the revolutionary no less than the anti-revolutionary tradition by the criterion of plain facts and, as far as circumstances admit, of precise numbers. Thus he has given the English world for the first time the statistics of the Reign of Terror. Let us take the dates chosen by Mr. Stephens himself; let us assume that the true Terror lasted a little more, or a little less, than a year; that, in strictness, it existed from September, 1793, till the 27th of July, 1794 (9th Thermidor, year II.), and, in any case, ought not to be dated back further than the beginning of April, 1793. Let us now consider what, according to our author's own view, were the two leading features of this "crisis of the Revolution" which "is the period which distinguishes it from all other revolutions." The country was deprived of any real Constitution. Twelve men—the Committee of Public Safety—were the absolute despots of France. They, and persons acting under their orders, had for all practical purposes control of the property, the freedom, and the lives of every man and woman throughout France. They deliberately proposed, if Mr. Stephens's view be correct, to rule their countrymen by a system of abject fear. To make this barbaric method effective, "a certain number of executions per day, or per week," were carried out in order 'to intimidate those who were not contented with the existing state of affairs." What, then, was this certain number of executions, or, in plain truth, of judicial murders? They amounted to 17,540. Of these, 2,500 at least were perpetrated in Paris alone, and let it be remarked that the number of deaths went on increasing, week by week, like a rapidly spreading plague. From the 10th of June to the 27th of July, 1893, 1,376 persons were executed in Paris, at the rate, on an average, of 196 victims per week. To all this must be added an untold number of imprisonments and other acts of violence. Nor do we reach the tale of horror when we place before our imagination what may be called the specific atrocities of the Terror. As bad as open acts of oppression, or worse, are the menaces, the fears, the suspicions, the abject submission to intolerable wrong, which turned brave men into cowards, and freemen into slaves.

The Reign of Terror, we shall be told—and this is in fact what Mr. Stephens maintains—saved France. But for this view he gives in reality no proof whatever. The authority of the Committee of Public Safety meant two different things. It meant, in the first place, that concentration of executive power which from the beginning of the Revolution had been vainly demanded by every leader with any claim to statesmanship, and no one need dispute that the formation of a strong government was essential to the preservation of the country. It meant, in the second place, that the strength of the Government was used to carry out a plan of oppression and to enforce this system by organized terror. That this terror was expedient is a matter which neither is, nor can be, proved. The most elementary laws of human nature, and the condition of France in 1793, forbid the belief in the expediency of cruelty and murder. Every civilized ruler knows that the force of punishment in driving men to action is, after all, very weak. Mr. Stephens rightly dwells on the fact that, during the height of the Reign of Terror, men were, as they always must be, mainly occupied with their daily and private affairs. But this is in reality conclusive evidence of the small results produced by the infliction of the severest penalties. Punishment, moreover, owes such effectiveness as it possesses to its falling upon the guilty. It is absurd to suppose that the execution of thousands who are not guilty of any offence will be a terror to evil-doers.

But let any one who is not satisfied with inferences based upon the best established principles of penal legislation consider for a moment the state of France. Were the Frenchmen of 1793 caitiffs who needed to be driven into battle by the lash? Every one knows that this was not so. France abounded then, as she always has abounded, in men of high spirit and of rare military capacity. The Reign of Terror may well enough have been necessary to keep the Jacobins in power, but the authority of the Jacobins was not necessary to the salvation of France. It was the soldiers of the Republic who saved the country, and there is no reason for supposing that France would have been worse served by her sons had a fanatic like Robespierre, or a time-server like Barère, never had an opportunity of exhibiting to the world all the horrors that ensue when narrow-minded enthusiasm or unscrupulous self-seeking is combined with unlimited power. On Mr. Stephens's own showing, the Reign of Terror cost France over 17,000 citizens. To these we may fairly, in our own judgment, add the 1,100 prisoners slaughtered in the massacres of September, and we shall not be far from the mark if we assume that between 19,000 and 20,000 citizens were the victims of Jacobinism. But the mere number of murders necessary to support the Terror gives no real measure of the injury wrought to France by the excesses of revolutionary policy. It is the Reign of Terror which has divided France into hostile camps; it is the Reign of Terror, and the traditions it has engendered, which has exposed the French to the constant danger of alternating revolution and reaction; it is the Reign of Terror which, even now, makes it uncertain whether France will ever be the lasting home of rational freedom. Our one quarrel with Mr. Stephens is that his political insight is not equal to his historical knowledge. In a succeeding article we hope to waive all criticism and to show our readers on how many sides he has, by his diligence and his research, elucidated the history of the French Revolution. Meanwhile we would suggest that, oddly enough, his theory of apology

for the Terror is scarcely fair even to the Terrorists. Were their acts, after all, the result of policy? Panic, cowardice, and stupidity naturally beget cruelty. A poet may, it is possible, see further into this matter than an historian:

> "France had lit a light for all men,
> Preached a gospel all men's good;
> Celtic Demos rose a demon,
> Shrieked and slaked the light in blood."

THE NEW GERMANY.

Geschichte des deutschen Einheitstraumes und seiner Erfüllung. In den Grundlinien dargestellt von Dr. J. Jastrow. Gekrönte Preisschrift des Allg. Vereins für Deutsche Litteratur. Vierte Auflage. Berlin: Allg. Verein für Deutsche Litteratur. 1891.

Imperial Germany: A Critical Study of Fact and Character. By Sidney Whitman. John W. Lovell Co. 1891.

The Young Emperor William II. of Germany: A Study in Character Development on a Throne. By Harold Frederic. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

THE close of a period of doubt and strife in the development of a nation, the final or seemingly final settlement of a really vital question, always produces a new theory of the national history. From the point of view of the accomplished fact, the historian discovers that the whole movement of the national life has been towards precisely that crisis which has declared itself and that solution which has resulted from the crisis. 1688 created the Whig theory of English, 1789 the Democratic theory of French history. The close of our civil war and the formulation of its results in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments have enabled both foreign and American writers to find the leading motive of the past century of our own history. That the establishment of German unity should not have exerted a similar influence upon the historical literature of Germany would be inconceivable. The instinct of scientific synthesis is stronger among the Germans than any other people. "Too fragmentary," said Heine, half a century ago, "is the world and life. I will betake myself to the German professor. He knows how to put it all together, and makes of it an intelligible system." In Heine's time a philosophy of history which was very popular in Germany showed that the evolution of the world was through the national to the cosmopolitan idea; and that precisely because the Germans had so little of the "specific national" sentiment, Germany was marching in the van of human progress. But now that the Germans have obtained the national organization which their neighbors had achieved centuries before, cosmopolitanism has been relegated to a very distant future. The movement of the age is national, and Germany has caught up with the procession. The cosmopolitan sentiments of eighteenth-century Germans are now regarded as evidences of a morbid condition, and Goethe's broad humanism, admirable in itself, is considered a symptom of national disease. This view Von Treitschke has presented, with much invective against those of different opinion, in his occasional essays and in the introductory volume of his 'German History in the Nineteenth Century.' This view Von Sybel sets forth, more calmly but not less decidedly, in the opening chapters of his 'Founding of the German Empire.' To the defence of the same thesis Jastrow devotes his 'History of the German Dream of Unity and its Fulfilment.

Jastrow presents a philosophical theory of German history from the time of Tacitus to the present day. He undertakes to show how and why the Germans failed to achieve national unity under the old empire; how, nevertheless, through all the period of their divisions, the consciousness of national coherence was strengthening and the "dream of unity" taking shape; how then, between 1815 and 1850, the nation began to awake from the dream of a "great Germany," which should include all German-speaking men, and to accept the idea of a "narrower Germany," with a federal basis and a Prussian apex. In concluding, he considers the nature of the present German Empire, and endeavors to show how beneficent have been the results of political unity in every part of the national life. His view of German history is more interesting than that of the purely political historians, because he goes beneath the political phenomena and searches for the hidden springs of the national development. German legends and poetry, religion and art, reveal the popular sentiments and aspirations; these and the practical needs of trade and industry make much of the political history with which a superficial opinion credits the politicians. In these special fields the author is by no means wholly dependent on the results reached by others. He has long been known as an investigator in the domain of German *Culturgeschichte.*

Jastrow's view of the "mission" of Prussia seems at first glance to coincide with Von Treitschke's. The latter would not hesitate to accept the former's succinct statement of the situation at the middle of the nineteenth century:

> "The rise of the Prussian State had a double significance as regarded the fulfilment of the German dream of unity. It could point to the accomplished fact that 18,000,000 Germans had found within its frontiers that political unity which the other 18,000,000 were still seeking; and at the same time the stock of political power here accumulated was large enough to enable Prussia to assume the long-desired leadership of the nation" (p. 153).

But while Von Treitschke sees only the fact that in its two previous centuries of development the Prussian State had destroyed every independent political authority within its borders, Jastrow points out that the most important local organs, the cities, lost their independence indeed, but received a generous measure of autonomy. They were simply relegated to their proper place in the governmental system of the modern state. And while Von Treitschke hopes and believes that the monarchic element in the new Empire—that is, the imperial power exercised by Prussia—will ultimately destroy the independence of the single States, Jastrow believes that Prussia has reconciled the State-rights idea with the requirements of national unity, as it had previously reconciled self-government in the cities with the unity of the State. To Von Treitschke, Germany is on the road to absolute unity, "ein werdender Einheitsstaat," and federal government is merely a transitional form. To Jastrow the autonomy of the historic States within the Empire is only one degree less important than their union, and to him the federal form now existing is a presumably final form. It is interesting to see how completely each author's interpretation of history is determined by his political ideals. Without attempting to decide which theory is the more plausible, it may be pointed out that Jastrow's view must be much the more acceptable of the two in Saxony and South Germany; and it may be suggested to the Prussian historiographers that insistence upon Von Treitschke's theory will hardly contribute to the smooth working of the present federal institutions.

Jastrow, as we have said, presents a philosophical theory of German history. It should be added that he does not attempt to narrate that history; he assumes that the reader is familiar with it. That such a work should be included in the popular series published by the "Union for German Literature," and that it should have reached a fourth edition in six years, sufficiently disproves the recent assertion of the young Emperor, that his subjects are ignorant of German history. The book has deserved its success, not only by its intrinsic merit, but by a warmth of tone and clearness of statement that are rare in German scientific writing. To the student the forty pages of notes at the end of the volume, with lists of the most important works upon German political, social, and economic history, are of special value. In the present edition these lists are brought fully up to date.

Mr. Whitman's 'Imperial Germany' is dedicated to Prince Bismarck, and the "popular" second edition is prefaced by favorable "opinions" from Prince Bismarck and Count Moltke. It is not surprising that these authorities were pleased with the work, for Mr. Whitman sincerely admires the Prussian monarchy, the German Army, and the ex-Chancellor, and devotes a very eulogistic chapter to each. He finds much to say, also, in favor of paternal government, though he is too good an Englishman not to feel its disadvantages. His study of German conditions has convinced him that a *laissez-faire* policy would ill subserve German interests; and he would obviously like to see Government attempt in England some of the tasks which it performs in Germany, if it could be counted upon to perform them as well. Through all these chapters there runs a steady criticism of things English—so steady and so incisive that one ends by wondering whether Mr. Whitman, like Tacitus, was not moved to write his 'Germany,' in part at least, by the desire to make his own countrymen conscious of their evil estate. In the other portions of the book, which deal with the German people and their political, economic, and social characteristics, the author continues to criticise freely, but his strictures are directed in the main against the Germans. He is sympathetically conscious of their many admirable qualities, but in matters political he finds them disposed to carp unduly and lacking in patriotism; in matters of trade he praises their diligence, but denies to them the originality and inventiveness which characterize English and American manufacturers and merchants; and in matters social he conveys the impression that they are only three-quarters civilized. Like many of his countrymen, and all Americans, he finds the German wife too thoroughly "domesticated." He quotes Heine's saying, "The German husband has no wife, but a servant," and Bismarck's declaration that "our wives are the only ladies we are rude to," as having "more than a passing meaning."

Mr. Whitman's book is anything but objective: it is full of the personal impressions and feelings of the author. But these are by no means without value, for they are obviously the result of long scrutiny of German life by an unusually clear-eyed observer. No ordinary tourist or special correspondent could have written the chapters on "The German Aristocracy" and "The German Philistine." In a book which attempts to cover so wide a field, it is of course easy to pick flaws. In the chapter upon "The Intellectual Life," the list

of notables is open to criticism both as regards the names included and those omitted. The description of German education is superficial and unsatisfactory. But these are minor blemishes.

The style of Mr. Whitman's book is generally easy, if rather careless; but when he falls into metaphor the result is painful. On page 89 we read that "the backbone of the Prussian nation is loath to pin its faith to foreign models of parliamentarism." In the two following sentences the monarch appears as "a beacon-tower" and "a fountain of grace." On page 141 we are told, in a single sentence, that Bismarck's oratorical "periods are nervously jagged and lack rotundity," but that "they fly straight as a dart and . . . pierce the enemy through and through, and thence pursue their winged course right across the country, to be remembered as sledge-hammer blows of conviction," etc.

Mr. Harold Frederic's study of William II. is, from the literary point of view, a well-constructed and uncommonly well-written book. As a contribution to history it is worthless. The material is simple gossip—gossip of the clubs, the cafés, the legations—such as "our regular correspondent" furnishes once a week for a New York newspaper. Some of the statements are probably true, or half true; some are almost certainly false; but it is impossible to separate fact from fiction. Where the author goes back of current gossip to history, his statements are often inexact. He tells us, for example, that the formation of the Ultramontane or "Centre" party was due to the persecution of the Catholics by Bismarck. The fact is, that when this party first appeared in force in the Prussian and Imperial Diets, there had been no change either in the Prussian laws regarding religious associations or in their application; and that the laws and their interpretation were confessedly more favorable to the freedom of the Roman Catholic Church than those of many Catholic States of Europe.

Of course Mr. Frederic, with his trained literary instincts, has appreciated the necessity of building a book on different lines from a weekly letter. There must be a central idea and a plot. The plot which he has selected is one familiar to every reader of fiction. There is a hot-headed but well-meaning young man as the hero, and there is a struggle between his good angel and his bad angel. Bismarck, whom the author cordially detests, makes an excellent Mephistopheles; and all that is unpleasant in the young Emperor's acts or utterances is ascribed to the ex-Chancellor's sinister influence. The good angel, however, is rather an unsatisfactory makeshift. Perhaps the author, embarrassed by the fetters of fact, could find no better person to cast for this rôle; but it must be confessed that the good angel is slightly ridiculous. He is an honest German pedagogue named Hintzpeter, of whom the general public knows only three things. Hintzpeter directed the studies of Prince William until the latter went to the University. About the time that William succeeded to the throne, Hintzpeter published a psychological study of his ex-pupil which was received with general surprise, some annoyance, and a great deal of laughter. In 1889 Hintzpeter was sent by William to the coal-fields of Westphalia and the Rhine Province to investigate the grievances of the miners, tens of thousands of whom were striking. So much is generally known. What is not generally known is, that all that is noblest in William's ideas and aims was implanted in his youthful mind by Hintzpeter; that it is Hintzpeter who has now won him over to the defence of the workingman and the cause of Christian Socialism; that it is Hintzpeter who, by sheer force of nobility and goodness, forced the bad Bismarck out of office, as the angels in the second part of "Faust" drive *Mephistopheles* away with rose leaves. All this it has been reserved for Mr. Frederic to reveal to the world, on the authority of "men who know the Kaiser well."

A Memoir of the Life and Public Service of Joseph E. Johnston. Edited by Bradley T. Johnson. Baltimore: R. H. Woodward & Co. 12mo, pp. viii, 362.

It is hard to find a good reason for the existence of this book. A good memoir of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston would be warmly welcomed. He himself, in his well-known 'Narrative,' gave to the world the most full and authentic history of his military career from his own standpoint. Whatever of authentic details of his youth or his private life could be added to this, would be useful and interesting as illustrating his individuality of character and opinion. His private and public correspondence must contain much that ought not to be lost, because it would help to an understanding of him and the history of his time.

The volume in hand gives us little or no help in either direction. The military part is a not very reliable abridgment of the 'Narrative,' untempered and uncorrected by any apparent study of the official records, now easily accessible to everybody who affects authorship on topics connected with the civil war. A gloss of historical facts from the standpoint of an ultra-partisan in 1865 is certainly an anachronism in 1891. The personality of Gen. Johnston is left untouched except to apply to him, here and there, phrases of overwrought laudation. A few incidents of a more intimate character are found in brief chapters of "Reminiscences" by Gen. D. H. Maury and Col. Archer Anderson. It is impossible to believe that Gen. Johnston's relatives and friends can regard the work as in any sense an adequate memorial of him.

Instead of any information as to Gen. Johnston's opinions regarding the origin and the right of secession in 1861, we have a chapter giving the editor's ideas; in which, after repeating the somewhat familiar fact that Washington was a rebel, he proves him also a secessionist by a novel account of the formation in 1789 of the Constitution of the United States.

"Eleven States," he says, "seceded from the Confederation which by its terms was to be perpetual, and formed a new union which was to be more perfect than the perpetual union which had only lasted ten years. The prime mover in this secession, who presided over the secession convention at Philadelphia, and who signed the act of secession called the Constitution, was George Washington, known to the world and in the hearts of his countrymen as the father of his country"!

His own notion of the great rebellion is this:

"By 1861 the power of government had been usurped by one section, within the letter and in defiance of the spirit and intent of the law; and the minority, in the exercise of those rights by which Anglo-Saxon liberty had been protected and defended for a thousand years, withdrew from that Government, which was no longer their Government, and established a new Union, under an amended and improved Constitution, better suited to the new conditions of society, and better adapted to secure liberty to their posterity."

The editor has never heard that the gigantic struggle between the principles of free labor and slave labor had been going on for half a century, and has not even now learned that it cut any figure in the contest of 1861, for he does not mention it. He is equally ignorant that the preëminent and capital clause in the Montgomery Constitution, which he praises as "better adapted to secure liberty to their posterity," was in these words: "No bill of attainder, *ex-post-facto* law, or law denying or impairing the right of property in negro slaves shall be passed." These stand out upon the parchment with a lurid illumination which blinds all eyes to the rest, so that the world (excepting the editor) reads them alone; he is ignorant that they are there. The living generation of Southern statesmen have with one accord recognized the great truth of the century, that America has taken a long stride in true progress and civilization, so that nothing could induce them now to turn their faces in the direction they faced in 1861. It is a pity that any book can now be written about one of the Southern worthies without a clear recognition of this.

Conscious of the fact that his material relating to Gen. Johnston was insufficient to warrant its publication as a book, the editor has inserted a hundred pages of passionate attack upon Gen. Sherman for his march to the sea and through South Carolina. Johnston was not in military command during that period, and the matter has no more relation to Johnston's biography than to that of Lee or Stonewall Jackson. Here, again, one is forced to wonder at the Rip Van Winkle sleep the editor has indulged in. Since 1865, no man in the nation was more constantly in the popular eye than Sherman, no one was more transparent, no one was more free in speech or used fewer reticences. He went everywhere, South as well as North. Every man in the country (except the editor) knows that he was frank, impulsive, speaking the feeling of the moment with little care for apparent consistency, but acting in all important matters with high and fixed principles. His bluff words were accompanied by kind and sympathetic acts. Meanness, cowardice, cruelty, he abhorred. Peace being made, there was no one whom Southern officers found more ready to do them friendly offices. Johnston knew and felt this; he renewed cordial relations with him; he was one of the chief mourners at his burial. Yet, of all the men in the world, it is Sherman that the editor selects to pad his book with an irrelevant attack the most uncharitable, the most false to characteristics fixed by universal popular knowledge and solid reputation, the most absurdly inconsistent it was possible to make. Not only this, but if true it was most disparaging to Gen. Johnston that he should have renewed his friendship with such a man and followed him mourning to his grave. The climax becomes ludicrous when the effort is made to picture the negotiation at Durham Station, when Johnston surrendered, as evidence of bitter and unscrupulous hatred on Sherman's part towards the South—a negotiation for which Sherman broke with Stanton and Halleck, and declared that no one should violate the faith pledged to those who surrendered except over his body!

Sheridan is made the object of a briefer but not less angry attack, but, comically enough, Grant is warmly eulogized in contrast to his great lieutenants in the very matters for which they are denounced, and for which, in Sheridan's case, at least, he accepted the full responsibility of command, both in his official reports and in his personal memoirs. As if to show that it is the praise and not the abuse which is to be taken in a Pickwickian sense, the appendix gives the evidence that Grant

had interfered to release the editor from arrest for treason in 1866.

We have, perhaps, noticed this book at too great length, but it has seemed necessary to emphasize the fact that the time has passed when writings will be taken as historical which are mere appeals to passions supposed to be buried, and which, even in the circles to which they are addressed, will "make the judicious grieve."

Ocean Steamships. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THIS handsome volume, which is fully illustrated, contains a series of articles printed from time to time in *Scribner's Magazine*, treating of the steamship, its development, construction, machinery, routes, and traffic. The plan is somewhat similar to that adopted by the same publishers for a work upon the American railway, and the articles have been revised since their publication in the magazine and brought down to the present day and to the latest record-breaking of the transatlantic liner.

With the exception of the last article of the book, the treatment of the ocean steamship is almost entirely confined to those engaged in transatlantic trade, and more particularly to steamers sailing to and from the port of New York. This limitation, however, is made only to a certain extent for local reasons, as the transatlantic routes from New York have, by their great importance, peculiar demands, and severe conditions, evolved the highest types of sea-going steamers afloat. Vessels created by the demands of this trade, but superseded by other ships of a later type, can be found performing service in other oceans, and travellers to China, Japan, or New Zealand from some ports of England or the Pacific Coast may find themselves once more upon the decks of a one-time "favorite" Cunarder or White Star liner.

The shortness of the period covering the development of the steamship can be better realized when we read that the same engineer, Mr. John Robertson, who in 1812 placed the engines in the *Comet*, the pioneer steamer in British waters, also superintended their erection in the South Kensington Museum in London as an antiquated object of curious historical interest. A collection of models representing the history of steam navigation in the United States would be an interesting feature for the Columbian Exposition at Chicago, and though a lack of symmetry might be suggested in the absence of an American ocean greyhound, still, models of the latest American cruisers and torpedo boats would show that the skill to create the greyhound was in existence, and the non-existence of this type of commerce-creator could usefully serve to point a moral and adorn a tale.

The marvellous economy which the inventive ingenuity of the present generation has created in the propulsion of the modern steamship can be somewhat appreciated when the statement is made that a half-sheet of note-paper will develop sufficient power, when burned in connection with the triple-expansion engine, to carry a ton a mile in a transatlantic steamer. How an economy so great as this is to be still further increased and to go hand-in-hand with increased speed, seems a very difficult problem for solution. Little more improvement can be expected in the model of hull; the solution lies more probably in improved machinery and steam generators, in modes of propulsion, and in the use of more efficient and compact fuel. The development of engines of the quadruple-expansion type may do something, new systems of forced draught may prove more efficient and less destructive than those in use, and the use of petroleum (or rather the residuum of petroleum) may be made more practicable and safe; but it is doubtful if more than two propellers will add much to existing speed and outweigh the disadvantages presented. To those who expect much from the new cruisers designed to use three propellers, let us commend the words of the Engineer-in-Chief of the U. S. Navy, who says: "Knowing that it was extremely improbable that shafting of the great size necessary to transmit this enormous power to twin-screws could be obtained in this country, either in reasonable time or with any guarantee as to its strength, the Bureau decided to depart from the usual practice and to divide the power into three parts instead of two, each being developed by a separate engine driving its own screw. . . . It is not supposed by the Bureau that three screws will prove a more efficient mode of propulsion than two; on the contrary, it believes that, except for the highest power, they will prove slightly less efficient, but its reasons for adopting them have already been given."

The first article of the book before us is upon the development of the steamship, by Commander Chadwick, U. S. N. This leads us from the steamers *Clermont* and *Comet*, the latter forty feet long on the keel, to the *City of Paris*, the *Teutonic*, and the twin-screw *Touraine* of 11,675 tons displacement. This increase of size is not likely to end here, as already ship-builders are offering to build a vessel guaranteed to cross the Atlantic in five days, having a length of 630 feet, and with 33,000 indicated horse-power. The fastest passage given is that of the *Teutonic* in August last, in 5 days, 16 hours, and 31 minutes, at the average rate of 20.35 knots an hour. It may be of interest to state that the speed and capacity of the *Teutonic*, and also of her sister ship, the *Majestic*, are such that she can steam from Portsmouth, England, to Bombay, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, in twenty-two days without coaling on the way. The distance is over ten thousand miles, and the significance of the fact lies in the future utility of vessels like these as Indian transports, in the event of the route by the way of the Suez Canal being closed in time of war.

The article upon the building of the ocean greyhound, though by a non-professional, is clearly and well written, and cannot fail to be instructive. That of Lieut. Kelly, U. S. N., upon the ship's company is especially readable and spirited, written as it is with all the buoyancy and *bonhomie* so characteristic of its author. With the least promising of subjects, he has given us one of the best of the series. Mr. Rideing's article upon the dangers and the safety on board of the Atlantic liner brings out in prominence, as it should, the element of danger involved in foggy or thick weather, and should serve to calm the impatience of the passenger who is suddenly shut out of port by a heavy fog or snow-storm. No tradition of the sea is better founded than that shown by the antagonistic feeling existing towards those who profess to be good "fog pilots"; they are, indeed, a delusion and a snare. Much, very much, has been done to render steamship navigation safe; but nothing can eliminate the necessity for vigilance, or relieve the feelings of care and anxiety that at times press heavily upon the commander of an ocean steamer. The record of the year 1890, however, speaks eloquently of the efficiency and good management of the transatlantic service. Nearly 2,000 trips were made from New York, about 200,000 cabin passengers were carried to and fro, and nearly 372,000 immigrants landed without accident.

The inception of one of the great steamship lines of the world was due to an American—William Wheelwright—who was the father of the project which led to the establishment of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, with its various routes and many steamers. Now that the unfriendly attitude of the Chilian people towards Americans of the North has become so prominent a topic of the day, it is of interest to note that of the three public statues erected to individuals in Valparaiso, one honors the memory of Wheelwright, to whom Chili owes so much for the promotion and introduction of steamship, railroad, and telegraphic communication.

With all of the achievements of the ocean steamship so graphically depicted in these pages, and with all of the interest and pleasure aroused by a contemplation of the wonderful improvements created by human ingenuity, comes an unavoidable regret that our own flag flies over so few ocean steamers, and over none that are peers of the modern transatlantic liners; and this in spite of the fact that our foreign commerce was never greater than now. A ship, either of the navy or mercantile marine, is peculiarly a representative of the nationality to which it belongs, and with the national pride that we all should have exists the desire to see the flag flying upon ships the equals of any afloat. Neither the skill nor the capital is now lacking to obtain or manage these, and it is to be hoped that the fiscal laws that prevent our steamship lines from equalling in efficiency and importance our great railways may speedily come to an end.

Seas and Lands. By Sir Edwin Arnold. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS reprint of the letters sent by Sir Edwin Arnold to the *Daily Telegraph* of London during a trip to Japan for rest and recreation, appears in the form of a handsome ornamental octavo volume. The book is an excellent specimen of mechanical work, and is well illustrated and indexed. The letters describe the people and country, especially in and around the Canadian, American, and Japanese capitals. Ten are devoted to America and thirty to Japan. The author's style is bright, sparkling, and touched with the emotion of the moment, so that each letter, now transformed into a chapter, is exceedingly readable. Sir Edwin seems to be at home in addressing an audience of Harvard students, a company of Japanese editors, a bevy of Buddhist priests, or in lecturing in a missionary university. He is sure to say something that pleases each audience, though apparently not over-careful to make his various statements harmonize.

One example of several, which we noticed in his letters when first printed in the *Telegraph*, and which we expected to find pruned out in the published volumes, is his allusion at Harvard to the Pilgrim ship *Mayflower*. "Do you know," said he (p. 110), "that the *Mayflower* which brought your ancestors thither (*sic*) went down in Indian waters off Masulipatam?" This suggestive remark, in the form of a question—an echo of Sir George Birdwood's—was given further publicity by the American, Mr. Henry Stevens, in his volume on 'The Dawn of British Trade to the East Indies.' It is many months, however, since Sir George Birdwood, in his second edi-

tion of 'Old Records of the India Office,' has shown, on the testimony of a contemporaneous entry, that the *Mayflower* which foundered off the coast of Coromandel was a ship of between two hundred and eighty and three hundred tons. The consort of the *Speedwell* from Southampton to Land's End was probably an old ship in 1620, since she nearly went to pieces on the Atlantic, and had to be held together with a good piece of Dutch hardware from Delft. To say nothing of a vessel built of ordinary English timber lasting until 1659, the famous *Mayflower* was of but one hundred and eighty tons burden, or with less room on board than many an Erie canal boat.

While among us, Sir Edwin visited our "good grey poets," Whittier and Whitman, and his narrative of experiences with these and with humbler folk is thoroughly enjoyable, albeit the description of the Camden interior is said by the less other-worldly to be worthy of the author's warm imagination. In Canada, also, Sir Edwin came in contact with the singers, and graces his pages with their poetic gems. In Japan he lost his heart, and his strain of praise is constant and without a break. The women captivated him, and of the scores of illustrations, in the text or full-page, the majority picture women in every pose, of various estates, and in all kinds and quantities of array. Apparently he saw few or none of the shadows of life in Japan, and his rhapsody and pæan is one which Japanese husbands and fathers, to say nothing of the wives and daughters, would read with interest. Strange as it may seem, a good many of the native editors who listened to the flatteries of their brother of the pen, did not enjoy the sort of stroking which Sir Edwin gave them. Certainly in Tokio, these flatteries comported ill with the intense seriousness of the native editors, reformers, and literary men. It is true that the author's 'Light of Asia' was, as he states, translated into Japanese, but the original and the translation bear the same relation to each other as a living man to a ghost.

The real fact of the matter, and one which cannot be disguised, is, that the intellectual Japanese who has come to himself, and entered even partially into that estate of self-consciousness so characteristic of the European, is profoundly dissatisfied with the low estate of his country and people. He knows that all this fulsome talk of writers like Sir Edwin Arnold can atone but little for the intellectual poverty of his language and literature. Having entered into the new world of ideas born in Europe, he feels that compliments about his art, poetry, politeness, and the assurance that he and his daughter are the most charming beings on earth, have a touch of irony. He does not even hesitate to question their sincerity, or if he believe them to be genuine, as they often undoubtedly are, he regards them as condescension. His ambition is to see and think like an Occidental. To him, compliments about what he deems trivialities are little relished, or at least less so than might superficially appear. It may be, indeed, that the genuine appreciativeness of a small minority of foreigners, and the large popular demand for their cheap art-products, will stimulate the Japanese to set greater store upon their undoubted gifts and good qualities. To the intellectual and more earnest Japanese, however, the severe but kindly criticisms of Prof. Chamberlain, for example, are more welcome and helpful than lavish compliment.

The author's descriptions of nature, people, and politics make fascinating reading. More than any other visitor to Japan he dwells upon the art and poetry, the quaint conceits, lovely manners, and dainty decoration of the Japanese. He will delight thousands of readers, and none the less because of the charm of his style than because he gives but one side—the beautiful side—of a country and people whom to see is to like, if not to love. The final chapters of the book convey information concerning Japan's politics, army, Parliament, foreign relations, and need of treaty revision, which ought to be prized in England. On his homeward voyage past Sumatra Sir Edwin passed the Dutch blockading vessels. His version of the Acheen war and the present situation between Netherlander and Malay is characteristic of a thorough-going believer in the blessings of British rule in Asia.

The Ancestral Dictionary. Edited by John Osborne Austin. Providence: Published by the Author. 1891.

THIS is the third and the smallest of the works with which Mr. Austin has illustrated the genealogy of his native State, but it is in close relation with his great 'Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island' and his valuable 'Ancestry of Thirty-three Rhode Islanders born in the Eighteenth Century.' From folio he now descends to octavo form, and tabulates the pedigree for three generations of sixty-four persons, of whom five-sixths are Rhode Islanders, and the rest nearly all have Rhode Island affiliations. Twenty of them are still living, the editor among them; forty-three died in the present century (the first and fourth decades excepted), and but one in the last century. No reason is assigned for the selection, and it is clear that this sort of work could be multiplied indefinitely, like the Messrs. Munsell's series of 'American Ancestry.' In fact, one merit of this Dictionary is that it furnishes at the end a number of blank tables to be filled in *ad libitum* by the possessor.

Some of the better known of Mr. Austin's subjects are Gen. T. L. Casey, Rowland R. Hazard (1792–1874), Edward Harris, Sarah Helen (Power) Whitman, and Dr. Henry E. Turner. Altogether, the 64 in their ascent involve most of the prominent families of Rhode Island, as the 275 surnames of the index show. Miss Betsey Williams (1790–1871) represents, not alone, the stock of Roger Williams, whose descendants for five generations were so fully set forth in the 'Thirty-three Rhode Islanders.' Two at least derive also from the much-married and prolific daughter of Lewis Latham, that cheerful old centenarian (1555–1655), falconer to Charles I., whose progeny was exhibited in the same work. An authentic portrait of him has been selected by Mr. Austin for a frontispiece, and has a curious interest.

Nothing but praise can be bestowed on Mr. Austin's part in this convenient form of family record. His arrangement is clear and tasteful, and his accuracy extreme as always.

Delagoa Bay, its Natives and Natural History. By Rose Monteiro. With 20 original illustrations. London: G. Philip & Son. 1891. Pp. xii, 274. 8vo.

IT would be difficult to find a parallel instance to the life of which this book is a portrayal. For the sake, mainly, of collecting insects, the author, an English lady, spent five years in a cottage a little distance from Lourenço Marques, the Portuguese town at the head of Delagoa Bay, with none but Kafirs for her companions, sometimes absolutely alone, and enduring cheerfully very considerable toil and privation. Her self-sacrifice in the interest of science was, however, not without its reward, for in summing up her work she says: "Many new insects in all classes have fallen to my share, too many to be enumerated here. There is even a new *genus* among the grasshoppers." The earlier chapters of her book contain bright and animated descriptions of her house and its surroundings, and the record of a day's occupations. These consisted of at least seven hours of collecting, the remainder of the day being devoted to preparing the specimens, feeding her caterpillars and other captive animals, as well as providing for her own scanty wants. According to her account, the attractions of her home could not have been very great even to an enthusiastic entomologist, for it was the abiding-place of countless snakes, scorpions, centipedes, lizards, cockroaches, to say nothing of mosquitoes, spiders, flies, ants of all kinds, and swarms of fleas. As her excursions for insects were confined to the immediate neighborhood of her house, she saw comparatively little of the wild natives, so that her references to those living near the coast contain little that is fresh or worthy of note. A possible exception should be made of an interesting tradition related to her by a Kafir "boy," as to the cause of the subordination of the black to the white race. The greater part of the book, however, is devoted to a description of the appearance and habits of the birds and insects dwelling in the bush which surrounded her cottage, as well as of the numerous flowering plants. This is at times done admirably and with unusual literary skill, and again at times in the monotonous way characteristic of a scientific catalogue. There are only a few references to the Portuguese and their relations to the country, and these are all distinctly unfavorable. From pure lack of energy and enterprise, the Portuguese appear to be doing nothing effectually to develop the resources of an exceptionally rich territory, which is suffering chiefly from the lack of a sufficient population. The book is very attractive in its appearance, with peculiarly graceful headpieces to the chapters, showing the various insects of the region and their nests.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allin, Rev. T. Universalism Asserted. London: Elliot Stock.
Ball, Sir R. The Cause of an Ice Age. [Modern Science Series.] D. Appleton & Co.
Bangs, J. K. Fiddledywink Tales. New York: R. H. Russell & Son.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. A Rose of a Hundred Leaves. A Love Story. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Bates, Arlo. The Poet and his Self. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Bowden, E. M. The Imitation of Buddha: Quotations from Buddhist Literature for each Day in the Year. London: Methuen & Co.
Broughton, Rhoda, and Bisland, Elizabeth. A Widower Indeed. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Three Vassar Girls in the Tyrol. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Chatterbox for 1891–92. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Clark, Kate McC. A Southern Cross Fairy Tale. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Collingwood, W. G. The Art Teaching of John Ruskin. London: Percival & Co.
Conway, Prof. W. M. Dawn of Art in the Ancient World. London: Percival & Co.
Dawson, W. J. The Redemption of Edward Strahan: A Social Story. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Drake, S. A. The Battle of Gettysburg. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Dufferin, Marchioness of. My Canadian Journal, 1872–78. D. Appleton & Co.
Dumas, Alexandre. Le Chevalier d'Harmenthal. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
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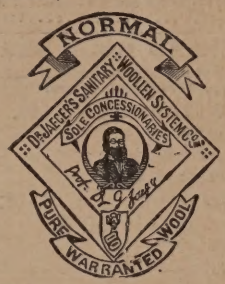

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 10, 1891.

The Week.

MR. CRISP of Georgia, the new Speaker of the House of Representatives, is a man of dignity, culture, and abilities of a high order. Our own preferences, while the contest was going on, were with the supporters of Mr. Mills, but they were grounded wholly upon the idea that Mr. Mills was entitled to the distinction by reason of his services in the cause of tariff reform. We have not believed at any time, nor do we now believe, that Judge Crisp is one whit less earnest in that cause than Mr. Mills, although his services have been less conspicuous. But it is said, or is believed, by some that Mr. Crisp represents radical and dangerous opinions on the silver question. If this were true, probably Mr. Bland of Missouri, who has led the free-coinage Democrats for more than twelve years, would have voted for Mr. Crisp, but in fact he voted for Mr. Mills. We consider this a decisive test, and the best assurance that can be obtained in advance that Mr. Crisp is not a dangerous character, and that his election is not an omen of evil. But there is a better guarantee still, and that is the necessities of the situation. If Judge Crisp is a cool observer of political events, if he has a mind broad enough to take in the entire horizon, he must see that the Democratic party is in danger of breaking in two on this silver question, and that the only way to hold it together is to make a political issue for next year on which all members of the party can agree, and to avoid making one on which they must inevitably split. If Mr. Crisp cannot see this, he is blind indeed. The lesson taught by the autumn elections is, that the Democrats cannot carry a single Northern State east of the Rocky Mountains by adopting a free-coinage platform, or by passing a free-coinage bill in the present House. The truth is, that the Democratic party has a halter about its neck, just as the Republicans had when the McKinley tariff was pending. It can hang itself on the first tree it comes to, as the Republicans did last year. Speaker Crisp is now the most influential personage in shaping the issues of 1892. Let nobody assume that he is going to wreck the fair prospects of his party either by a radical silver policy, or by a reactionary tariff policy, or by engineering his office for or against any Presidential candidate.

There has been one feature of the Speakership contest over which all right-minded men of both parties must rejoice. The sectional question has practically cut no figure in it. The elections of 1890 resulted in such sweeping Democratic victories throughout the North that, for the first time, a majority of the Democratic Representatives in the House come from this part of the country. In other words, if the Southern vote had been solid on the Speakership question, a union of the Northern Democrats upon any one of their number would have given him a majority of the party caucus. There was at first considerable talk as to the wisdom of taking the Speaker from the North, purely upon grounds of partisan advantage in the approaching Presidential contest. The theory was, that it might prejudice the chances of the Democratic ticket next year if a Southerner—and particularly a "Confederate brigadier"—should be made Speaker, and so given large control over the course of legislation during the session of Congress. There was a certain plausibility in this theory, and one does not need to go back a great many years to reach a time when it was as sound as it was plausible. But the situation is now entirely changed, and the strongest support which Mr. Mills received came from that corner of the North where the sectional issue used to carry most weight.

We find the following announcement printed prominently—"flying at the mast-head" is, we believe, the proper expression—in many Republican organs:

"THE HOPE OF THE PARTY.

"The hope of the party lies in the expansion of a stalwart Republican press. The Republican who reads or otherwise helps to support a Democratic journal to the exclusion of one of his own party newspapers is untrue to the Republican cause.

"Unanimously subscribed to by the National Republican League.

"J. S. CLARKSON, President.
"A. B. HUMPHREY, Secretary.

"NEW YORK, November 19, 1891."

It would be hard to imagine a more humiliating confession of the party's weakness. It is an undoubted fact, which Clarkson himself has admitted repeatedly, that a great many more people read Democratic or independent journals now than ten years ago; but an old newspaper man like him knows that they cannot be driven back by any such appeals as this. The trouble is not with the former readers of Republican papers, but with the makers of those papers. The "stalwart Republican press" of to-day is not what these readers want, and a man buys a newspaper for no other reason than that it is the sort of newspaper he wants. If he does not like it, all the pleadings of a "National Republican League" will never persuade him to subscribe for it.

If the American Consul at Valparaiso really advised Commander Schley, as a despatch to the *Evening Post* asserts, not to allow his men to go ashore in the then excited state of Chilian feeling, the Commander took on himself a heavy responsibility in giving "liberty" to any portion of the crew of the *Baltimore* in a place already notorious, even in quiet times, for "sailor fights." Secretary Tracy says in his report:

"Two weeks had passed since the surrender of Valparaiso to the Congressionalist leaders, and the city was quiet. Other foreign warships in the harbor had already given liberty to their crews, and no reason existed for withholding a like privilege from the crew of the *Baltimore*."

Two weeks from the close of a bloody civil war, in which the American Navy was accused of having sympathized with and aided the unpopular side, was certainly not enough to remove all danger of scrimmages. Other foreign ships might have given liberty to their crews, but there was no such feeling towards other foreign crews in the breasts of the Chilian mob, and this, with all respect to Secretary Tracy, *was* "a reason for withholding a like privilege from the crew of the *Baltimore*." Of course it might be said, and doubtless is said by the Jingoes, that the American Navy ought not to be prevented from doing on Chilian soil whatever other navies do, through fear of "a lot of dagoes." The answer to this is, that nobody comes so near insulting the American Navy as those who think it should show by some kind of bravado that it is not afraid of the Chilians. Chili is a small State, from the conquest of which, brave as the people are, the United States could not get enough glory to fill a sailor's tobacco-pipe. One of the luxuries of being as rich and strong as we are is the luxury of being forbearing and considerate in our treatment of the weak and unfortunate. The Chilians just now are both, and even if they are accusing our naval officers unjustly, we can well afford to overlook it while they are burying their dead and restoring their Government. Patience with them is still more incumbent on us if there be any foundation, even slight, for the belief that our men-of-war in any manner helped or encouraged Balmaceda.

The Chilian papers have published a telegram, found among Balmaceda's effects, which is of especial interest to Americans in general and Admiral Brown in particular. As that officer is supposed to be now in Washington, engaged in the easy task of proving how scrupulously neutral he showed himself in the course of the civil war in Chili, we should say that a prompt explanation of this telegram would be the next thing in order:

"VALPARAISO, August 21, 1891—9:36 A. M.
"MR. PRESIDENT: The American Admiral has left me only this moment, and he believes, as I do, that a reëmbarkation is not possible.
"VIEL."

It is necessary to recall the situation in order to understand the significance of this despatch. The day before, August 20, the insurgents, whose war-ships had been hovering off the coast for several days, were reported to be landing at Quintero Bay. In the afternoon Admiral Brown went up to that locality in the *San Francisco* observed the disembarkation, and returned to Valparaiso about five o'clock. He has denied that any infor-

mation about the Congressionalists was given out by himself or any of his crew, although a Valparaiso paper is in evidence to the contrary, as we have before shown. However that may have been, here is the testimony of this telegram to show that he himself was ashore very early the next morning, conferring with the Intendente of Valparaiso, and giving him most valuable information. We say most valuable, because it was highly important for Balmaceda to know whether the Congressionalists were really landing in force at Quintero, or were simply making a feint there, in order to get him to concentrate his troops at the wrong point and leave them free to strike elsewhere. Admiral Brown, according to this telegram, assured Viel, of course on the basis of what he had seen the afternoon before, that the disembarkation was a genuine one. After that, Balmaceda knew just where to mass his troops, which he at once proceeded to do, with results which all the world knows.

As these pieces of evidence reach the light, one after the other, it becomes more and more clear that the strict neutrality which our naval and diplomatic officers now indignantly say they observed throughout, is an afterthought. They were all infatuated with the idea that Balmaceda was going to win, and never dreamed of being called to account for what they thought would be happy strokes to extend American influence in Chili after the revolution was suppressed. What they are sure of is, that they did not mean to do anything to offend the winning side, and, as they now look back upon their shrewd efforts to make themselves and their Government "solid" with the side they were certain was going to succeed, they easily persuade themselves that their conduct was virtuous and neutral because it was intended to be so patriotic. How thoroughly they were all committed to Balmaceda's cause is well indicated in the talk of the *San Francisco's* officers even now. Since their return to this country, more than one of them has railed at the Congressionalists and their English friends in the most approved Jingo fashion. This shows what was the prevailing tone of the daily conversations in the mess-room.

However other people may hope the Supreme Court will decide the question of the constitutionality of the reciprocity clause of the McKinley tariff, now before it, the one man who ought devoutly to pray that the clause may be declared unconstitutional is President Harrison. If allowed to stand, it lays a duty upon him which is enough to fill with consternation any one not conscious of omniscience. It says that

"On and after the first day of January, 1892, whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied that the Government of any country producing and exporting sugars, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, raw or uncured, or any of such articles, imposes duties or other exactions upon the agricultural or other products of the United States, which, in view of the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides into the United States, he may deem to be reciprocally *unequal* and *unreasonable*, he shall have the power, and it *shall be his duty*, to suspend, by proclamation to that effect, the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, the production of such country, for such time as he shall deem just, etc."

This is easy to read, but consider what it really means. It means that the President must make himself accurately acquainted with the tariffs and other forms of taxation of nearly every country on the globe. The glib "such country" of the statute expands itself, in fact, into forty-seven countries, embracing every South American republic, with the possible exception of Bolivia (Brazil, of course, is excluded by having made a reciprocity agreement), all the Central American countries and Mexico, British, French, and Dutch Guiana and British Honduras, Danish, Dutch, French, and British West Indies, and the British Possessions of North America, French and British Possessions in Africa and adjacent islands, British Possessions in Australasia, Dutch and British East Indies, all the leading countries in Europe except Russia, and, among the smaller Powers, Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway, Italy, Portugal, and Turkey, together with Liberia, China, Japan, and the unnumbered isles of the sea. The reciprocity arrangements already completed with Brazil, Spain, and San Domingo, took several months each for negotiation, special commissioners being all that time engaged in considering the intricate problems connected with international exchanges; but under this law the President is expected to decide the matter off-hand, not for three but for forty-seven countries. No wonder that he has announced a cutting down of social entertainments at the White House. He may even have to give up the regular New Year's Day reception if this imperious law, telling him what is "his duty" "on and after January 1, 1892," is allowed to stand.

Gov. Hill's speech on bimetallism at Elmira on Friday evening would seem to be the product of one who had lost his wits, if we did not know that a great many men who are perfectly sane "wander in their minds" on this question, simply because they are not familiar with the history and underlying principles of the subject. Mr. Hill is not crazy, but, if he had charge of the national finances, everybody else would be so very soon. What the man can mean by the following paragraphs, which we find in the authorized report of his speech, we fail to understand:

"In other and better words, throughout the world, all silver and all gold, unified by free bimetallic coinage so long dislocated by its cessation in 1873, moved towards each other (while men's hopes of its competent renewal lasted) over two-thirds of the present breadth of that dislocation."

"I admit that a well planned, well-guarded, competent, free bimetallic coinage would instantly compass the whole breadth of that dislocation, and renew and establish a right ratio of the two money metals."

"But the menaced veto would probably prevent the recurrence now of that most extraordinary and instructive phenomenon which I have described, and thus obscure its true significance."

"Yet I would not shift the silver issue from an evil to its remedy. Let us deal with Mr. Sherman's domestic damming and drowning before we discuss his fears of foreign inundation from Indian bangles and China teapots after all silver in all nations stands, there as here, at the old historic rated level with gold, fixed by competent free bimetallic coinage."

There are plenty of cranks who write in this way, and some of them have seats in the United States Senate. It is discouraging to think that their number is to be augmented by one, and that one from the Empire State.

The eighth annual report of the Civil-Service Commission presents abundant evidence of the steady progress which the merit system is making, despite all the obstacles put in its way by the spoilsmen. Every year brings a few more offices within the operation of the law, by reason of the number of employees reaching the limit of forty; and "the classified civil service," which is the phrase applied to that part of it under the law, now contains 84,000, or about one fourth of the whole number. This total includes an overwhelming majority of the clerks in the great Washington departments and the bulk of the employees in the post-offices and custom-houses of all the large cities in the country. The most important extension of the system during the past year has been its application to the superintendents, teachers, matrons, and physicians in the Indian service—626 in all. There is no place where the reform was more needed. An important alteration of the rules has been that allowing the establishment of competitive examinations for promotion within the classified service, which, it is hoped, will "eradicate the lingering remnants of the patronage theory within the classified service proper." Since the report was written, the President has issued an order directing that in each department "a plan be at once devised and put in operation for keeping an efficiency record of all persons within the classified service, with a view to placing promotions wholly upon the basis of merit." Another notable change has been the abolition of the provision allowing the promotion of persons in the non-classified service to positions in the classified service after non-competitive examination. With these changes the system is theoretically almost perfect, and its practical operation is given unqualified praise by the Commission.

Conclusive proof of the impartiality with which examinations are conducted is afforded by the statement that "in all probability the great bulk of the white men appointed from the Southern, and especially from the Gulf, States during the last year were, in political faith, opposed to the present Administration." Moreover, the question of race, as well as of politics, has been eliminated by the examinations in the Southern States. A fair proportion of the men appointed from these States has been colored, and many of these successful colored applicants were graduates of the colleges or other higher institutions of learning established for their race.

"They were," the report says, "for the most part, well-educated, self-respecting, intelligent young men and women who, having graduated from their colored schools and colleges, found but few avenues open for the employment of their talents," and the Commissioners rightly consider it "impossible to overestimate the boon to these colored men and women of being given the chance to enter the Government service on their own merits in fair competition with white and colored alike." It is such evidence as this of the really democratic nature of the reform which helps forward the day of its complete triumph. It is, as the Commissioners say, "the cause of honest government and decent political life, the cause of Abraham Lincoln's 'plain people' —as against the cause of that most noxious body, the oligarchy of professional office-holders and office-seekers." The report quotes the emphatic testimony to the superiority of the system given during the past year by Secretaries Windom, Noble, and Tracy, presiding over departments which have many thousands of employees. Deserved praise, by the way, is given to Secretary Tracy for having himself applied the merit system to the navy-yards —a work which the Commission could not well have taken up. The only discouraging feature of the situation, indeed, is the way in which the Commission is hampered for lack of sufficient funds. The spoilsmen no longer expect to repeal the law, but they gratify their spite by cutting down the appropriations for the Commission as low as they can. But it is only a question of time when they will lack strength even for this species of mischief, as public sentiment grows more pronounced in favor of the system.

The report of Treasury receipts and expenditures for November completes the record for five months of the fiscal year. Those five months stand for the period during which the McKinley tariff has been in full force, the tin-plate clause not going into effect until July 1. As compared with the same months in 1890, the revenue from customs has fallen off $36,245,876, or at the rate of $86,989,100 annually. The total receipts of the Treasury are less by $39,464,092 than they were in the corresponding time last year, at which rate the diminution in the revenue for the entire year would amount to $94 233 816. How the Treasury manages to keep a big deficit off the books so far is entirely apparent from an inspection of the expenditures that are reported. They are held down $45,000,000 below what they were in the same months last year. Thus, on the score of pensions, where $66,348,454 was paid out in the first five months of the last fiscal year, only $48,200,458 has been paid this year, although the appropriation was increased. So it is all around. If the expenditures held back were a clear saving, no one could complain; but they represent deferred payments. The creditors will have to get their money some time. The appropriations for the current year call for an outlay at the rate of $227,000,000 in five months; but there has actually been paid out in that time only $144,196,862. If this goes on, the receipts for the fiscal year will be $188,000,000 short of the appropriations.

Mr. Goschen has made further explanations of his new plan for increasing the gold reserve of the Bank of England by the issue of one-pound notes. The present issue of Bank of England notes uncovered by gold is about £16,500,000. This is a variable quantity and an increasing one, since the act of 1844 gave to the Bank the right of succession to the note issues of all the country banks that should go into liquidation or surrender their circulation. In all such cases the Bank of England has the right to issue an additional amount of notes equal to those "falling in" by the demise of the country banks. Such notes are issued against Government securities. The remaining note issue, an average of about £21,500,000, is made against deposited gold, just like our own gold certificates. Mr. Goschen's plan for the issue of one-pound notes allows such notes to be issued on the basis of four-fifths gold and one-fifth Government securities; that is to say, for every 5,000 of such notes the Bank must have and hold £4,000 gold and £1,000 consols. Probably the reason for this is that the Bank must have some little profit in order to pay the expenses of the new business. It is no advantage to the Bank to buy gold with its notes if it cannot do anything with the gold but sit on it. But if it can draw a small rate of interest on one-fifth of the notes so issued, probably the business can be made self-sustaining. Another proviso is that, if the amount of notes of all kinds outstanding should reach £88,000,000, any further issue must be fully covered by gold. When this limit is reached, the state of the circulation will be about as follows:

Notes.	Gold.
£16,500,000 against securities	
21,500,000	£21,500,000
50,000.000—4-5 gold	40,000,000
£88,000,000	£61,500,000

This is 70 per cent. of gold and 30 per cent. of Government securities. It cannot be considered a radical measure, but its real import lies in the fact that this stock of gold is the ultimate banking-reserve of the United Kingdom, with upwards of £600,000,000 of deposits, all payable in gold on demand. For that amount of demand liabilities, £61,500,000 of gold does not seem too large, but it will probably be found ample. On the whole, Mr. Goschen's plan is an attractive one, and it has the further merit of putting a check upon the abrasion of gold coin, which has become a serious evil.

At recent sittings of both the Austro-Hungarian Delegations and the Austrian Reichsrath, Count Kálnoky and Count Taaffe have been endeavoring to allay the alarming war rumors which so suddenly gained credence in Vienna, and led to a panic on the Boerse recalling the crash of 1873. There was something ludicrous in Kálnoky's attempt to prove that the Emperor's speech to the Delegations had been misinterpreted not only in Vienna but also in Berlin, Paris, and London, and in his assurance that the present political situation was not fraught with imminent danger, but was a "relatively" satisfactory one. Even more difficult was the task of Count Taaffe, the Austrian Premier, who had to face no fewer than seven interpellations by the representatives of as many factions of the Reichsrath, on the subject of the panic. Its immediate cause was the statement of the Vienna *Tagblatt* that the Emperor had told one of the Polish leaders, Herr Jaworski, who pleaded for the local control of the Galician railroads, that strategic reasons made it necessary to place them under the control of the general Government, and that the famine in Russia and the result of the loan rendered the political situation a very grave one. The accuracy of this version of the Emperor's speech was maintained by the *Tagblatt* even after the Government had denied its truth, and Count Taaffe has ordered the prosecution of that journal, which is also being called to account by the authorities of the Boerse and by the Polish members of the Reichsrath, who somehow consider their honor involved in this matter.

This typically Austrian muddle is rendered complete by the fact that whatever importance the utterance of the *Tagblatt* possessed was due to its supposed relations to Taaffe, who seems to have occasionally used that otherwise insignificant sheet as his semi-official mouthpiece. The Poles, moreover, whose spokesman was among those who interpellated the Government, now find themselves to a certain extent in a position of antagonism to Taaffe, whose stanchest supporters they have hitherto been; without them, in fact, he could not obtain a working majority, even if he were to make his peace with the German Liberals. He attempted to placate the latter some time ago by the appointment of Dr. Steinbach to the Ministry of Finance, and it is not unlikely that he may now, after the declared failure of all his attempts to "reconcile" the Czechs, reconstruct his entire Cabinet in accordance with the demands of the German Liberals. The newspapers of that party, at all events, are greatly elated over the remark of the Minister of Public Instruction, Dr. Gautsch, in the course of a debate on school reform in the Reichsrath, that knowledge of the German language was indispensable to every intelligent Austrian citizen. This apparently harmless truism, uttered at the time when the excitement over the Emperor's speech was at its height, provoked a great outburst of indignation on the part of the Slovens, who aim at a political and lingual supremacy in Carniola and Carinthia equal to that which the Czechs arrogate to themselves in Bohemia. The Hotspurs of the party now threaten to insist on the full recognition of Slovenic "State right." One deputy even demanded the impeachment of the Minister for his seditious talk about the importance of the German language.

A NON-PARTISAN JUDICIARY.

THE conduct of our State courts in the various contested-election cases has been such as to strengthen public confidence in their ability to decide such contests without partisan prejudice. Three of the four judges who have had most to do with the cases have been Democrats; yet they have in all their decisions gone squarely against the claims and schemes of Gov. Hill and his chief agent, Assistant Attorney-General Maynard. It is through the decisions of these three judges that all efforts to steal control of the Legislature have been defeated, and the people of the State are indebted to them for the fact that all the contests will be decided finally in the courts, and decided justly.

The most sweeping decision rendered in any of the cases was that of Justice Barnard at Poughkeepsie, on Saturday, in the Deane-Osborne contest of the Fifteenth Senatorial District. This was the case in which Deane, the Republican candidate, who died soon after election, had a clear majority on the face of the returns, but was counted out, while Osborne was counted in, by the action of the Democratic majority of the County Canvassing Board in rejecting as illegal a number of Republican ballots which had a printer's mark on them. It was claimed by the Democrats that this mark was put on for the purpose of identifying the ballots, but it was perfectly obvious that it was due to carelessness in printing. Judge Barnard's decision is of great importance as defining the powers of canvassing boards. He said:

"A Board of County Canvassers has no power to refuse to count marked ballots. It is true that the Ballot-Reform Law declares ballots marked for a certain purpose to be void. The duty of the canvassers is to ascertain the votes given for the candidates only, and the law requires the marked ballots to be counted, and the accurate results of the votes declared, as if the ballots were not marked. There is a proceeding under which any candidate may test the legality of a marked ballot, but the County Canvassers cannot find the evil intent which destroys the ballot, and then refuse to count it. There has, therefore, been concededly an error in the count for Senator for the Fifteenth District. The marked ballots, if counted, would elect Mr. Deane, the opponent of Mr. Osborne. If Mr. Deane were alive, presumably he would apply for a writ of mandamus to correct the mistake. I think that his death did not deprive the people of all remedy. The result of the mistake remains, and the proper count is all that is necessary to reach a correct result. The death of Mr. Deane does not prevent any elector from setting the law in motion to correct the mistake. The order staying the State Canvassers is right. It is incident to the relief sought by the writ of mandamus. The State Board has a return which does not indicate the true result. It is proper that the Board should hold its hand until the true record reaches it. Motion granted."

At the very moment when Justice Barnard, a Democrat, was delivering this opinion, Gov. Hill was going through the farce of examining the Clerk of Dutchess County, before removing him, for refusing to sign the tabulation of returns which the Justice was declaring illegal. The Governor had removed one county clerk for such refusal, though the Supreme Court had issued a mandamus subsequently ordering him not to sign the tabulation, and a Democratic justice had concurred in issuing the mandamus. In giving his reasons for the first removal, the Governor declared the Dutchess County Clerk guilty before he had given him a hearing. By persisting in his determination to remove him, he has had to fly in the face of adverse decisions from two Democratic justices of the Supreme Court, and has thus made clearer than ever to the people of the State the partisan and illegal character of his plans for securing control of the Legislature.

The closing words of Justice Barnard's decision, quoted above, apply to the State Board of Canvassers, and are a direct contradiction of the legal opinions which they have obtained to the effect that they must adjourn within five days from the time of first assembling. The five days' period expired on Monday, but the Justice says that "it is proper that the State Board should hold its hand until the true record reaches it." As the corrected record could not reach it for several days, the State Board has followed the Justice's opinion and will remain in session indefinitely. Thus, as in the case of the Dutchess County Clerk, the Justice has given a decision which upsets completely Gov. Hill's plans and the opinions of his legal authorities.

The conduct of Justice Morgan J. O'Brien, whom the Governor designated to sit in extraordinary session at Syracuse, was precisely what every one who has followed his course on the bench expected it would be. He is reported, in an interview in the *Times*, as saying of the Governor's action: "The designation was one that was both embarrassing and displeasing to me. Yet I regarded the designation as obligatory on me and went, without knowing what questions were to come before the extraordinary special term." He and Justice Kennedy seem to have been inspired by only one motive in the awkward situation in which they were placed by the Governor's partisan conduct. They seem to have agreed that the only course for them to pursue was to uphold the dignity of the bench and protect it against partisan invasion from every quarter. At all events, they were in entire harmony in all their decisions, and the outcome of their joint labors was the reference of all the contested cases to the Court of Appeals for final decision. This action was of course a defeat for Gov. Hill and his agents, who were trying to count in an Assemblyman by throwing out votes on errors made by election inspectors in tabulating the returns, and was a complete approval of Justice Kennedy's proceedings in issuing a mandamus ordering the Canvassing Board to send back the returns for correction.

Taken altogether, the conduct of the courts in these cases furnishes a very conclusive answer to the main objection which is brought against the proposal for transferring the control of contested-election cases from the Legislature to the courts. That objection is, that it will lower the character of the judiciary by bringing it into contact with partisan politics. This objection was heard in England when the transfer was made there, and the judges themselves strongly opposed it on that very ground; but during the twenty years and more since the courts have been invested with the power, not a single complaint has been made that a decision has been influenced by partisan reasons. In every case the action of the Court has been accepted without question. The recent conduct of our New York judges gives the best possible evidence that the same results would follow the change here.

We believe, accordingly, that when Senator Saxton reintroduces in January next his joint resolution of last year, proposing a constitutional amendment transferring the control of contested election cases from the Legislature to the courts, he will be able to get a wider and more interested hearing for it than he was able to command at its first presentation. The vital portion of that resolution is the following:

"The election, return, and qualifications of any member of either house of the Legislature, when disputed or contested, shall be determined by the courts in such manner as the Legislature shall prescribe; and such determination, when made, shall be conclusive upon the Legislature. Either house of the Legislature may expel any of its members for misconduct; but every person who receives a certificate of election as a member of either house, according to law, shall be entitled to a seat therein unless expelled for misconduct, or ousted pursuant to a judgment of a court of competent jurisdiction."

If we had such a law as that in force now, there would be no wrangle in progress over the returns. Everybody would know that the courts would make the final decision, without partisan prejudice, and would await calmly the results of the judicial inquiries. The political manipulators of neither party would seek to induce a canvassing board to alter or tamper in any way with the result of an election, for they would realize the futility of such conduct if the final revision were to be made by a judicial authority rather than by a partisan majority in a legislative body. In the present contest, for example, every one conceded that the political party which gained control of either branch of the Assembly long enough to organize it, would be able to maintain and strengthen its control for the remainder of the session. It would be able to do this by deciding all the present contested cases in its own favor, and by unseating members of the opposite party whose right to seats might be questioned after the session began. In this country it is notorious that in every legislative body, from Congress down, in every contested election the result of which is of partisan importance, the decision is regularly made on partisan grounds. So extreme a partisan as Speaker Reed of the last Congress admits this frankly. In an article which he published several months ago in the *North American Review*, he strongly recommended the English example for American imitation, and said that our present method was "unsatisfactory in results, unjust to members and contestants, and *fails to secure the representation which the people have chosen.*"

Senator Saxton's method is the only one by which the change can be brought about, and he ought to have the earnest support of all friends of good government in persuading the Legislature to adopt his joint

resolution at the next session. It passed both houses of the last Legislature, and its passage by the present will leave it free to be voted upon by the people. There can be little doubt of its obtaining popular approval.

RAILWAY REGULATION.

It is becoming recognized by both friends and enemies of railways that laws which are enacted to regulate our transportation agencies are, from the very nature of the case, only experimental. The railway problem is as broad as commerce; and as commerce changes its form to accommodate itself to the shifting conditions of business, so must transportation questions assume new phases as one section of our country or another, one class of trade or another, finds itself forced to look about for relief against loss of business or of profits. It is gradually becoming clear to us that minute rules, defining what a railroad shall or shall not do, only defeat their own object, because by a slow though certain process they bring about worse evils than those they are intended to remedy, while at the same time they often check that natural relief which usually cures the ills of unhealthy trading.

An instance of the effect of trying to do too much is seen in the results of the recent English legislation on railway regulation. England has had laws about her railways for fifty years, culminating in the new bills which satisfy nobody; and this, too, after a long and exhaustive inquiry, besides a wearisome reiteration of the whole argument in detail before a Parliamentary committee. The general opinion as to the practical results is given in an article in the London *Economic Journal*. The writer states that the whole matter of maximum rates is a delusion, so far as its practical bearing upon railway charges is concerned, and in this opinion foreign sentiment will generally agree. Next it is said that in all the wrangling the interest of the consumer is entirely forgotten, which is also true. Then it is held that the rights of the conflicting trade interests can by no possibility be theoretically determined; that is, there is an element in railway charges which cannot be ascertained except through the working out of commercial forces, in this respect being like the prices of meat or of hardware. Even "undue preference" is a term which nobody has been able to define.

From these considerations the *Economic Journal* favors Governmental interference with railway charges only when some traffic is carried at a loss, or when there is direct personal discrimination, or when "experience as to other parts of the same railway or in similar circumstances shows that the rates are so high as to diminish the volume of traffic." This is much simpler than the English acts which attempt to fix the classification of goods and the maximum charges on them, yet nothing shows better the fog in which the whole subject is, with our limited experience, enveloped than this writer's suggested legislation. When shall we say that rates are "so high as to diminish the volume of traffic"? Who shall decide such a question, and by what standard shall the alleged necessary volume of traffic be ascertained? Such a conclusion is altogether contrary to the previous reasoning of the article. But what shall we say of our own act to regulate commerce, which fixes dogmatically a short-haul regulation that is sometimes right and sometimes wrong in principle, according to the circumstances of each case?

On the other hand, some regulation of railways is to be expected, and, indeed, is necessary, though it should be confined within limits which will allow play to proper commercial activities. In a paper read before the Bankers' Association at New Orleans, Prof. Hadley warned his hearers that important social and industrial as well as financial questions were involved in the buying and selling of railroad bonds and stocks. Yet, in the main, the author seemed to ascribe the fall in the values of railway securities to the operation of the Inter-state Commerce Law. Without doubt that law has had a bad effect upon railway net earnings, particularly the anti-pooling and the short-haul clauses; and without doubt the railways now need protection against unprofitable rates rather than the public against extortionate charges. Unquestionably, too, our banking interests, if rightly directed, are powerful enough to visit upon those States (or if necessary upon the nation at large) which pass confiscatory laws, the consequences of their own folly by checking the building of railway lines and the consequent development. Yet fairness requires the statement, not included in Mr. Hadley's paper, that besides the Inter-state Act, changes in traffic or financial conditions, and sometimes the folly of railway managers themselves, have helped to bring about the decline in values spoken of.

An instance given is that of the Rock Island, whose stock was quoted at 126 in 1887, as against 82 in November, 1891. The problem before the Rock Island five years ago was whether to build feeding lines west of the Missouri River, or suffer its through traffic to become absorbed by other systems which already had extensions there. In either case there would necessarily be a loss in net earnings for a time; but the fact that railway lines in Kansas were built in advance of their need is not a good criticism upon the act to regulate commerce. Then, too, as all know, the financial disturbances, beginning with the Barings liquidation and continuing to the present, have had a great effect upon prices of all kinds. Quotations of stocks and bonds would have fallen in the United States during the last year whether we had an Inter-state Commerce Law or not. In short, Prof. Hadley's paper lost much of its force because of the reasons for shrinkages in values which he did not discuss.

None the less are the bad clauses of the Inter-state Act to be condemned for the general reasons, if no other, which in the eyes of observers in England render English interference with railway charges nugatory or worse. A report to the Legislature of Nebraska a year ago stated that the people of that State were providing earnings for three times the railroad mileage really needed to carry their products; but, the report added, the communities which had these extra railroads and depended upon them would not give them up even if the result should be to reduce charges on the remaining lines which were too far away for these communities to use. There is in our railway problem a clear relationship between profits and facilities given to the public. We cannot have our cake and eat it; neither can we place heavy restrictions upon railways and expect important improvements from them. Nor are we sure that the laws of trade are not a better protection against unjust charges in the long run than any statute can be. But the operation of those natural laws should be open, free, and fair. Personal discriminations, such as have come to light before recent grand juries, should be stopped, no matter what the cost.

THE TREASURY GOLD.

The Treasury figures for the month of November show that the tide of gold receipts has at last begun to turn in the Government's favor. After having received for nearly half a year only a small part of its customs receipts at New York in gold, the Treasury has taken in during November over 40 per cent. in that metal. We give below the figures showing the percentage of gold in the receipts from duties at New York during the present year. About half of the Government's total revenue comes from the collection of duties in this city; and the proportion of gold in these receipts is likely to be at least as great as in receipts from other sources. For convenience of reference, we give at the same time the net holding of gold by the Treasury at the close of each month:

Month.	Per cent. of gold in N. Y. customs.	Net Gold in Treasury.
	Per cent.	Millions.
January	88.6	141.7
February	81.1	149.7
March	65.1	148.1
April	47.2	141.7
May	28.0	133.2
June	15.5	117.7
July	15.1	121.1
August	12.8	132.5
September	11.8	132.5
October	20.0	127.7
November	43.6	129.2

During 1890 the proportion of gold receipts had maintained itself at a good level, being usually above 90 per cent. There had been a drop, it is true, in the latter part of that year, the percentage in October and November being only 80. But in December, 1890, there was a gain, and, as our figures show, the present year opened in the month of January with nearly 90 per cent. of gold receipts. After January, however, there was a steady and ominous decline,

until the receipts in the summer months, from June through September, were on the average only to the extent of 12 per cent. in gold. October showed a slight gain, to 20 per cent.; but the month of November shows, for the first time in six months, an inflow of somewhere near one-half in gold.

The cause of this state of things is simple enough, and has been pointed out more than once in these columns. It is the redundancy of other kinds of money, more particularly of silver certificates and silver Treasury notes. It is true that the money which has taken the place of gold in the Government receipts does not consist of these silver issues only. The United States notes of the old legal-tender issue have also flowed in, and have in fact been the most important single agent in displacing the gold. But it is the steady large issue of the new silver notes which has brought about a redundancy of legal tenders, and so has caused them to be turned over to the Government for tax receipts. Moreover, so far as their intrinsic desirability or likelihood of easy conversion into gold is concerned, there is no longer any ground for preferring the greenbacks to the new notes. The notes, under the Act of 1890, are made a direct claim on the Government gold reserve; they are a legal tender, which the silver certificates under the Bland Act were not; they are in every way as good as the greenbacks now are. Both greenbacks and Treasury notes, it is needless to say, are less good than the greenbacks were before last year's silver act, because the increasing volume of these obligations, both bearing directly on the Treasury's gold, makes the certainty of convertibility into gold less for either one.

While the steady monthly issue of between four and four and a half millions of the new notes has undoubtedly been the chief cause of the redundant money supply and the consequent sinking of the gold receipts of the Treasury, other causes have contributed to bring about the result. The increase in the bank-note circulation, resulting from the continuance of the 4½ bonds at 2 per cent., has had something to do with it. The bank-note circulation, which has been steadily diminishing in years past, and doubtless will again diminish when the effects of the present bond extension have worked themselves out, has not gone down—indeed, it has slightly risen; so that one factor which formerly facilitated the absorption of the silver issues, and in due time will again facilitate it, has not for the time being been in operation. The year, moreover, until within a month or two, has been a dull one. In dull years, when business transactions shrink and the occasions for the use of money grow fewer money accumulates in bank reserves, and the loan market is heavy. Finally, the Treasury has certainly not followed a policy of excessive caution. It has been unwilling or unable to do what Secretary Manning did under somewhat similar circumstances in 1885 and 1886; namely, to hold the silver and hoard it, rather than try to push it into circulation. The Treasury has made some large payments, notably those for refunding the direct tax, in silver certificates, apparently endeavoring to force the silver currency into circulation. But, since the conditions were not favorable for its absorption, the silver, or the legal tenders displaced by it, flowed back into the Government's hands in tax receipts.

The condition of the banks of this city has shown clearly enough the redundancy of paper money in its various forms. Current funds which the country does not use find their way to New York, where the unneeded cash of the community is kept on deposit by the banks from all parts of the country. The holdings of specie and legal tenders by the associated banks were, in millions of dollars:

	Specie.	Legal-tenders.
On July 5, 1890	75.4	32.6
On Jan. 3, 1891	78.6	26.6
On April 11, 1891	76.7	33.0
On May 29, 1891	61.0	43.3
On July 25, 1891	68.3	53.1
On Sept. 12, 1891	61.7	43.0
On Nov. 7, 1891	81.9	29.2

Specie means practically all gold. Legal tenders include those of the old and of the new issue. The increase of the latter during the summer months is striking, and it is obvious enough why the Treasury got no gold in its receipts from customs during that time. The banks held on to their gold, and turned in to the Treasury the legal tenders which were accumulating on their hands.

The usual autumnal flow of money to the West has begun to carry away the legal tenders of the banks, while the return of gold from abroad has increased their gold holdings. Consequently, the gold receipts from duties in New York have begun to rise. The probabilities are that the month of December will show a still further gain in gold receipts, and that the period of danger for the Treasury is over for the time being; for the flow of currency to the West and South will continue for a month or two more. When the return movement begins, early next year, it will again become a question whether the Treasury will get a regular and sufficient inflow of gold in its revenue. If the present year proves to be like 1879–'80, when we had the same favorable conditions of good crops here and poor crops abroad, and if we are at the beginning of another upward wave of prosperity and activity — and this seems to be the outlook — there will probably be little difficulty in keeping the growing issues of Treasury notes in circulation. In such periods the transactions calling for the use of money expand, and a greater volume circulates with ease. Apparently, the United States will have their usual luck, and, for a while at least, will be saved by a stroke of good fortune from the consequences of reckless legislation. But it is ill predicting for the future. The boom may not come, and next spring may bring a new period of difficulty for the Treasury. Even if the boom does come, the evil day is only postponed. Prosperity and activity will in due time be succeeded by depression, and with depression we may be sure of seeing again the conditions which have prevailed during the greater part of this year, and which, if they prevail long enough and with sufficient intensity, must lead eventually to the suspension of gold payments by the Treasury and the break-down of the gold standard.

"*LOSSES*" *IN FOREIGN TRADE.*

ANOTHER illustration of the mischief done by Custom-house returns in hiding the real nature of economical facts has just been furnished by the report of the French Senate on the tariff. The report is highly protectionist. The Senate has taken the extravagantly protective bill passed by the Chamber, and aggravated it in every direction. For instance, the Chamber was afraid to increase the duty on oil seeds. It was afraid of the oil-manufacturers of Marseilles and Bordeaux, and of the candle and soap-manufacturers of the whole country, who employ a large force of laborers, and whose products enter so largely into the consumption of every French household. It was afraid, too, of the shipping interest, which does a great business in carrying to France the raw material of the oil industry. So it left these seeds on the free list. But the Senate said this was "illogical"—that as some seeds were taxed, oil seeds should be taxed, too—and it accordingly put a heavy duty on them.

The *Temps* points out that the whole report is based on the thesis of the Chairman of the Committee, M. Dauphin, who lays it down that "France has been for thirty years losing large sums through buying more than she sells." This is, of course, simply the old balance-of-trade theory stated in its simplest and baldest form. Mr. Blaine made us all familiar with it two years ago, when he actually gave in figures the losses we had sustained in the year 1889 from this cause in our trade with Cuba, Brazil, and other countries. These losses were as follows, as related by him to an audience at Waterville in August, 1890:

> "We lost $41,000,000 in Cuba, from which our imports were $52,000,000, and to which our exports were only $11,000,000. Forty-one millions is a pretty large sum to lose in one island in a single year. In the Republic of Brazil we lost $51,000,000; our imports from Brazil were $60,000,000, our exports to Brazil were $9,000,000. In Mexico we lost $10,000,000; our imports from Mexico were $21,000,000, our exports to Mexico were $11,000,000."

One's first impulse, of course, in reading stuff of this sort is to turn with disgust from such a display of ignorance on the part of a prominent public man. But, after all, both Mr. Blaine and M. Dauphin simply state in a peculiarly absurd shape the theory which underlies the whole protective system, and secures for it a large part of its popular support. Probably nothing does more to obscure in the popular mind the real nature of international exchange than the practice of looking at Custom-house returns of imports and exports as an account of the transactions between two nations as bodies corporate. When a man like Blaine or Dauphin takes

up the returns and finds that in a single year "the United States" sold "Cuba" $11,000,000, and bought of "Cuba" $52,000,000, and finds no record in these returns relating to the balance, he not unnaturally concludes that the "United States" are out of pocket to the amount of the difference. If he then asks himself how such enormous "losses" can be borne year after year without a collapse of some kind, he quiets his understanding with the reflection that "a nation" is so rich that it can stand anything.

The only remedy for this obliquity of vision—and we commend it earnestly to all persons engaged in teaching political economy, whether on the stump or in schools or colleges—is to dwell incessantly on the fact that custom-house returns do not represent the dealings of nations with each other, as nations; they represent the sum total of certain transactions of certain individuals of one nation with certain individuals of another nation. All foreign trade is trade between individuals. The Custom-house simply foots up the aggregate amounts of such portion of it as comes under its notice. Once a man gets this idea firmly implanted in his brain, the absurdity of such notions as Blaine's and Dauphin's becomes clear as noonday to him, for he says at once to himself, on seeing the difference reported by the custom-house between our sales to Cuba and our purchases from Cuba: "As this trade with Cuba is and has been from the beginning carried on by individuals, it is ridiculous to suppose that the difference in the custom-house returns between sales and purchases represents 'losses.' If losses, they would have had to be borne by individuals, and the Cuban trade would perish in a single year through the bankruptcy of everybody connected with it, and would never be renewed. Moreover, a loss of $41,000,000 with 'a single island,' and of $50 000,000 with Brazil, or $91,000,000 in all, would have produced a great panic in Wall Street, and ruined tens of thousands of people all over the country. As there has been no such panic, and as the trade with Cuba and Brazil continues to be carried on year after year by the same firms or individuals, I conclude that it is, no matter what the Custom-house returns say, really profitable, and that a considerable portion of it must escape the notice of the Custom-house authorities." Acting on this theory, he would look into the matter more closely, and find that we paid for the goods we got from Cuba only partly in exports directly to the island; that we paid for the rest in exports to England and other countries with which Cuba deals, and gave the Cubans bills drawn against these goods. The whole business would thus appear rational, legitimate, and profitable, and not the reckless outlay of young spend thrifts or lunatics, as it appears to the untutored mind of "the Man from Maine."

That men deemed fit to sit in the Legislatures of their respective countries, and familiar with the conditions of domestic trade, should seriously suppose that civilized men carried on foreign trade year by year at a heavy loss, is simply another illustration of the deluding power of words and figures. For nothing that Blaine or Dauphin has said about "losses" in foreign trade is more extraordinary than the doctrine of the benefits of "dearness" as preached not only by President Harrison and Maj. McKinley, but by Mr. Cabot Lodge, the historian and Scholar in Politics. Civilization has from the earliest ages consisted in a persistent effort on the part of the human race to make the desirable things of life more easy of acquisition—that is, cheaper. So that, when Mr. Lodge announced on the stump that he hated cheapness, he really announced that the labors of his fellow-men for five thousand years to make the world a more comfortable place to live in were odious to him.

POLITICS AND HISTORY AT VIENNA.

VIENNA, November 21, 1891.

THE architectural appearance of houses of parliament is not a matter of great weight in the study of institutions, but the workshop of a great legislature, the surroundings and conditions under which the law-making of a nation is carried on, have an interest of their own. The Capitol at Vienna, though excelled in grandeur by those of some other countries, has a dignity and finish which indicate national self-respect and honorable regard for the legislative body. Two chambers almost exactly alike, separated by a stately vestibule, contain the *Abgeordnetenhaus* and the *Herrenhaus*, or, approximately speaking, the House of Representatives and the Senate. On entering the *Abgeordnetenhaus*, one is for a moment under the impression that it is the House of Representatives at Washington. Through a flat-timbered ceiling light falls upon a vast array of seats arranged in semicircles; but the illusion is very brief, for the amphitheatrical arrangement of galleries by which a respectable minority of the people of the United States can look upon its Congress as in a cockpit, fails at Vienna. Two narrow galleries, like balconies in a theatre, admit a limited public, for whom there are perhaps two hundred seats and as many more standing-places. For entrance you obtain tickets gratis of the concierge, and become entitled to a numbered seat. Crowding is furthermore restrained by a device at the outer door which at once attracts the notice of the stranger. At the entrance and extending through the great portal into the street, you observe a curious labyrinth of iron railings. If occasion demands, the short route may be barred off, and every person be made to turn sixteen times in single file before arriving at the door. Whether this "crowd-compeller" is to prevent attacks upon the house, or is simply for the convenience of custodians, I did not learn, but if by chance factious citizens rushed upon the Parliament with rash intentions, there would be plenty of time here for cool reflection.

The seating capacity of the chamber is about three hundred and fifty, but the members are accommodated in less space than at Washington, the amount of desk-room being much more restricted and the chairs arranged after the manner of opera seats. Tasteful decorations of a simple kind, and a series of historical frescoes on the wall behind the Speaker's chair, give the place a warm and pleasant aspect. The Speaker, or rather the President of the Assembly, is flanked on either side by a first and second vice-president, who are almost continually in their places. At a slightly lower level stands a row of tables for secretaries and others, but the one in the centre immediately in front of the President is reserved for the so-called *Berichterstatter*. From this tribune chairmen of committees in charge of bills make their reports, instead of from their seats. In front of all stands a semicircle of desks for Ministers of State.

The general appearance of the members in session gives one a good impression of the intelligence and character of the assembly. The quorum necessary to conduct business, however, not being very high, and the duty of regular attendance apparently not weighing heavily on their minds, one must study the delegates in sections according to the questions in which they are interested. Some days since, a member opened his speech to some fifty colleagues with the words, "Honorable and totally empty House." For a European assembly, there would seem to be a great many young men, though youth is not a characteristic of the whole body. Schmolka, the President, is venerable with years, and many other white heads appear on the benches. To one coming from Switzerland, it is a little startling to see priests on the floor of the house, dressed in the robes of their order and wearing conspicuous gold rosaries about their necks. In that republic, which suffered so much from Jesuits that it has since mistrusted all ecclesiastics in politics, no clerical can be elected to Parliament, but at Vienna there are twenty in the House of Representatives alone, and to the Senate many high dignitaries of the Church belong by right.

The party divisions in Austria are almost bewildering. In the House of Representatives there are no less than sixteen party names, many of them derived from differences of nationality, others from political sentiment. Besides small groups of Italians, Rumanians, Ruthenians, Croats, Serbs, and Slovenians, there are strong representations of Poles and Czechs, who stand more or less in political antipathy to the Germans. In respect of policy there are, furthermore, German Liberals, German Nationals, German Clericals, Feudal party, Middle party, and Anti-Semites, if not other classifications. The largest single group, according to a recent list, is that of the German Liberals, numbering 109. I am speaking, it is perhaps needless to remark, of the divisions in the Austrian kingdom, not in the imperial Austro-Hungarian Parliament.

Under these circumstances, it is easy to understand that strictly party government does not rule. When Count Taaffe formed his cabinet in 1879, he took occasion to say that it was not and could not be a party ministry. Various men have held portfolios since that time, but quite a number have been in service for a long period, and the head of the Cabinet has not changed. Hence we have here a "business cabinet," which, in distinction from that of Switzerland, keeps in power because of political exigencies rather than definite tenure of office. Parties have thus far united sufficiently to keep the machinery in motion, but no one of them has sufficient power to give its own impress fully to the course of legislation. The result is somewhat like that claimed for proportional representation.

The system of representation in the House differs from that to which we are accustomed in America. The delegates represent not only certain territories, but also certain classes of interests. Of these class divisions there are four: Large landed-property, cities, boards of trade, rural communities—that is to say, certain members were elected by groups of

landlords, others by chambers of commerce, city precincts and rural precincts. The attempt is thus made to balance the representation of interests before election rather than by numerical weight after election. The result at present is that landed property receives by far the strongest representation. The great proprietors and the rural communities together have 215 members out of 353, and the effect is seen in the prominence given to agrarian legislation. In contrast to the statement often made in America that the farmers are chiefly represented by lawyers, it may be noted that nearly one-half of the Austrian delegates are actual owners of land. There is a continual increase in the number of teachers and professors elected, this also in many cases being an evidence of agrarianism, as professors in the agricultural schools are chosen to represent that class of interests. But the economists are also there, and, rather strange to say, one of the most active members and fluent speakers of the Liberal party is the eminent geologist, Prof. Suess, of the University of Vienna.

The questions which have recently been under discussion have not given much occasion for parliamentary sparring. The army budget is taken much as a matter of course. All parties are pretty well united in upholding the military as the mainstay of the united empire. Details, however, come in for criticism, and recently the Young Czechs gave vent to their feelings on the matter of nationality in the army. More regard should be given to national regiments, officers should speak the same language as the troops, and a national *esprit de corps* be cultivated. Whatever may be said in complaint of race partiality on the part of officers, Count Welsersheimb, Minister of National Defences, in a few words made two things perfectly clear, namely, that the mixture of peoples in Austria presented one of the most difficult problems of military administration, and, second, that it would be easy to create a half dozen national armies ready to march against each other.

The language question came forward again almost in the same week in the discussion of the educational budget, and discovered the Government decidedly in favor of German as the official language for all parts of the kingdom. There has been an impression abroad, I think because not much has been said about it recently, that the Czechs were gaining somewhat the upper hand, but the declarations of the Government on the subject do not give color to that view. The speech of Cultus Minister Gautsch attracted wide attention because of its distinctness. Every educated man in Austria speaks German, said he, and if the educated classes find it necessary to use that language as an international medium, it is only natural that the Government should do so. What is also remarkable to the observer from the gallery is that the Bohemian orators all have such excellent command of the German language. Herold, one of the most valiant warriors of the Czechs, is a German orator of exceptional excellence, and made, the day I heard him, a most trenchant attack on the Government in the language of which he was complaining. It does not seem as if the Slavic tongues would gain more than permission to exist at present. But the problem will not thus be settled by administrative command. Difficulties of a serious kind are in store, owing to the movement of Slavic population towards the capital. An immense flood of working people is demanding special recognition of the Czech language right at the centre of German Austria, and has in part obtained it.

The economic problems which lie in the path of Austria were exhibited one day quite incidentally in a lecture by Prof. Menger at the University, into whose class-room I had strayed for the purpose of hearing one of the leading exponents of political economy. In the course of an historical sketch of the great commercial movements of Europe, the influence of geographical situation was brought forward, and the unfavorable position of Austria particularly emphasized. The Alps in the south were as yet a serious hindrance to commercial activity, for freight transport was so expensive that it was often as cheap to send Mediterranean goods to the northern border by way of Hamburg as by way of the Semmering Pass. Trieste, under these circumstances, would never become a world-mart, nor Austria a main thoroughfare of commerce. Another hindrance to rapid advancement, according to his mind, was the easy-going, home-staying disposition of the people, in contrast with the enterprise of the Englishman. In Vienna, for instance, if a proprietor of a café had three sons, every one stayed in the city and opened a new café to compete with all the rest, and all the bakers' sons became bakers on the old spot. The speaker did not leave it doubtful that he thought it better for part of the population to emigrate.

To these unexpected side-lights on Austrian economics were added some pregnant hints as to the probable development of self-government in a lecture by Prof. Inama-Sternegg. Was the administration of local affairs likely to become centralized more and more in the hands of State officers, or would local government extend? He was of opinion that the true and probable course of development would be in the direction of local administration with central control, as in England, for whose system he had great admiration. These words from a man in high position in the statistical department of the Government seemed to me to betoken a favorable outlook for local popular liberty in Austria.

Political development, however, will have a hard struggle so long as the mediæval press laws continue to exist. In no constitutional State in Europe are the conditions for free expression of opinion so unfavorable. Anything "dangerous to public interests" may be confiscated by administrative order, and the door is so open to official discretion that a quotation from the Bible might occasion the suppression of an issue. This censorship not only extends over the published statement but also begins in preventive fashion before publication. Newspapers are accustomed to receive notice from State's-attorneys and police officials that certain matters are not to be touched upon, and the business is thus carried on in a manner in no sense judicial, but rather administrative and dictatorial. Moreover, the Government can regulate the criticism of its action by means of the license law. Official permission must be obtained before a newspaper can be started, and the character and political antecedents of the proposed publishers may easily move the bureau of censorship to decide that another new journal is unnecessary to the welfare of the country.

On top of all this comes the stamp duty. On the margin of every copy of every unofficial journal you may observe a black seal like our postal cancelling stamp, which indicates that a fraction of a cent has been paid to the Austrian Government. This brings into the treasury about 1,300,000 florins every year as a direct tax on the educational interests of the country. Furthermore, the semi-official papers which publish legal notices are exempt from this duty, and can thus thrive at the expense of the others. Then it requires a special license to sell newspapers. The newsboy is unknown. Only at the scattered kiosks and certain other well-defined places can the journals of the day be bought when not taken by subscription. The result is good for the cafés, whither everybody flocks to read the news, but not for the general spread of intelligence. The question has been again under discussion within the last few days in a committee of Parliament, but the outlook for improvement is not very bright.

It is a great satisfaction to find one of the oldest and largest universities in one of the finest existing academic buildings. The huge building on the Ringstrasse, however, does not accommodate all the 6,000 students; several of the natural sciences are obliged to find quarters elsewhere. I was more particularly interested in the work of the historical department, and sought out its abode in the apartments assigned to the Philosophical Faculty. Here was to be found, as in every German university, an "Historisches Seminar" in which practical work is carried on under the direction of various professors; but peculiar to Vienna, and only to be compared with one similar French institution, is the "Institut für oesterreichische Geschichtsforschung," a special Government laboratory for the study of Austrian history. Like the "École des Chartes" at Paris, the work of the Institute is largely palæographic, but perhaps less exclusively. It is a training-school for archivists and specialists, and but five regular members are admitted at once. Others, however, may be attached as working members, and herein lies the opportunity for students to perfect themselves in the science of historical investigation. It should, in reality, be called the Austrian Institute for the Study of History, for the scope of instruction is much wider than the annals of the empire. A suite of five or six rooms includes the private studies of three professors, the laboratory of the regular members, a lecture-room, and a study for "guests," or alumni who have come back for brief periods of special work. One room is devoted to the workers on the 'Monumenta Germaniæ,' by whom a portion of the *diplomata* is edited under the direction of Prof. Sickel. In another room an assistant was making electrotype copies of ancient seals, and, scattered about, were the libraries of facsimiles of documents and important printed works. The apparatus for the study of the history of art is at present also under the same auspices.

The investigation of history is, therefore, carried on here under the strictest discipline. The members of the Institute must have previously studied at least two years at the University, and are bound to continue their connection for a specified time. With this selected timber, under competent guidance, there cannot fail to be produced a series of keen investigators, who, if they do not all produce books, will know the value of the material as archivists or librarians. The moral, which I need not mention to my fellow-members of the historical profession, but which is not sufficiently clear to politicians, is that we sadly lack in the United States a body of archivists who are competent to make the materials of our history serviceable. Our great libraries are admirably managed, but there is much to be learned in the depositories of documents in the States and cities. The care of public archives ought not to be a political office, but a career.

I have called the attention of students of his-

tory to the Institute because it seems to be left out of sight in the general rush to German Universities. Of one hundred Americans last year at Vienna, ninety-eight studied medicine. Those who are particularly interested in methods of historical investigation will be rewarded by inquiring into matters here. The reading-room of the University library is an interesting sight in the evening. At well-lighted tables are over three hundred seats apparently all filled. The room is divided into spaces for the different faculties, with special attendants for each. There are about 380,000 volumes now in the library, increasing about 15,000 per year, and careful catalogues are at the disposal of the readers. The University is in Austria the beneficiary of the press-law, which demands for it a sample copy of every new publication in art as well as in literature. One gets the impression that these facilities are industriously used, yet out of 6,000 students the proportion one sees at work is not too great. J. M. VINCENT.

A SCHOOL CEREMONY IN JAPAN.

SENDAI, JAPAN, November 18, 1891.

WE generally think of the East as a land where people are never in a hurry; but when we proceed, as we often do, to draw the inference that it is also a place where nothing is done quickly, we are liable to err. While life here is on the whole of a more leisurely nature than ours, yet occasionally these people are as much faster than ourselves as generally they are slower. And, strange to say, we find some of these exceptions on formal occasions where we should expect to encounter the greatest length of ceremonial.

Take, for example, the exercises at the opening of a large school here during the last days of October. In the elaborate system of education drawn up by Viscount Mori, with the Imperial University as the culmination, he provided for a limited number of training academies in the grade next below the university. The only one of these north of Tokio was four years ago located here in Sendai, a town of more than 70,000 inhabitants, about 200 miles from the metropolis. A beautiful situation was chosen on a high level above the river running by the city, and commanding a fine view of the mass of mountains rising from bluff, hill, and peak near by on to range after range up to the dim blue heights that form the backbone of this empire from extreme north to farthest south. All these solemn natural monuments are soft and pleasing in their robes of green, and nothing gaunt, bare, or naked meets the eye as we take in the magnificent sweep from any part of the grounds. A wide and level campus of more than twenty acres, planted with shrub and tree, and partly covered with a lawn, contains, in the centre, all in a cluster, the long, rambling wooden buildings of both the academic and medical departments.

Two years ago these structures were sufficiently completed for class work to begin, but only a few weeks since had the architect's labors been finally brought to a close, and the educational abode made ready for the formal dedication. The event had been long expected by the people of this section, and preparations were actively made to honor it. Invitations in large numbers were sent out in the surrounding country to the teachers, to the upper officers of the Government, both local and imperial, to the higher officials of the Mombushô (Educational Department), and to prominent citizens; especially were those asked who had given anything to the school. It was through private donations that funds were obtained for the foundation, while the current expenses are borne by the central Government.

Contributions poured in to make a display in keeping with the importance of the occasion. Merchants, professional men, farmers, artisans, all classes offered of their means. A farmer engaged some regular performers to give an old-style dance on a platform erected in the street at the main entrance. A tailor in the city sent a wide board, painted with enormous Chinese characters of congratulation. The teachers subscribed a tenth of their monthly salary. The students collected a respectable sum from among themselves, and, besides, labored hard with their hands in constructing emblems illustrating the path of knowledge. The medical boys had a gigantic statue of Hippocrates. The academic boys put up a globe surmounted by a figure in the uniform of the school, to point out that the goal of our ambition must be knowledge of all things. The decorations were tasteful and pretty. Arches of evergreen were over both doorways, and spanned both gateways. The national banner, beautiful in its simplicity—a red rising sun on a white field—waved from every window. Farther out, on the campus, from two lines stretching from the ground till they met at the top of a high pole, were hung the flags of the different Powers that are on a treaty footing with Japan. Paper lanterns swung from a cord around the entire quadrangle, and in two rows up to the buildings in front and rear.

Considering all the anxiety, the long expectation, the trouble, the expense, the deep interest felt in the institution, as the only one of the kind in the northern half of the main island, it would have been pardonable, according to American standards, to extend the formal exercises over several days, or prolong them for three or four hours at the least, but the whole ceremony was finished in two meetings on the same day. The appointed day was bright and cloudless, and the dense mass of piled-up summits towards the west were decked in all the glories of autumn. The crowds began to throng in before ten o'clock for the lesser ceremony, the conferring of diplomas on the previous graduates of the medical department. There have been no graduates in the other department. The visitors were received and politely shown to the chrysanthemum room, the pine room, the bamboo room; these names designating rooms specially christened for this occasion. When all were assembled, the students were marched into the large public hall, not differing very much from such a hall in America except that it had a lobby running all around it. They stood in a dense mass on the floor in front of the platform. Most of the guests were seated in the gallery. Those of the highest rank sat near the stand, as did also the teachers.

The president of the school came in, mounted the rostrum, pulled out of his breast a roll of paper some sixteen or eighteen inches wide, read or rather intoned his speech embalmed in the Chinese characters that seemed as regular and faultless as though engraved. Before one got used to the sing-song cadence, he ended, gravely rolled up his manuscript, and introduced the Vice-Minister of the Educational Department in the fewest possible words. This gentleman ascended the step, spoke less than three minutes, and went down again. The dean of the medical department now climbed up, unrolled his ideographs, and, in the same monotonous chant as his superior, filled the time for three or four minutes. He carefully folded up his remarks, put them in his pocket, and stood silent before a table containing two large bundles of diplomas. When half the names of the graduates had been read out, one only of them stepped forward, bowed, received one of the bundles of diplomas for his fellow-students, bowed again, and disappeared in the group. The same procedure was observed for the second half. The band struck up, and, without any further words from the chairman, the audience dispersed, the whole time for speeches, diplomas, and all having been much less than thirty minutes.

In the afternoon at two, with the same formal arrangements as in the morning, came the main ceremony of the authoritative delivery of the buildings by the Vice-Minister of Education to the president of the school. The exercises differed only in being longer, in having more addresses and no diplomas. The speeches numbered nine. They were all entombed in the same exact, angular Chinese characters, were all read in the same droning voice, were all formal in sentiment, and were all short, the longest being less than ten minutes, and several being less than two. The speeches consisted chiefly of congratulations on the present and wishes for the future. The speakers represented all the various elements connected with the school. There were three officials from the educational department; the secretary of the provincial Government representing this locality; the president of the school, the dean of the medical department, a representative of the academic teachers, and a student from each of the two departments. The whole time from the moment the chairman called to order to the last word of the student orator was less than one hour, yet there was not the faintest shade of any hurry or confusion, and everything went on with entire good taste and dignity. But no time was wasted. The musical interludes were few in number and exceedingly short. There was also no cheering—not from indifference on the part of the students, but from force of Japanese propriety.

It excites one's surprise that these slow people are so swift where we swift people are so slow, but there is an explanation for this anomaly. With us such occasions as I have described are partly social and partly formal, but here they are almost entirely formal. Everything is cut and dried, and the limits are closely marked and rigorously observed.

After leaving the hall, the guests viewed the grounds and buildings, and at last wandered to the refreshment-rooms. Here the usages of the Japanese came in very tastefully to prevent all crush and jam. The kind of food and the manner of eating make it very easy to handle a large crowd. Waiters are hardly required, and yet all are served equally well. It is known beforehand about what number to provide for, and the food, with a pair of chop-sticks, is put up in neat little rectangular boxes of cleanest thin white-wood. These are handed out by the host. You go up, receive your box, bow, and retire to one of the long tables that are bare except for a row of teapots full of *sake* (wine). The nicest and correctest behavior is to open your box, take up your chop-sticks, dally with your food a little while, close your box, tie it up in your handkerchief, and carry it home with you.

At night the students had a torchlight procession through the town, in two bands, the medical boys from one direction, and the academic boys from another. This is not a native Japanese custom, but was borrowed from abroad, and it has certainly been improved on, at least so far as cleanliness is concerned.

Instead of our smoking, sputtering torches, the boys had each a paper lantern, giving a soft light without smoke or glare or oil or sparks. They went at a gentle trot down the streets and united the two bands on the campus. Here they ran, and swung their lanterns high in the air, winding and turning and twisting, now scattered, now all in a cluster, their lights held up high and all bunched together, ceaselessly moving and rubbing against each other, like a swarm of gigantic fire-flies. The sight was very pretty, and was heightened by the display of fire-works set off from a tower over in the farther dark corner. But soon the spitting and sputtering from the powder ceased, the short candles in the lanterns flickered and died out, and by nine o'clock only the stars twinkled from the serenity overhead. Thus ended a day of pleasure and joy unmarred by a single act of roughness or a single deed of desecration such as college boys are often thoughtlessly guilty of in other lands.

C. MERIWETHER.

Correspondence.

MR. WATERS AND "VERNON."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A friend has just sent me a copy of the *Nation* of the 26th inst., containing a communication from Mrs. V. I. C. Smith ("Vernon"), the reading of which has caused me a good deal of pain—pain at having so completely misunderstood her wishes with regard to the credit due to her for having first* given me the reference to the will of John Custis; pain, also, that through any lapse of mine the New England Historic-Genealogical Society should be a sufferer in any way. I was very desirous to give Mrs. Smith the credit of furnishing this reference, and would most gladly have done so if I had not understood her to say that she would rather not have me do it. Let me publicly express my regret for having unfortunately construed her wishes too literally. If she had only made known to me her grievance, either personally or through some common friend (and she has had plenty of opportunities for so doing), I would have done what I could to rectify my error in the pages of the *Register*. Would it not have been a more kindly course for her to take than to put me in a public pillory, as she has tried to do in her communication to the *Nation*?

I can honestly say I have never intentionally been remiss in acknowledging my indebtedness for help received in my work, as the frequent references to such help in my "Gleanings" bear witness. It has been my delight, rather, to call attention to the assistance English antiquaries were rendering me. Mrs. Smith entirely misconceives my character in supposing that Miss Walford's recent discovery at Maldon "must be very disappointing and disheartening" to me. On the contrary, I was very much delighted, as Miss Walford could testify. And I shall be equally delighted by every new fact bearing on the Washington problem, whether discovered by Miss Walford, Mrs. Smith, or anybody else, even though such new discoveries should lead to the utter overthrow of the theory which I have set up in my attempt to solve that problem. He must be a poor and ignoble antiquary who can be so committed to a theory as to prefer it to facts. Let me suggest that the best way to upset my theory is to discover another Lawrence Washington, besides the rector of Purleigh, who can be proved to have been at the same time a clergyman and a Master of Arts, and to have had a wife living in 1649-'50. Until such a discovery is made, my theory must hold the field as the only reasonable answer to the question who was the father of the earliest Virginian ancestor of Washington.

Mrs. Smith announces her discovery of a new fact, viz., that Sir John Washington of Thrapston, and not Sir William, was really the eldest son of Lawrence Washington of Sulgrave and Brighton. I shall be especially delighted when she produces the evidence that will prove that, since it will confirm a surmise that I formed two years ago on reading the will of Dame Margaret Sandys, who referred to a nephew, John Washington, as "my dear eldest brother's son" (see my paper on The Ancestry of Washington, p. 30). I could not see how that nephew could be any other than John, the son of Sir John. I did not allow that surmise to be put into print at that time, preferring to wait until other and more conclusive evidence should be found. I congratulate Mrs. Smith, therefore, if she has found such evidence.

In conclusion, let me again beg Mrs. Smith and the readers of the *Nation* to believe that I omitted to give her credit against my own wish, and in accordance with what I supposed to be her wish.

HENRY F. WATERS.

SALEM, MASS., November 28, 1891.

* My late deceased friend, Mr. Joseph Eedes, afterwards gave me the same reference. H. F. W.

CONCERNING CAVE DWELLERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to Mr. A. F. Bandelier's communication in the *Nation* of November 26, allow me to say: When I wrote my article for the November number of *Scribner's Magazine*, I had not Mr. Bandelier's reports to the Archæological Institute of America at hand. I had to quote him according to memory. I remembered very well that Mr. Bandelier, in cautious terms, speaks of the cave-dwellers of the Sierra Madre; but as this question of cave and cliff-dwellers is a very delicate matter, and I was afraid that I might saddle him with more than he actually said, I preferred, under the circumstances, to leave it out, the more as I was under the impression that he alluded only to the semi-civilized Tarahumares. I must regret that Mr. Bandelier has attached a meaning to the word "but" which was entirely foreign to my mind, and believe me, if it had been in my power, I should have been only too glad to bring his authority to my support.—Very respectfully,

CARL LUMHOLTZ.

NEW YORK, December 2, 1891.

A MISTRANSLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of Moltke's War Memoirs you have noted no mistranslation more curious or—if the epithet be permitted—more inexcusable than this in the brief but interesting appendix relating to the battle of Königgrätz.

"The Master of the Ordnance, Feldzeugmeister [and why give the long title in translation and in original too?] Benedek, had, in his advance to the northward, to secure himself against the Second Prussian Army marching on the east over the mountains of *Schleswig*."

The original work is not before me; but since Schleswig is not near enough for an army there to cause immediate alarm to Austrian forces in northeastern Bohemia, but is several hundred miles away; since it is not east of Benedek's advance, but northwest of it; and since there are no mountains in Schleswig, one is led to explain it upon the hypothesis that the translators did not know that *Schlesien* meant Silesia.

You have said something this week upon the ethics of translation, and have manfully refrained from quoting "*traduttore traditore.*" Leaving the translators out of the question, do not such publishers as the Harpers owe it to their readers not to mislead them needlessly, so far as from Silesia to Schleswig? And let it be also suggested that there are proof-readers who would not have suffered such an immorality to "go without saying" something about it.

T. B.

ROCHESTER, November 28, 1891.

BOOKS IMPORTED BY MAIL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial comments on the letter of your correspondent "A. Y.," which appeared in your issue of the 27th ultimo, you make an erroneous statement which you will doubtless be glad to correct. You say that "he [the importer by mail of a book] must not only pay 25 per cent. of its cost, but a sum equal to the duty as a fine." This is not the fact. The "payment of a fine equal to the duty" is required by the terms of the order—that is to say, the importer is fined (for having imported the book without having arranged in the manner provided for importations otherwise than by mail) to an amount equal to the duty, but is *not* required to pay the duty also. For many years this has been the uniform custom as to books so imported, as well as in many instances as to other articles received in the mails from foreign countries.

The Treasury order which gave rise to the wide-spread impression, both in this country and abroad, that books and other printed matter imported here from abroad would be "confiscated," was simply a blunder; and you will find, if you make inquiry, that it was not put in practice to any considerable extent, if at all.

If the continuance of this idiotic tax on knowledge is essential to the national revenues and glory, it must be admitted that this mode of collecting it is much less onerous, inconvenient, and costly to the book-importer than that which involves the delay and the charges for cartage, storage, and brokerage incident to importations otherwise than by mail. The concession made in the case of books valued at less than two dollars is also something for which we should be devoutly thankful.

HUMPH.

[Our statement was based upon the Treasury Department Circular of November 5. From its confused text it is difficult to get the impression that the amount of the duty only is to be collected under the new designation of a "fine"; but that this is the interpretation which the Department intends is made clear by the fact that a Collector of Customs who had assessed both duty and a fine equal in amount to the duty, was instructed to refund one-half of the sum thus collected. In effect, then, this mental "spurt" upon the part of our Treasury Department Solons results in leaving matters much as they were before, except that now the poor book-buyer, for indulging his unappreciated whim of

wishing to obtain a foreign book through the most convenient channel, must pay his 25 per cent. ad valorem as a penal due. It is still insisted that books imported by mail are subject to seizure, and the United States citizen who attempts to obtain a good book from abroad by post is put in the same category, as a law breaker, with one who tries to import lottery-tickets; but while the latter is not allowed to redeem his prohibited property, the former may be permitted, if the customs official sees fit, to carry away his book upon paying his fine, provided the cost of the book is not so great as to incur a fine of more than $25, in which case the book is declared to be not redeemable. Moreover, it seems that the offence cannot be repeated with impunity, for in accordance with a Treasury regulation of January 29, 1887, reissued to collectors of customs on June 27, 1891, with an injunction for a strict compliance with its provisions, it is declared that "no such release shall be made to any person who has previously violated the provisions of the laws and treaty stipulations by an importation prohibited."

This is, in truth, an "idiotic tax on knowledge," and so far is it from being essential to the national revenues that persons, apparently well informed, have insisted that it costs the Government more to collect the duty on books imported by mail than the whole duty amounts to. While doubtless glad to escape the payment of duty on books of less value than $2, we fear the long-suffering book-lover who wonders why the one government in the world which singles him out for petty persecution because of his thirst for knowledge should be that of his own country, will not be "devoutly thankful" for this bone now contemptuously thrown to him.—Ed. Nation.]

WOMEN TEACHERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZURICH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those of your readers who are interested in the intellectual progress of women, may be glad to hear a short résumé of a discussion relating to the subject which took place last evening in the University of Zürich. The question laid before the Academic Senate was: "Ueber Zulassung weiblicher Privatdocenten." That the subject is not an indifferent one here is demonstrated by the fact that the various faculties were more fully represented than usual, and that the discussion lasted two hours. The first point raised for discussion, whether women were not legally excluded by the statutes of the University, which read, "Junge wissenschaftlich gebildete *Männer* können sich als Privat-docenten habilitiren," was left undecided, as it seemed to be a purely legal question. The majority of the Law Faculty, however, claimed that the term "men" was used here, as in other laws, for the sake of brevity, to include men *and* women. The minority insisted that those who made the statutes would not have used the term in a general sense.

The Committeee of the Senate, constituting a majority of the same, then moved that it is at present inopportune to permit women to enter the corps of teachers at the University. The opposition made the counter motion, that there is no reason why women should not be suffered to form a part of the University corps. The ensuing discussion resulted in a vote of 19 to 10 in favor of the first motion, the majority claiming that, though women have enjoyed the privileges of this and other universities during some twenty years, they have not in that time brought forth any scientific work of importance; the minority, that the greater part of the scientific work is done by men who are connected as *teachers* with the universities. The way to induce women to do scientific work was to give them the same conditions as are allotted to men.

The Rector of the University was in favor of the second motion, but, as presiding officer, could not vote. Further, one professor sent his written vote in favor of the same proposition, but it was not accepted.—Respectfully yours, A. L. G.

Zürich, November 21, 1891.

"BEEN" AND "GOTTEN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter headed as above, in your 1369th number, invites a few remarks.

In connexion with *been*, by the bye, Mr. J. R. Lowell, in the Introduction to the *Biglow Papers*, Second Series, referring to verse ranging from the time of Sackville to that of Dryden, alleges that "*bin* seems to have been the common form." This, whether "form" is for "spelling" or for "pronunciation," I greatly doubt. For the rest, since Mr. Lowell says nothing of the sound of *been* which prevails among persons of culture in this country, can he have held it to be exclusively modern?

Alexander Barclay, in his *Shyp of Folys* (1508), vol. ii., pp. 160, 177, 319, 321 (ed. 1874), has, as rimes, *ben* and *wene*, *bene* and *sene*, *bene* and *bytwene*, *sene* and *bene*, *wene* and *bene*. In vol. ii., p. 321, he also rimes *iyen* (eyes) and *ben;* but, inasmuch as, in vol. ii., pp. 125, 185, he rimes *terrene* and *iyen*, *iyen* and *grene*, we may take it that *iyen* was, to him, virtually one with *een*, a monosyllable. For these references I have only dipped into Barclay for a few minutes.

William Roy and Jerome Barlowe, in their *Rede me and be nott wrothe* (1528), pp. 73, 119 (ed. 1871), rime *oversene* and *bene*, *clene* and *bene*.

William Baldwin, in the *Mirrovr for Magistrates* (1559), sig. H 1 *v.* (ed. 1563), rimes *seen* and *ben*.

In *Jack Jugler* (before 1563), *ben* and *ween* rime together. See Prof. F. J. Child's *Four Old Plays* (1848), p. 45.

Samuel Hieron (1604), in his *Works* (ed. 1624), vol. i., pp. 559, 564, rimes *seen* and *been*, *bin* and *seen*.

Lady Mary Wroth, in her *Urania* (1621), p. 419, rimes *queene* and *beene*.

I have made no quest in order to prove, as doubtless can be proved,—if rimes are probative,—that, prior to the sixteenth century, *been* had the pronunciation of the substantive *bean*, which it now has with good speakers in England; though there, as in America, the multitude ordinarily say *bin*.

James Sanford, in his *Epictetus* (1567), sig. A 5*v.*, rimes *men* and *ben*. In his *Agrippa*, (1569), fol. 115, 121, he puts, in prose, *benne*.

Abraham Fleming (1575), as quoted in Reginald Scot's *Discouerie of Witchcraft* (1584), p. 301, has, translating Vergil:

> "Some waters haue so powerfull *ben*,
> As could not onelie bodies change,
> But euen the verie minds of *men*,
> Their operation is so strange."

Whether, in the days of Sanford and Fleming, or in later days, it was noticeably usual to sound *ben* like *men* may, until established by quotations, be accounted disputable.

William Mitford, in his *Inquiry into the Principles of Harmony in Language* (1804), p. 27, says, regarding *been*, that, "in the Western Provincial dialect, the pronunciation is *ben*." From considerable personal experience of Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, and Devonshire, I am tolerably confident that this pronunciation, if now heard there at all, is heard but seldom.

In sum, more evidence than we now possess is required to account for the currency of *ben* in New England and elsewhere in America. Who can be positive that *ben* did not spring up there indigenously? *Sistern* existed hundreds of years ago; but, to the few among us who have used it, we may be sure that it was suggested by *brethren*. Hence it is not parallel to *ben*. But perhaps it is otherwise with *hit*, for *it*, a localism in the Southern States which is neither a survival nor a recent importation. On the other hand, it is certain that our now illiterate *cultur*, *featur*, *natur*, *ventur*, etc., descended by uninterrupted succession from times somewhat distant.

As concerns *gotten*, your correspondent X. writes: "In England, it would be considered as much an archaism as *holpen* or *washen*, and, in modern English books, occurs only as representing rustic speech." Is, then, *ill gotten*, to qualify *wealth*, or the like, an outworn expression, or one that anybody would object to? Moreover, though *gotten*, in any other connexion, is here vulgar as a colloquialism, it has not been wholly shunned by good English writers of modern days. It was not too old-fashioned for Dr. Johnson in 1773, or for William Cowper in 1790: but this is going rather far back. Among contemporary authors who indulge in quaintness, it still enjoys some measure of patronage. For instance, Sir George W. Dasent, in his *Annals of an Eventful Life* (1870), vol. i., p. 286, has "how *gotten*, no one knows"; and, in his *Tales from the Fjeld* (1874), p. 126, "He had *gotten* both Bruin's hide and Reynard's skin." Again, in the revised translation of the New Testament, it appears, for the first time, in *Acts*, xxvii., 21, and *Revelation*, iii., 17, in counterbalance to its expedient disappearance from *Matthew*, xi., 12, and *Revelation*, xv., 2.

Without question, I think, the perpetuation of *gotten*, as a perfect participle, is owing mainly to the influence of the Bible. Between Great Britain and America, millions of persons are reminded of it, by the Cantate, every Sunday afternoon or evening.

I conclude with transcribing a sample of passingly wild philology. Professor Schele de Vere, in his *Americanisms* (1872), p. 479, writes: "Even the shortened form *got*, instead of *gotten*, long made a special reproach, and considered an objectionable Americanism, has now its advocates in [*sic*] English." And he proceeds to quote Wordsworth for it. But who, one would like to be informed, ever thought *got* peculiar to the United States? And what Englishman was ever at the gratuitous trouble of doing battle for the word?

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, November 16, 1891.

Notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. publish directly a book of 'Angling Sketches,' by Andrew Lang, illustrated by Mr. Murdoch Brown.

Macmillan & Co. have nearly ready 'In

Cairo,' by William Morton Fullerton, illustrated by Percy Anderson; and in preparation a book of researches in the Peloponnesus, by the same author.

Bates, Kimball & Guild, Boston, announce a portfolio of fifty drawings by Henry P. Kirby of New York, reproduced in plates 15x20 inches, and in two grades, if there is a sufficient call for the better, which will be on Whatman paper, numbered, and limited to 200 copies.

By a double slip of the pen we credited last week to another series than the 'Heroes of the Nations' the forthcoming volume on Napoleon by W. O'Connor Morris; and misnamed the work of Irving's selected for special adornment this season by the Messrs. Putnam. 'The Alhambra,' for such it is, has since come to hand in the so-called "Darro Edition." The two beautiful octavo volumes must be rated among the very best products of the Knickerbocker Press, and in their way have no superiors in the present season. Each page of text is framed in a red-and-gold border displaying a Moorish design borrowed from the Alhambra itself, and here the accuracy of the printer's registering is noteworthy. Then, for illustrations, there are thirty-one exquisite photogravures, some of them made specially for this edition, and all inserted separately from the text. The Moorish decoration extends, finally, to the white covers, stamped in green and gilt. Altogether, this is one of the holiday publications that may not be passed by—all the more because the price has been fixed at a very reasonable figure.

Victor Tissot's 'Unknown Switzerland' has got so far on the road to being a classic that it has reached if not passed its twelfth edition, from which it has been Englished by Mrs. Wilson. This chatty and easily read tale of travel has just been issued by A. D. F. Randolph & Co. in handsome style, with clear letter-press, and with nearly twenty photographic views of Alpine scenery. These are not so fine nor so even as the Spanish views just described, but they are at least mostly well chosen. The cover is tasteful—in the Swiss colors, with the Edelweiss for symbolic decoration.

Bikélas's well-known and much translated 'Louki Laras' has long been out of print in the translation of the late Marquis de Queux de Saint Hilaire. Firmin-Didot & Cie. have just published a quarto edition with seventy illustrations by the rising Greek artist Ralli. In these sketches of Greek life, the gardens, the country-landscape, the sea-coast and the small villages of Chios, the picturesque coast of Tenos and Mt. Burgos, the by-ways of Smyrna, and beleaguered Nauplia are peopled with the moving episodes of a simple story. The graceful if poverty-stricken minutiæ of Greek peasant life in 1821, at the time of the Greek Revolution, possess great charm. The wood-carver at his work, the village smithy in Chios, the primitive well with its revolving pans and the rude crane for making them turn, the islander standing up and bending forward to row, the graceful and primitive hanging-lamps, the old priest going up the pulpit steps—all these are faithfully drawn from the life, and many of them will shortly be seen no more. Louki Laras grinding coffee at Spetzas, keeping an open-air shop at Tenos, rescuing his lady-love from Chios in the disguise of an itinerant vendor of caviare, is made the means of preserving customs, costumes, and situations many of which have an historical interest.

A daintily enshrined collection of 'Odes, Lyrics, and Sonnets from the Poetic Works of James Russell Lowell' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) comprises thirty-eight pieces. Two of the odes and ten of the lyrics are found in the list of representative—presumably favorite—poems designated by Mr. Lowell in 1885 in a letter to the editor of the *Critic* which has just been published by that paper in its issue of November 28. None of his sonnets is admitted to the list, but the juster editor of the present volume gives, among others, the four masterly sonnets grouped under the title "Bankside" and commemorating Edmund Quincy, together with that earlier one to Wendell Phillips; and since the stanzas to W. L. Garrison are included under the lyrics, the anti-slavery phase of the poet is properly reflected in this delightful little anthology.

All lovers of angling and ichthyology will be glad to greet the delayed second number of Mr. Wm. C. Harris's great work on 'The Fishes of North America that are Caught on Hook and Line.' The text is a continuation of the trustworthy "introduction to the study of ichthyology and the distribution and classification of fishes," and is interesting to both the naturalist and the angler. The two fish portraits, chromo-lithographs colored as in life, are of the yellow perch and the rainbow trout. As these, with the remainder of the hundred yet to be issued, are reproductions of excellent paintings of the fish, made as they came fresh from the water, they are remarkably accurate and true to nature, and if the whole work of text and illustration is completed as it has been begun, it will form the most valuable contribution that has yet been made to American angling literature. Mr. Harris can tell well what he knows, and writes about every fish he describes from his own personal experience.

Prof. Albert S. Cook follows up his reissues of Shelley and Sidney on Poetry with a reprint of Cardinal Newman's paper, 'Poetry, with reference to Aristotle's Poetics' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), an interesting and valuable brief disquisition on the principles of poetry, with some particular criticism of Greek and English authors by way of illustration. Newman's command of the abstract in thought necessarily led him to idealistic conclusions, and his moral prepossession tinctured these with the principle that rightness in the individual is a condition of excellence in the poem: natures partially debased can achieve only a limited perfection in expression. The essay is not exhaustive, but it is suggestive; and in the general paucity of fundamental criticism in literature, Newman's observations, however fragmentary and in part vague, may well be put forward, though of course his work is not of the same class as Shelley's and Sidney's. Prof. Cook furnishes a few notes, but they are not needed; and the reader may as well refer to the paper in Newman's works.

A useful book for home readers or clubs will be found in 'The Study Class: A Guide for the Student of English Literature,' by Anna Benneson McMahan (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). The volume is the fruit of practical experience, and proceeds upon a proper method and in a right direction, to the end that students may make themselves acquainted with literature, and not with either language or criticism except in an auxiliary way. The opening papers on Choice, Method, Interpretation, and Composition give short hints and suggestions useful to the solitary student, and the main portion of the volume, which is small and handy, is made up of special question-papers on Shakspere, English Drama, English Poetry, Browning, and the English Essay. Each of these several topics is treated by itself as an "outline study." The most accessible and easily utilized books of reference are named at the end of the various papers. The volume is intelligently composed, and seems as likely to be of real service to home students in this branch as the best of these aids which we have hitherto seen.

Another volume of a like nature, though meant for younger readers, is 'Children's Stories in English Literature, from Shakspere to Tennyson,' by Henrietta Christian Wright (Scribners). The matter of this is somewhat mixed. So far as stories are selected and told, the success is sufficient; but these illustrations of the authors are interleaved with historical narrative of the course of English literature so written as to imply a maturer mind than the tales. The aim seems rather too ambitious; for English literature as a whole cannot be reduced to children's stories, and hence the method breaks down. The history, though told in words of one syllable, cannot be of much material good to very young minds; or, if such minds can be readily and profitably interested in it, then they are certainly beyond the point where Shakspere and Bacon must be reduced to the lowest terms of fiction in order to be read. The volume, which is readable, seems likely to be of most use for school graduates, who will obtain from it, without tedium or difficulty, a simple account of the course of English literature, relieved by narrative abstracts of some of the more famous works.

The second issue of the new edition of Peacock's novels, to which we recently referred at length, is 'Melincourt,' in two volumes (Macmillan). This is the work in which the author utilized Monboddo's speculations, condensing the latter's views of the humanity of the ourang-outang into the character of Sir Oran Haut-ton. This novel is noticeable rather for language, description, and occasional effective burlesque than for the more essential qualities of fiction; but the interest of eccentricity is half of Peacock's talent. The book was translated into French when it first appeared.

B. L. Bowen's 'Introduction to Modern French Lyrics' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) is on the whole a commendable collection, though much valuable space has been wasted on "National and Revolutionary Songs," of which the "Marseillaise" and the "Chant du Départ" would have been sufficient samples. Lamartine, Hugo, and Musset could have been enriched; Béranger would bear diminishing.

Those who follow current French literature know the solid work of M. Ferdinand Brunetière, who, often dry and sometimes a little hard, nevertheless combines in a most unusual degree the insight and the learning of the true critic. He has just published the fourth series of his 'Études Critiques sur l'Histoire de la Littérature Française' (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern). Among the essays it contains are one on the French novel of the seventeenth century, and another on the novels of Madame de Staël, together with a couple of papers on Rousseau and on Voltaire; an incisive discussion of the plays of Alexandre Hardy, the father of French tragedy; and an admirable consideration of Molière as a moralist, clear, cold, and not wholly convincing. At least it has not convinced M. Ganderax, who has replied to it in recent numbers of the *Revue Bleue*.

In the series of "Grands Écrivains Français" M. Rousse's 'Mirabeau' and M. Clédat's 'Rutebeuf' are the latest volumes; M. Édouard Rod's 'Stendhal' is now ready, and M. Paléologue's 'Alfred de Vigny' is to follow at once, when the series will number sixteen volumes.

The fourth volume of Moltke's 'Gesammelte Schriften und Denkwürdigkeiten' (Berlin: Mittler) contains his letters to his mother and brothers, Adolf and Ludwig, with portraits and brief biographical sketches of the persons to whom they are addressed. They extend over a period of sixty-five years (1823–1888), and discuss all sorts of interesting topics, social, domestic, political, and military, in a familiar and very fascinating manner. In 1850 Moltke wrote to his brother Adolf: "Prussia must confess that she has not a single friend in all Europe," admitting as a possible exception to this sweeping statement Napoleon III., who, however, "has merely a party and not a nation at his back." In 1853 he wrote to the same brother that the French empire "assumes more and more the character of a magnificent swindle," and thinks "the French must soon weary of this adventurer." The last letter in the volume, written to Ludwig in 1888, describes briefly the wedding of Prince Henry of Prussia and Princess Irene of Hesse, and mentions the entrance of the father of the bridegroom, the Emperor Frederic, "a tall, stately figure, still erect," although "with one foot on the throne and the other in the grave." An English translation of the letters is announced by the London house of Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.

Joseph Poole's 'Practical Telephone Handbook and Guide to the Telephonic Exchange' (Macmillan) may be said to give the essentials of telephony as now practised. It contains a large number of illustrations, and is brought down to a very recent date as regards forms of apparatus. Some of these have not, we believe, appeared before in any English work, and the author usually passes judgment upon each as a working instrument. The book covers the same ground as the larger and far more complete treatise of Preece and Maier already noticed, but it contains some new matter of real interest. It is clearly written, and will doubtless find favor as a useful manual.

The Geological Survey of Arkansas, under the direction of Prof. John C. Branner, has strongly accredited itself to the scientific and industrial world by the publication of a report on the occurrence and treatment of manganese ores, by R. A. F. Penrose. Mr. Penrose's thesis on the Origin and Nature of Phosphate Deposits, which gained him the degree of Ph. D. at Harvard several years ago, when he was also stroke of the Harvard crew, has since then been published as a Bulletin of the National Geological Survey. A similar broad discussion is now given to manganese, which has become of great importance in recent years from its use in the production of iron. This report will at once take its place as indispensable to all studious metallurgists and economic geologists.

The Second Annual Report of the Geological Survey of Texas is of miscellaneous contents. It contains reports by Mr. Dumble, State geologist, and by Messrs. Walker, Cummins, Comstock, and Steeruwitz. Much of the volume is technical, but the following extracts from Mr. Comstock's report may interest a larger public: "The history of the reported discovery of tin in central Texas is made up of a long series of blunders in determination of minerals which were regarded as cassiterite [an ore of tin] by ill-informed prospectors who had seen the real article, but who were prone to mistake it" for various other minerals. "There are several tracts in which the chances for the discovery of tin ore are at least hopeful" (p. 596). "It is probable that the region in which tin ore will eventually be mined, if ever commercially important, will be limited to a belt somewhat narrower than that indicated upon the map, . . . and as the outcrops are restricted and more or less confused by later deposition and disturbances, it is reasonable to expect that certain situations will yield better than others along the line" (p. 602). This as an official utterance can hardly be regarded as encouraging.

The report of the Secretary of Agriculture, 1891, is a fine specimen of an official campaign document, with its manifest endeavor on almost every page to demonstrate the farmer's indebtedness to the precious McKinley Bill; but the Secretary's complacent exposition of his "important measures" on behalf of the farmer is strikingly weak and inconsequential when he arrives at an explanation of the "rainfall experiments." After stating that $9,000 have been used up in ascertaining the feasibility of producing rain by means of explosions, he concludes: "Due preparation having been made, the experiments were conducted on an extensive scale during the past season in Texas. I have every reason to believe that, so far as the production of explosions is concerned, these experiments were eminently successful. As regards the object thereof, namely, the production of rain, I have no data yet at hand which would justify me in expressing any conclusions on the subject."

On Wednesday, November 11, in the large lecture-room of the South Kensington Museum, Miss Sellers presented, with many illustrations, Dr. Dörpfeld's theory of the Greek theatre. Especial interest attached to her account of a type of transition from the old Greek to the later Roman theatre. To suit gladiatorial and other shows, the level of the front part of the orchestra was lowered, leaving a stage behind at the old level. Dr. Dörpfeld finds this type of theatre especially in Asia Minor. Amable Ravoisié ('Exploration Scientifique de l'Algérie,' 1840-1842) describes just such a theatre found at Djemila (Cuicul) in Algeria. The stage was 2·8m. high, and entirely built of wood, reaching nearly to the level of the footing of the spectators in the lowest seats. When this transitional arrangement was superseded by the Roman amphitheatre, the seats were carried down into the lowered orchestra, and thus arose the final form of the Greek theatre described by Vitruvius as the theatre of the Romans, and differing but little in general plan from various theatres in use to-day.

'The American Annual of Photography' (Scovill & Adams Co.) exceeds in bulk any of its predecessors, and abounds in technical information and in plates illustrating various printing processes as well as the skill and taste of photographers. It contains also the usual lists of American and foreign societies, and of hotels having dark-rooms for tourists; a record of photographic patents for the year, and a current bibliography.

The Christmas number of the *Art Journal* (International News Co.) is wholly devoted to the work of Briton Riviere; the biographical sketch and criticism by Walter Armstrong, the illustrations numerous and by various engraving processes.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends to our table another of his timely imperial panel photographs of public characters, namely, of Sir Edwin Arnold—a speaking likeness.

—The *Atlantic* contains some literary curiosities in the shape of a half-dozen letters from the correspondents of Joseph Severn, one from Ruskin being most characteristic of his pessimistic mood, and four from Seymour Kirkup pleasantly illustrating his eccentric individuality. The pen of Mrs. Preston and her coadjutor, Miss Dodge, which has been so agreeably employed of late in lighting up the dark places of the history of humane learning, furnishes a portrait of Servatus Lupus, Abbot of Ferrières in central France under Charles the Bald, some of whose private letters survive to show the tastes and life of a monkish scholar, and to illustrate incidentally the bond of learning between England and France after Alcuin. The most notable papers, however, are a singularly sympathetic analysis of the intellectual position of Dr. Hopkins in New England orthodoxy, and a sketch of the traits and practice of modern French art by Prof. Moore. The former of these has something to say of Jonathan Edwards by way of preparation, but is mainly devoted to the dogmatic difficulties of the New England divines, and the various dilemmas in which they found themselves. The keenest suggestion made is that Dr. Hopkins was really in the state of an uneasy, and perhaps unconscious, doubter who worked out his views under some obscure impulse, forcing him to seek a reconcilement between theological tenet and common sense; he acted as a solvent of the past in consequence, and, indeed, it was a curious nexus in the history of human thought which led from a "willingness to be damned for the glory of God" to the benevolent and humanitarian sentiment of Dr. Channing. Prof. Moore, in writing of French art, finds it lacking in the highest qualities, and less than it should have been as an outcome of the nation's artistic genius; but the most practical part of his criticism is the warning he ventures on for American students in Paris, that they meet there "with few enlightening and broadening influences," and that "nearly everything beyond the range and routine of the uniform technical drill is ignored." The full text of Lowell's question of the authenticity of "Richard III." is the literary gem of the number.

—*Harper's* chooses for its Christmas art subject the Annunciation, and uses a design of Rossetti's for the frontispiece, following it with illustrations after the old masters, in which the various conceptions and moods that the sacred incident has taken on in art are well shown. To the Christmas season, too, belongs the "Musical Pastoral," with Pyle's characteristic designs. As usual, the short stories are meant to harmonize with the traditional literature of the holidays, although the best of them, Aldrich's "My Cousin, the Colonel," is not a Christmas tale at all; the others are not, on the whole, successful, Mr. Millet's being quite below his habitual level, and Mr. Davis's being exposed to adverse comment in many ways, both in style and handling, and especially in taste. The happiest hit in the number is Mr. Besant's device of evoking old Stowe from his dust to tell the story of Tudor London, by which Shakspere's town is built up for us again as in a work of fiction. Mr. Lang does not succeed any better as a commentator on Shakspere in his paper on "Measure for Measure" than in his previous essays accompanying Abbey's designs, nor are the designs themselves less eccentric and mannered than the earlier ones. Mark Twain's anecdotes of what he calls "mental telegraphy" are very seriously meant, but they are certainly very trivial, and not to be distinguished from the hundreds of similar experiences which may be heard on any side by a patient listener. Mr. Ralph's paper on the Blackfeet also deserves mention, and Lowell's poem "His Ship," though illustrated by a design as far removed in feeling and taste from the text as is possible to be conceived, is very strongly and finely wrought, a real addition to his works.

—The *Century* is also a Christmas number, the season being especially observed in the pictures, and as the works chosen for reproduction are by modern artists, a most interesting result is obtained. We say this without prejudice to the four superb Raphaels which Cole's graver gives us, or to the lovely engravings of pastel portraits; but these are for the year round. Of the distinctively Christmas pictures, the Madonna of Dagnan-Bouveret is the most striking, and the originality of the design and the expressiveness of the Madonna's face easily distinguish it above the rest; whether there is anything of a sacred quality in it, anything that exceeds the human mood of motherhood, is, as Mrs. Van Rensselaer remarks, another matter. The frontispiece, also, by Frank Vincent Du Mond, a young American artist, is a design that arrests attention and shows both romantic and artistic feeling; though here again the question intrudes, as in Holman Hunt's pictures, whether sentiment does not allow itself a somewhat of pose and too nicely prearranged effect to consort quite perfectly with that simplicity and inevitableness necessary most of all in religious work. Besides these we have "The Arrival of the Shepherds," by Lerolle, unfortunately accompanied by some poor pastoral verses quite out of keeping, and destitute of that poetic truth which pastoral can never spare; "The Appearance of the Angel to the Shepherds," by Lagarde; "The Annunciation to the Shepherds," by Lepage; and "Holy Night," by Von Uhde. The grouping together of such a number of designs upon the old motive of the Christian painters makes a most effective comment upon the art spirit of the century. We have left ourselves space only to mention the series of Mozart portraits and the admirable portrait of Dr. Weir Mitchell, which introduces his new serial, and merely to refer to the text of the number, in which the papers upon the Bowery, Sherman's Letters, and Mr. Aldrich's little Christmas story with a moral, are most entertaining.

—Mr. Aldrich also appears in *Scribner's* with an elegiac poem on Lowell, distinguished by fine feeling and rich in phrase and line; a piece of memorial verse which must take its place with those others in which the New England poets have embalmed their friendships with such simple and genuine feeling and made a "Poets' Corner" in their books. The tale of "The Oak of Geismar" is the only Christmas feature of the number. The rest is of the ordinary fibre. Travel is represented by Egypt and Mexico, and in fiction Miss Jewett easily holds the first place, with a story of the Franco-Prussian War, in which there is good fighting, easily second. The art paper is upon Albert Moore, and is written by Mr. Harold Frederic in a vein of much contempt for the Royal Academy. The illustrations do not profess to show Moore's best work, but indicate well enough his aims and the "beautiful dreams" to which he is alleged to devote himself. These vary in their interest to our eyes, reaching from heavy voluptuousness on the one hand to a vital beauty of form and very graceful grouping on the other, but the appeal does not really change and is made to the senses; hence they do not escape that monotonousness which is inseparable from the things of sense.

— Miss Ruth Gentry, the holder of the European fellowship established a year ago by the association of women college graduates, has been admitted to the University of Berlin. Her position is that of *Hospitantin*, but the rights and privileges of a *Hospitantin* are exactly the same as those of a *Studentin*. The ground for her admission is not only her very extensive knowledge (her subject is mathematics), nor the fact that she is the official representative of the learned women of America, nor yet the fact that her cause was strongly urged by the eminent Berlin mathematician, Prof. Fuchs; it is rather that a precedent has been discovered, although no one, not even the Rector himself, has yet been able to find out the name or the date of the existence of that precedent. The Association of Collegiate Alumnæ is to be warmly congratulated upon this early and brilliant reward of its labors.

—International copyright matters are not progressing with all the smoothness that might be desired, and one source of friction is the perplexing state of copyright in Canada. The President's proclamation, of July 1, extends the benefits of our new copyright law to Great Britain and the British possessions, on the ground of reciprocity, thus granting copyright in the United States to the citizens of Canada. Thereupon it seems to have been assumed that our authors could register their works for copyright under the laws of Canada; but the Canadian authorities hold otherwise, and refuse to permit such registration, at which action—according to a contemporary—"United States authors and publishers are very dissatisfied, in fact indignant." The Canadian law is explicit in stating who may secure a statutory copyright in Canada, viz.: any person domiciled there or in any part of the British Possessions, or any citizen of any country which has an international-copyright treaty with the United Kingdom. As the United States is the one civilized country which has so far refused to enter into a copyright treaty with any other nation, it follows that an American author must be domiciled somewhere on British soil in order to secure copyright under the laws of Canada; and, furthermore, he must print or reprint his book in Canada. This last stipulation is an exact parallel of the provision in our own copyright law as to American manufacture, and it is not easy to sympathize with the indignation expressed at the frustration of attempts by United States authors and publishers to evade a requirement which is rigidly enforced in the case of a Canadian who desires to obtain copyright in the United States. Moreover, our own authors can readily secure a copyright in England which will also be good in Canada, although it will not enable them to exclude reprints made outside of Canada, which are permitted importation, under the law of 1868, upon the payment of a royalty to the author; and if the authorized English editions happen to be cheaper than the United States editions, the former will, of course, be likely to supply the Canadian market.

—That the type-setting stipulation in the new copyright law applies to works by *native* as well as *foreign* authors has not been realized by our publishers without some inconvenient surprises, and there is a sort of poetic justice in the fact that one of the first to realize it was a prominent publisher who had been most determined in his insistence on this stipulation in any copyright bill that was to become law, but who found it exceedingly awkward in the case of one of his own important books produced under joint English and American editorship which was to have been printed at Oxford. A good illustration of how seriously this exceedingly narrow-minded stipulation may affect and discourage an American author is afforded by Mr. Reeves's 'The Finding of Wineland the Good.' The chief value of this fine book lies in the fifty-five photographic reproductions of the vellum MSS. relating to the early discovery of America. These MSS. could, of course, be reproduced only at the place where deposited, being priceless, and not to be subjected to the risks incident to sending them away to be copied. The facsimiles are accompanied by a printed Icelandic text, and for the convenient and proper printing of this, it is quite safe to say, no printing establishment in the United States (not even excepting the Government Printing-office at Washington) is properly equipped. The work was consequently done at the Clarendon Press in Oxford, where considerable Icelandic printing has been produced, and where unusual facilities are possessed for accurate typography and scholarly proof-reading. In the proper production of a work of equal importance, and so creditable to one of their author citizens, most civilized governments would have been glad to have had a helpful hand, but under our illiberal law the fact that Mr. Reeves—although an American citizen—had his book manufactured without the limits of the United States debarred him from obtaining any copyright, and left him not only with no legally protected literary property in his book, but with no control over a possible improper use of its contents.

STEPHENS'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.—II.

A History of the French Revolution. By H. Morse Stephens. Vol. II. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

WHAT does Mr. Stephens's 'History of the French Revolution' add to our knowledge of the greatest among modern European crises?

This is the inquiry by which his claim to respect as an historian must be tested. He does not belong to the masters in the art of narration; his object is not, as was Tocqueville's, the establishment of results attained by historical criticism. But if he is not primarily either a narrator or a critic, he is an investigator; he devotes himself to research, his aim is the ascertainment of facts. He stands in the same position as does Mr. Gardiner. Just as Mr. Gardiner makes it his primary aim to discover and to let us know the events of the Civil War, and what the men who took part in it did and thought, so Mr. Stephens attempts to lay before us the transactions which make up the French Revolution, and to make us see what the King and his opponents, what monarchists, constitutionalists, republicans, Girondins, or Jacobins really said and thought, and, as far as we can conjecture from their acts, what were the motives and aims of their action. Of the pre-eminent success of Mr. Gardiner in the attainment of the object for which he has labored, it is hardly possible to say too much. It is conceivable that when the main features of the great Rebellion have been permanently ascertained and fixed by his labors, some master of style and of narrative may paint these features in a more effective form than the shape in which they are exhibited by Mr. Gardiner. But it is he who has cleared away errors and established truth. As you read his pages you do not adopt any startling paradox, but somehow or other your view of men and events is modified. Mr. Stephens has a far more difficult task to perform than that undertaken by Mr. Gardiner. He has not attained to the

ripeness of feeling or to the absolute and judicial impartiality which distinguish the author of the 'History of the Great Civil War.' But of Mr. Stephens no less than of Mr. Gardiner it may be confidently asserted that his labors do add most materially to the knowledge of his readers. When you put down his volumes, you feel, unless you are a specialist who has devoted years to the perusal of revolutionary literature, that you have learned something about the Revolution well worth learning. You may not agree with all your teacher's dogmas and conclusions, but his facts have told upon you. Established delusions are dispelled, ideas which you had only vaguely entertained are sometimes placed on a firmer basis, new notions are suggested, and old conceptions, when not shown to be false, are often placed in a new light.

No one, for example, after reading Mr. Stephens's 'French Revolution,' can believe for a moment in the insight or even the ordinary sagacity of Marie Antoinette. In England the eloquence of Burke, the rhetoric of Carlyle, even the invectives of her detractors, have, as any one will see who reads Mr. Stephens's pages, placed the Queen of France in a totally false light. That she had courage and dignity is certain; that, though guilty of many follies, she was innocent of vice, and was the victim of the foulest slanders, is also certain. But the idea that at any period of her life she displayed a sagacity or an insight into character which, but for the King's stupidity and indecision, might have saved royalty, is utterly unfounded. She was, politically, his bad angel; she did not know a capable man when she saw him; at every turn where advice was needed her advice was bad. She rejected a very fair scheme of escape proposed by Rochefoucauld-Liancourt, because she hated the Duke and would never place herself in the hands of the Constitutionalists. Lafayette was prepared to strike a blow, which might well have been a deadly blow, at the Jacobins, but the Queen chilled his zeal and said, "Rather would I perish than be saved by Lafayette and the Constitutionalists." Nor is there the least reason to suppose that she supported Dumouriez, who was at one moment prepared to stand by the Court against the Girondins. She was at heart a reactionist, and she had no conception of the means by which to carry out a reaction. The fairest account of the matter is that she was guided mainly by personal sentiment. But this predominance of private feeling over political considerations was not in the Queen's case, as it has been with many women, balanced by keen insight into individual character. Her sufferings will always make her fate pathetic, but to rational men who try to base their historical judgments upon facts, the Queen will, after the perusal of Mr. Stephens's pages, hardly remain either a heroine or even a striking personality.

Will Mme. Roland and the Girondins fare much better? This is a question difficult to answer. That the Girondins were incompetent statesmen, that they threw away chances which more capable leaders would have turned to good account, that they were fanatics without the remorseless energy which fanaticism sometimes gives to men of narrow intellect and cold hearts, and that upon them in the main rests the responsibility of plunging France into war, is in our judgment pretty conclusively established by Mr. Stephens. Whether the motives of most of the Girondins were not nobler than he is willing to admit, is to us a matter of considerable doubt. He, however, brings into light one fact which greatly complicates the difficulty of passing any verdict upon the conduct of the Girondins as a whole. They did not in reality form anything like a coherent "party," in the sense in which that term is used in modern times. They were wanting in organization; they had no recognized leaders; they had no means, or at any rate did not devise any means, for controlling the government of the country. At the King's trial, which formed in a sense the crisis of their fate, they were divided and can hardly be said to have pursued any consistent course. Mme. Roland's influence extended over only one clique of Girondins. Some of the most remarkable members of the party were not in any way swayed by her. Nor does her character, whether you judge of it from her 'Memoirs' or from Mr. Stephens's pages, give the least guarantee that, had her authority with the Girondins been greater than it was, her counsels would have saved them from ruin. Stern enthusiasm and, we must also add, supreme egotism were the leading traits of the Republican heroine; and certainly the Girondins did not, as a body, need the guidance of a prophetess to impress them with the belief in their own perfect virtue. Their permanent claim to honor is that, though often unjust enough to their opponents, and though not scrupulous in the means they adopted for the attainment of power, they did yet in a way believe in liberty and in justice. They fell owing to their faults, but also owing to their virtues; and if their resistance to oppression was feeble when it certainly ought to have been vigorous, we may well assume that their weakness arose in part from the difficulty of resisting the tyranny of the mob without running the risk of restoring the despotism of the Crown.

Neither Mr. Stephens nor any writer on the Revolution allows enough for a fact which ought to influence our judgment of every man, to whatever party he belonged, who took part in the revolutionary contest. This fact is the novelty of the revolutionary movement. A hundred years ago it was a new disease. All of us now know its symptoms and its course. Even in 1848, persons of no extraordinary sagacity had begun to understand the nature of the malady. Every one knew that violence would be followed by reaction, that moderate reformers would, after a few months or weeks of authority, become as hateful to their revolutionary followers as to their reactionary opponents. Many persons had even then suspected, what we all now know to be the fact, that an army well led was more than a match for the bravest of mobs. On these facts more than forty years ago statesmen, politicians, soldiers, and even revolutionists more or less based their conduct. Hence it was that Victor Emanuel could, by accepting reform, become the creator of a new Italy, and that Bomba, by first flattering and then betraying the Constitutionalists of Naples, came safely through perils quite as serious as the dangers with which Louis XVI. was unable to cope. But if our author is, in common with every writer who has treated of the revolutionary period, too forgetful of the amazement and confusion caused by the outbreak of what seemed a new political plague, though we now number it among the well-known diseases to which commonwealths are exposed, he assuredly excels every English writer with whom we could compare him in bringing out the unnoted aspects of notable events.

No one has ever taken such pains to show how much of the solid work done for the safety of France and for the benefit of mankind, during the whole of the Revolution, was achieved by men whose names are unknown out of France, and are not often recalled even by Frenchmen. Who, for example, in England or America knows anything about Dubois-Crancé? We will venture to say that, barring a few specialists, there are not to be found ten men in London or New York who could give a tolerable account of this remarkable man's achievements, or could even say in what line these achievements were performed. Yet he was, as Mr. Stephens shows us, something very like the reorganizer of the French Army. His reports laid the foundation of the system which, in the hands of able leaders, created the finest military force of the age. And let it be noted that Dubois Crancé is only one among hundreds who rendered essential service to the State without obtaining anything like lasting fame. None of us realize what an immense amount of good work was done under constant stress and pressure at times when nothing is noted by historians but conspiracies, slaughters, and executions. The real merit of the revolutionary committees was not that they terrified France, but that they concentrated the energies of the nation. People constantly talk as though romantic enthusiasm marked the opening of the Revolution, while astounding ability in affairs of administration and war was the special characteristic of the Napoleonic era. Mr. Stephens demonstrates the falseness of this way of looking at the past. The Revolution was, throughout, a time in which many men were under the influence of intense moral and intellectual excitement. France has never been poor in men of great gifts and of great patriotism, and there is both instruction and comfort to any philosophic mind in perceiving, as we are made to perceive by Mr. Stephens, that there was something much better to be found in the Convention than either rhetoricians or tyrants. There were a host of men who worked unknown, night and day, for the salvation of the country. Many more of them than most of us suppose were taken from the members of the so-called "Plain," and some of them at least supplied France with capable servants when the fury of the revolutionary storm had abated, and the need of the day was the restoration of order.

This habit of remembering what other people forget, which is one of Mr. Stephens's finest qualities, is admirably exhibited in his account of the émigrés, and in his sketch of the colonial policy of France and the results thereof. If any one wishes to know what the émigrés really were, how great was often their individual heroism, and how childish their political imbecility, he can take no better course than carefully to study Mr. Stephens's thirteenth chapter. He will then understand both how much France really lost by driving from her men who might, under happier circumstances, have handed down to future generations the graces and the virtues of the *ancien régime*, and, on the other hand, how impossible it was for the men of the emigration to come to terms with the new world of the Revolution. In 1814 or 1815, even such a Tory as Alison was startled at the tone of the restored émigrés. No English Tory could realize the passions and the incapacity of French reactionists. The details of colonial mismanagement and of colonial troubles are not in themselves interesting, but they are full of instruction. In every colony, from San Domingo to the French settlements in India, the revolutionary spirit makes its appearance. In the colonies, no less than in Paris, we see Frenchmen of all

classes filled first with what would now be called the enthusiasm of humanity, and next with rage at the failure of benevolent wishes to establish prosperity and peace. At the present day the faith and the despair, the heroism and the lawlessness of a revolutionary age are, to educated men at any rate, nearly unintelligible. It is as difficult for us to enter into the sentiment of 1789 or 1793 as it was for the revolutionists of the eighteenth century to understand the religious fervor of the Reformation. Yet whoever wishes to comprehend the failings and the virtues of a great era may, perhaps, partially achieve his end by following with sympathetic imagination Mr. Stephens's tale of the Revolution in the colonies. Whoever does this will, at any rate, make clear to himself that the desire to accomplish some great change in the whole state of society for the benefit of mankind, combined with absolute ignorance of the mode in which salutary reforms can be carried out, was, a century ago, a characteristic of Frenchmen in every part of the world. It was not hypocrisy, though it may have been something little short of blind folly, which led planters in the midst of their slaves to exult in the fall of the Bastille, and to drink toasts to the sovereignty of the people.

We have insisted for two reasons on Mr. Stephens's energy in following out just those topics which more showy writers neglect. The first reason is, that this industry in attending to what other people overlook is the characteristic merit of the two volumes our author has already published. You can find more information of value in them as to the mode in which France was really governed under the National Assembly, the Legislative Assembly, or the Convention than you can find in any other book published in the English language. We have criticised his views of the Terror with perfect candor, but our criticism, be it remembered, is made possible by the mass of information with which he himself has supplied us. Our second reason is, that the quality which already gives its great merit to Mr. Stephens's work is certain to be exhibited in his future volumes, and to give them a very special and peculiar importance. No delusion is, from an historical point of view, more baseless, or, from a political point of view, more noxious, than the idea that the Revolution terminated, so to speak, with the fall of Robespierre, or, at any rate, ended on the day when Bonaparte dispersed the Section with a whiff of grape-shot. Owing to this idea, the years which intervene between the death of Robespierre and the Coup d'État of the 18th of Brumaire are often looked upon as a period which, except from a military point of view, deserves only to be forgotten. In truth, there is scarcely a time in the history of France which better deserves the study of a philosophic historian or a thoughtful constitutionalist. Mr. Stephens will, we are assured, rescue this remarkable era from oblivion; he will enter upon a field which no English or American author has really occupied; he will deserve the thanks both of Englishmen and of Americans when he tells us, as no one can tell better, the true history of the first great attempt and first great failure to found in France a commonwealth which should be the home both of order and of freedom.

Art and Criticism; Monographs and Studies. By Theodore Child. Harper & Bros. 1891.

Of this volume it may fairly be said that it contains more art than criticism. For art, there are eighty-odd illustrations, mostly excellent reproductions of celebrated works of art, and a beautiful cover design, presumably by Luc Olivier Merson. For criticism, there is really very little. Mr. Child is a "journalist" and a voluminous writer on many subjects. His principal qualifications as an art critic are the possession of a fluent pen and the acquaintance of a certain circle of artists in Paris, whose opinions he frequently reflects. Evidence of any real knowledge of art he does not show; but according to his theory such knowledge is unnecessary, and he brands as dogmatism any expression of positive knowledge or opinion. The office of the critic is to give his "impression," nothing more. The person who "knows nothing of art but knows what he likes" is the true critic. The reader is to judge of the value of the impression "according to the esteem in which he might hold the intellectual personality of the writer," and might therefore consider Darwin's opinion of a picture as of more worth than that of a competent painter.

This is criticism made easy with a vengeance, and Mr. Child uses to the full the license he has allowed himself. In his opinion, the things most to be desired of a critic are sympathy, appreciation, admiration; and in the case of some of the members of that Parisian-American art-circle we have referred to, he has certainly shown the last of these qualities in an astonishing degree. He says of his essays, in the preface, that "their chief merit, supposing that they have merit at all, is the fact that they are free from verbiage," yet he rhapsodizes over some living painters, not of the first rank, with a flux of adjectives and superlatives that would seem excessive if applied to Titian or Velasquez. In one article we have "a vision of beauty" and a "lovely vision of floral color," and the word "vision" occurs twenty-five times in twenty-seven pages. Perhaps this critic's prettiest phrase is "the sensual fascination of a lilial neck."

Nine-tenths of the book is purely descriptive, and might have been written by any clever newspaper man who would take the trouble to get up his facts; and the few sentences that seem to show real insight are apt to be "lifted," without acknowledgment, from Whistler or Fromentin. Mr. Child has, however, attempted something like criticism in one article (that on Jean François Millet), and his argument in this case we will examine in justification of the severity of our judgment.

The article is, in the main, a protest against the admiration accorded to Millet. Mr. Child's principal contention is, that, "taking Millet's work as a whole, its chief interest is moral and literary rather than artistic," and this thesis he sustains by the most extraordinary reasoning. Of course he dwells on the lack of technical charm, on the "heavy, coarse, and painful execution" and the "woolly texture" which so long puzzled the critics; but, not content with pointing out Millet's faults, he proceeds to make his greatest merits part of the indictment. Hear him:

"In Millet's most serious work the peasant is one with nature—a type, an ideal silhouette in the grand ensemble; and the beauty he seeks is not the beauty of feature or of epiderm, but that more abstract and ideal beauty which exists in the well-ordered proportions of the skeleton, in freedom and flexibility of limb, and in the logical and physiognomic notation of professional gesture, attitude, and costume. The drawing of Millet is truly remarkable in its abbreviation and intense signification. Generally the faces are mere types; the folds of the dress are reduced to those which mark the projection of the shoulder, the elbow, the breasts, the hips, and the knee; the whole expression of the figure is concentrated in the general silhouette."

This would be a very fair résumé of one side of Millet's genius if it were intended for praise, but it is not, and as a train of thought intended to lead one back to the cuckoo-cry of "literary interest" it is little less than amazing. If synthesis, abstraction, grand simplicity and expressiveness are not "artistic" qualities, it will fare ill with the reputation of Michael Angelo.

It is hardly worth while to go on. Mr. Child first dismisses Millet's work in oil as inferior to his pastels, and then criticises the color of the latter as a mere indication and not complete! Most of his criticism is based on the "Angelus," which, as that picture is Millet's reputed masterpiece, might be excusable in a critic unacquainted with his other work who saw it for the first time, but is quite inexcusable in one who had the "Gleaners," and the "Knitting Shepherdess," and half a dozen other of Millet's best works before him. A man who can see no external or pictorial beauty in such a marvellous piece of painting as the "Gleaners," and who finds its "main interest" to be "literary rather than artistic," is absolutely incapable of any critical perception of art, and it need not surprise us that he finally sums up its great creator by saying that "when we compare him with his contemporaries, Delacroix and Théodore Rousseau, he sinks to a modest level which it *may be well not to attempt to qualify too precisely.*"

The only available excuse for such criticism, that it was written some years ago, Mr. Child has deprived himself of by expressly stating that "further study has not led the writer to change his opinions."

Stark's History and Guide to the Bahama Islands. Fully illustrated with maps, engravings, and photo-prints. By James H. Stark. Boston: Photo-electrotype Co. Pp. 243.

The author explains the need of this guide by the lack of information on the part of the general public as to that portion of the tropical lands which is nearest to our great seaports. Lying to the eastward of the track of vessels bound to Cuba, Nassau seems to be a remote spot, although only two hundred and fifty miles east of Florida, and but three days' sail from New York. We all knew about Nassau during the Rebellion as the headquarters of the blockade-runners. Mr. Stark now points out that the only surviving memento of those few flush years is the Royal Victoria Hotel, built by the Government, and still the finest hotel in the West Indies.

The history of the Bahamas is necessarily given only in outline, since they have so often changed masters that there is no continuity of interests, and the older local records are lost. The Spaniards held these islands, and the Buccaneers made them their stronghold for many years. Charles II. granted them to the Duke of Albemarle, the Earl of Craven, and their associates, who sent out colonists in 1672. The Spaniards broke up the colony and were in turn driven out by pirates, with the connivance of the English. Then in 1718 the pirates were disowned, the colonial authorities took control, and such of the desperadoes as would not repent and reform were exiled or hung. Thereafter came the colonial period of slavery and rich plantations, to be rudely ended when the American Revolution broke out. Commodore Hopkins of our infant navy made a raid on Nassau, hoping to capture a supply of gunpowder. He took possession of the town easily and carried off the Governor, who was afterwards exchanged for our general, Lord

Stirling. In 1781 the Spaniards captured the group; but in 1783 Andrew Deveaux, a royalist from South Carolina, led an expedition which again restored the Bahamas to English control. In 1784 about £14,000 was paid by the British Government to extinguish the rights of the early patentees, and the islands were allotted to the refugee Loyalists from South Carolina and Georgia. In fact, the silver mace now used by the island Assembly is the one formerly used in the Province of South Carolina.

Like all the other West Indian Islands, the Bahamas suffered a great check by the abolition of slavery, but less perhaps in proportion since fishing and wrecking constituted the profession of many of the inhabitants. After the few years of exceptional prosperity due to blockade-running, the islanders fell back on their old resources, sponge-fishing, turtle-fishing, and the cultivation of tropical fruits for export. The present Governor, Sir Ambrose Shea, has introduced the culture of the sisal plant, indigenous to the islands, but heretofore considered only a nuisance. He discerned the value of the fibre, and as a bounty of £4 10s. for every ton exported was granted in 1890 for seven years, capital has begun to flow into the islands. Above all there remains the great attraction which these islands ought to possess for tourists and invalids. The climate is ideal: frost has never reached Nassau, and in twenty-one years the extreme range of the thermometer has been from 64° to 82°. Being of coral formation, the soil is porous and malaria finds no foothold. As a knowledge of these facts is spread, it is reasonable to presume there will be an increase of travel, especially since steamship facilities are multiplying.

Mr. Stark's book makes good the promise of the title-page. It is a very good hand-book for the tourist, giving him information on present needs, and there are many bits of historical information packed away in corners. Here, for example, we learn the true history of the last years of Blennerhasset. So, also, Watling's Island, one of the group, was probably the landfall of Columbus. The maps and illustrations are of recent date, and the author points out to his fellow-yachtsmen the pleasures of a trip around these islands, from his own experience thereof. Mr. Stark, being English-born, was particularly qualified to learn and understand the ideas and ways of the present colonist, though as an American citizen he desires to make his countrymen avail of the advantages offered to settlers. A few sentences might well be omitted which refer to political matters in the United States; but, taken as a whole, the book is an interesting contribution to our knowledge of one of our nearest neighbors.

Land of the Lingering Snow: Chronicles of a Stroller in New England from January to June. By Frank Bolles. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THIS volume contains the rambles of a student in the vicinity of Cambridge, who, by excellent use of his holidays, including Sundays, saw the hills and fields in that neighborhood, paddled on the rivers, and, by the friendly assistance of the railroad, saw both the shores of the bay and even the mountains. He began in January; he was undiscouraged either by drifts or the storm itself, and his reward was one well worth having. The aspects of weather, and the face of the country under its varying skies, relieved only by such life as houses winter-long in the woods, necessarily occupied his attention in the earlier weeks, but he found much of interest to report of what goes on in nature's retreats in that season; and, with the slow coming on of spring, his narrative of adventure takes on the color of the hour, and reproduces with great truthfulness the charm of that reluctant approach, changing into the full onset of summer. If one part stands out from another, it is the story of the equinoctial storm which he witnessed on the Ipswich sands, which is a fine piece of description, and beside it is to be placed the account of his visit to Highland Light; but his own sympathy was plainly engaged rather by the inland country, by the Waverley Oaks, and Beaver Brook, and Concord River, the lands overlooked by Wachusett, and the slopes that lead up to Chocorua. As a naturalist, he attends principally to bird life. He is a good observer and a good describer, and he has the feeling of the true lover of nature, so that those who care for the varied beauty of eastern Massachusetts, or have a special liking for animate nature, will find his volume delightful in both its renderings and its sympathies. Harvard students in particular will find in it a guide both where to go and what to see.

A Master Mariner. Edited by Herbert Compton. [Adventure Series.] London. T. Fisher Unwin. 1891.

THIS is the autobiography of Capt. R. W. Eastwick, who was a remarkably fine specimen of the merchant-captain of the end of the last and the beginning of the present century, before steam had done away with all the romance of navigation. He died in 1865, at the age of ninety-three, forty years after the close of his seafaring career, and dictated this account of his adventures after he had become totally blind. He went to sea at the age of twelve, and in the next forty years he visited almost every quarter of the globe and encountered a great variety of perils. He was shipwrecked on the coast of Burmah in 1793, and again at Dunkirk in 1810, and, as a result of the latter misfortune, remained a prisoner of war until released by special order of Napoleon. In 1799 his ship, the *Endeavour*, was captured by a French frigate, and he was a prisoner on board the latter vessel while she was being shot to pieces by an English man-of-war. On this occasion he narrowly escaped death from the missiles of his fellow-countrymen. Again, in 1813, he was a passenger on the armed packet *Express*, which was captured in mid-ocean by the American privateer *Anaconda*. This was one of the many instances in which the American vessel was the better sailer, and, moreover, so much better armed that she was able to riddle the *Express* without coming within range of the latter's guns.

On the other hand, many of Capt. Eastwick's voyages were singularly fortunate, and he was blessed with a wife who was able to take the helm in an emergency, and of whom he proudly said that she was the only woman he had ever known who could resist the temptation to ask questions in moments of extreme peril. The risk of capture by hostile men-of-war made all freights extremely high during the Napoleonic period, and the profits reaped by lucky ship-owners and captains seem fabulous in these days of excessive competition. Ships would sometimes clear £30,000 in a couple of years, and, again, some unlooked-for political change would upset the best-laid plans. Buenos Ayres was a name of evil omen to Capt. Eastwick in 1806, as it has been of late to more ambitious merchants. Sir Horne Popham had just captured the city from the Spaniards when the Captain was asked to go out and establish a business house there, and was given a credit of £100,000—a sum which meant much more then than it does now. Unfortunately, when he reached the River Plate, he found that the British troops had been driven out of Buenos Ayres, and before he had time to dispose of his merchandise in Montevideo, they were compelled to leave the country altogether. Not only did the worthy Captain's speculation end in disaster, but also a scheme that was much in the minds of Englishmen at that time, namely, to establish a great settlement in South America which should compensate for the loss of the North American colonies.

The Master Mariner's story is well told, and may be recommended as a suitable Christmas present for a boy who is irretrievably bent on going to sea. It makes no secret of the objections to a sailor's career, and the tone is decidedly healthy.

Celtic Fairy Tales. Selected and edited by Joseph Jacobs, editor of 'Folk-Lore.' Illustrated by John D. Batten. London: D. Nutt; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. xiv., 267.

NOT long ago we reviewed in this journal Mr. Jacobs's collection of 'English Fairy Tales,' and now we have to say a word about the same enterprising author's 'Celtic Fairy Tales.' The difficulty, we are told, with the former was one of collection; in the present case it is one of selection, owing to the large number of Celtic stories now accessible in the works of Campbell, Lady Wilde, Curtin, Hyde, and others, some of which have been recently noticed in these columns. Mr. Jacobs estimates that some 2,000 Celtic folk-tales are in existence, of which about 250 have been printed. From these latter the book before us is made (two stories, vi. and xxiii., apparently appear here for the first time) on the same lines as the 'English Fairy Tales'—that is, "a Scotch incident has been interpolated into an Irish variant of the same story, or vice-versa,' and the collector has endeavored "to put himself into the position of an *ollamh*, or *sheenachie*, familiar with both forms of Gaelic, and anxious to put his stories in the best way to attract English children." A modern English ballad has again been turned into prose in order to give a legend which now exists in no other form.

In spite of the larger material at the editor's disposal, we cannot think that the 'Celtic Fairy Tales' is as interesting a book as its predecessor. For one thing, the stories, in spite of some softening, are too gruesome for young children, and the hero-tales are not as interesting as the ordinary fairy-tale. For older readers, however, the volume will prove an attractive introduction to Celtic popular tales, and Mr. Jacobs's notes will be found, as usual, bright and suggestive reading. This is especially the case with No. xvi., "The Story-Teller at Fault," where one of the incidents, the "air-ladder," is nothing more nor less than one of the feats of Indian jugglers reported by Marco Polo and other early travellers. In the notes to No. xxi., "Beth Gellert," the editor thinks he has at last settled that famous myth, which was originally an Indian story that wandered to the West through many a story-book and perhaps oral tradition. Mr. Jacobs shows how the legend was connected with Llewellyn, and that the cairn formerly shown as the monument of Beth Gellert was probably the monument of a "record" run of

a greyhound. Thus one by one our cherished legends die, and even the nursery will soon scoff at William Tell and Beth Gellert.

Not much new light is thrown upon the question of the diffusion of popular tales by the present collection. The editor estimates that of the twenty-six tales, four are from the East, five are European jests, three of the romantic tales seem to have been imported (two of these do not differ in character from the ordinary Indo-European folk-tale), three have possibly been diffused from Ireland or Scotland (here again the diffusion may have been the same as for the other Indo-European folk-tales), and the remaining eleven are, as far as is known, original to Celtic lands. It is, of course, difficult, if not impossible, to arrive at any very definite results in such a classification. Some of the stories which appear most local may, after all, be but a natural localization of a theme which has wandered through many lands, and it is hard to say of a Continental tale that it has been imported from Ireland or Scotland.

The present volume in its illustrations will compare favorably with the former one, and Mr. Batten has found in Celtic myths a congenial field for his pencil.

Physical Development and Exercise for Women. By Mary Taylor Bissell, M.D. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

Chats with Girls on Self-Culture. By Eliza Chester. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

Dr Bissell has had much practical experience in the field of which she writes, and her book is consequently a sensible and useful one. The brief explanations of the laws of growth, and of the influence of environment (including dress) upon growth, are a logical introduction to the enumeration of the ways in which growth and development are promoted by exercise. The last chapter, profusely illustrated, explains how such hygienic exercise may be taken, often by surprisingly simple means. Among the facts cited in support of argument, those given in the tables that show the effects of physical nurture upon the height of both boys and girls will be found especially interesting. Some experiments in measurement should go far towards convincing the hitherto unconvinced that fashion in dress, and not nature, has ordained that the breathing of one-half of the human race shall be of the clavicular, or partially used lung type, while that of the other more loosely clad half is of the diaphragmatic, or freely used lung type. In her review of the possible forms of outdoor and indoor exercise, Dr. Bissell touches upon the fact that tennis is a one-armed sport, with a consequent tendency to produce a one-sided development. Its votaries among her girl readers ought, however, to forgive her this admission, since she not only sanctions cricket, but urges swimming, rowing, riding (with reversed saddles, if possible), and other delightful forms of open-air exercise.

It is, in fact, girls to whom the book is directly addressed, though the title-page appears to indicate differently. To put upon youthful shoulders the responsibility of so many grave considerations in regard to health seems, however, a mistake. It is clearly the duty of every father and mother to know, in substance, the facts Dr. Bissell explains, or, failing such knowledge, to find a medical adviser who not only knows but respects them. But it can hardly be necessary, or even advisable, that girls should take note of the special muscular or organic development furthered by the exercise in which they find pleasure or recreation. Nor ought there to be a need of explaining to school-girls, as a matter of immediate application, that they require a space of so many hundred cubic feet per capita, in order to obtain proper ventilation; and a school in which it could be needful for "one or two intelligent and sensible girls, by means well known to girls of tact and determination," to undertake the duty of creating "a public sentiment in favor of fresh air," is a school to be severely avoided by conscientious parents. The book cannot fail to be of special service to a large class of older persons who grew up before the era of the Swedish movement and the Sargent apparatus.

If a copious supply of literature intended for their special use could make up to young women for a deficiency in some of the time honored means of education, such as well-trained teachers and college and university courses, they might be in a fair way to outstrip their brothers in mental and moral training. 'Chats with Girls on Self-Culture' is devoted to their inward and spiritual development, as the companion volume of the "Portia Series," just noticed, is to their physical. It is brightly and entertainingly written, and is entirely free from the didactic tone in which former generations of young ladies were accustomed to be addressed. Its failings, indeed, lean rather to another side. Self-culture is discussed under no less than nineteen different headings. Dull girls are the subject of one chapter and clever girls of another. The harrowing dilemma of choosing between the two chapters might well have been spared either sort of readers. Also, a separate chapter on "A Spirit of Love" could safely have been omitted by a lay teacher who elsewhere speaks of "moral culture" and of "the meaning of our culture to others."

Especially to be recommended are the chapters headed "How Shall We Learn to Observe?" and "How Shall We Learn to Think?"—neither of which can fail to be helpful to any girl thrown upon her own resources for improvement. The advice in regard to a choice of books leaves little to be desired; and if the readers of the "chats" are wise enough to follow out the suggestions for learning to make a judicious use of the daily papers, they will oftentimes find themselves better informed and better provided with subjects of intelligent conversation than their more fortunate college-bred contemporaries.

King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. By Charles Morris. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1891.

The question of the liberty which an editor of a modernized version of an old English classic may properly take with the text, though quite as important as the same question in translations from foreign literature, has been very little discussed, perhaps because it seems so self-evident that he should make only such verbal changes in vocabulary and construction as are really necessary for the easy comprehension of the work by a modern reader. The 'Morte D'Arthur' is a work so noble that faults in rendering it into modern English would in any case not be readily passed over, and besides, its original form exists in texts not so difficult as to make much modernization necessary. Moreover, this work has been admirably done by Strachey. The task has been attempted, however, with a different aim by Mr. Morris. He has, of course, compressed the story, on the ground that its repetitions, especially in the fighting parts, are tedious; but, in addition to this, he has made other changes of a nature to pervert the spirit of the old romance, and this in important particulars. It would require too close an examination to bring this out in full; we content ourselves, therefore, with applying the test of the parallel column to two leading passages. The first is that noble reply of Lancelot to the damsel who reproached him for his single life:

"Faire damosell," said Sir Launcelot, "I may not warne the people to speake of me, they may speake what soever it please them. But to bee a wedded man I thinke never to be, for if I were, then should I be bound to tarry with my wife, and leave armes and turnements, battells and adventures. And as for to say that I take my pleasure with paramours, that will I refuse, and principally for dread of God. For knights that bee advouturous or letcherous shall not bee happy nor fortunate in the warres, for either they shall be overcome with a simpler knight then they be themselves, or else they shall by unhappye and their cursednesse slay better men then they be themselves; and so who that useth paramours shall bee unhappie, and all things is unhappie that is about them." (Wright's edition of the 1632 text. Strachey keeps closer to the Caxton original.)

"I cannot stop people from thinking what they will," said Lancelot, "but as for marrying, I shall not soon consent to be a stay-at-home knight, and as for Guenever's enchantment, it is only that of beauty and of womanly graciousness. What time may bring me I know not, but as yet it has not brought me a fancy for wedded life. I thank you for your good wishes fair damsel, and courteously bid you farewell."

The second example is Arthur's lament after the great battle:

"Ah, Sir Launcelot," said King Arthur, "this same day have I sore missed thee. Alas! that ever I was against thee, for now have I my death, whereof Sir Gawaine warned me in my dreame." (Wright's sedition of the 1632 text, practically identical with the Caxton original.)

"Alas! Lancelot," he said, "how have I missed you this day. Alas! that I ever turned against you, for had you been here this fatal end could never have been, nor those noble warriors left to be the prey of the wolves and jackals of the battlefield. Sorely have I erred, and sadly have I been repaid for my error. But now, alas! it is too late for regret or amendment, for the fellowship of the Round Table is at an end, and Arthur the King shall reign no more."

We have given examples of both omission and commission, as well as of the changes of the text. "Imperial Cæsar dead and turned to clay," is the comment that naturally rises to one's lips. But this is not all. Mr. Morris says in his introduction, "In attempting to adapt this old masterpiece to the readers of our own day, we have no purpose to seek to paraphrase or improve on Malory. To remove the antique flavor would be to destroy the spirit of the work. We *shall leave it as we find it*, other than to reduce its obsolete phraseology and crudities of style to modern English, abridge the narrative, etc." It is needless to say more.

Pharaohs, Fellahs, and Explorers. By Amelia B. Edwards. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1891. 8vo, pp. xviii, 325.

This is one of the beautiful books of the year. It is printed on heavy paper, in clear type, and is enriched by a series of well chosen illustrations. The frontispiece is an excellent likeness of the author. In the face of so much that is praiseworthy, it seems ungracious to note a serious defect—the book has no map. To be sure, the points in Egypt which have been newly identified are not numerous, and some

of the places which have been explored have been known for years, but at the same time a map which should give positive facts and serve even as a report of progress to date, is a desideratum.

The volume before us contains the lectures delivered by Miss Edwards about a year ago, under the auspices of the corporation of Columbia College, "with large additions, references, and notes." They have been slightly recast, but they retain, as Miss Edwards herself says, in some degree the colloquial form of the popular lecture. Evidences of this are seen in the occasional repetitions incidental to the original form, but they do not seriously mar the work as a whole. The presentation is that of an enthusiast who has given much time to ransacking recent literature for material. She has necessarily followed largely in the footsteps of others, and has reported delightfully the results at which they have arrived. She has likewise some knowledge of the hieroglyphic characters and of some of the inscriptions. But it is as a reporter that she has had most success. Where she has attempted to go alone she has done less well, and has sometimes fallen into the error of giving too free rein to imagination, with the result of making statements and propounding explanations which are scarcely acceptable.

One of the most important subjects treated is the influence of Egypt upon Greek art, architecture, and letters. We have become so accustomed to think of the two former as indigenous to the soil that the assertion of Egyptian origin and parentage is received almost with incredulity. To be sure, they developed independently after being transplanted, even in the Greek settlements in Egypt, but it is interesting to learn the nature of the stock from which such fruitage finally came. So also of the alphabet of the Greeks. To have the forms located some six centuries prior to the earliest remains previously known is of great significance in our study of epigraphy. Whether the final verdict will be that Greece derived as large a number of motives in art, architectural design, and ornamentations from Egypt as is claimed by the author, cannot now be told, but at all events she makes out a strong case. The treatment of the lotus in various forms and degrees is very instructive, whatever allowances must be made for the author's bias. Special attention may also be called to the chapter on portrait-painting, illustrated as it is by what is probably the best series of reproductions in the book. The reflex influence of the Greek upon the Egyptian in this matter is, however, scarcely made as clear as it should have been.

The author has fallen into the error, as we consider it, of representing the "religion" of Egypt as monotheistic in any just sense. She says truly that the word religion does not belong to the Egyptian worship. The demands of morality were high and exacting, if we may take the formulæ of the 'Book of the Dead' as standards by which to judge, but an "Egyptian religion" never existed. It consisted of a congeries of religious systems which existed side by side, even overlapping, and which were sometimes fused into or absorbed by one another. A national religion cannot be found. Hence comes the difficulty of gaining any idea of the actual religious systems of the land. The supremacy of the Sun-god Ra only once approached to a monotheistic representation; but the well-nigh universal sentiment was so opposed to such a conception that it is mainly due to chance that memorials remain of the king who attempted to displace the local deities and to supplant them by his own favorite. Champollion, early in the century, instituted the method of investigation and classification to which the latest writers seem to be of necessity returning. The fact remains that about all we can do is to make a list of the gods, and attribute to each his or her peculiar functions and powers. Not, however, until the "pyramid texts" of the VI. dynasty—those inscriptions executed so beautifully but couched in a form of the language which has thus far almost completely defied all efforts to unravel its orthography and its grammar—are satisfactorily deciphered, shall we be able to give a complete view even of the attributes which belong to a given deity.

To obtain a true idea of the religious observances of Egypt, we must have an eye to the changes which these underwent. Exactly the same is true of the language and the script. Miss Edwards's treatment of the language is singularly unsatisfactory. In speaking of the *letters*, it should have been noted that the multiforms are marks of changes of style or of long intervals of time. For instance, the forms of *n* (p. 245) are separated in introduction by many centuries. The vowels which are cited on the same page, only serve to mislead the ordinary reader, for they were not originally true vowels, but consonants with corresponding values. The explanation of the reasons why the study of the hieroglyphic writing is increasingly hard is true as far as it goes, but it is scarcely true that the grammar is so elementary and easy that its "simplicity" offers its greatest difficulty. The fact is, that we know so little about the real grammar and inflections of Egyptian that we are hardly conscious that difficulties exist. Even the simplest text presents problems which none have been able to solve satisfactorily. Even the individual signs are not all clear, and the author has not helped matters much by the explanations which she has put forward. Probably the most fanciful is that of the sign used to indicate "land." It is composed of four elements; two of them are explained wrongly, one doubtfully, and the fourth in a way which puts more into it than belongs to it. The statement that a "list of hieroglyphic characters is in fact a pictorial encyclopædia of all the objects . . . which were known to the Egyptians," opens an interesting query. The camel is mentioned in Exodus (ix, 3) as existing in Egypt at the time of the plagues, yet the monuments bear no witness to it till a date long subsequent to the Exodus. The question is whether the supposed existence of a few in the herd of Pharaoh will satisfy the Biblical narrative, or whether we have here an indication of a late date of composition or a late insertion by a "redactor." The claim of an Egyptian origin for the word "camel" is an extreme instance of the author's being carried away by her enthusiasm. The fact is, that the name does not appear till the Greek era, and then in a form which indicates its foreign origin.

We are told that the loftiest of all obelisks was raised by Hatasu, the queen-pharaoh, in the amazingly short period of "seven months," but as the limits indicated on the stone itself, as stated by the author, are the first day of the sixth month of the fifteenth year of her reign and the last day of the twelfth month of the sixteenth year, "seven" months appear about one year short of the real time. The difficulty is that certain details essential to a correct calculation of the interval have been omitted.

We had marked other points for notice, but what has been said already will suffice to show that the book, while good and instructive in the main, is not entirely free from minor faults.

Thomas Hooker: Preacher, Founder, Democrat. ["Makers of America."] By George Leon Walker. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

THOMAS HOOKER'S right to have his story told in a series dealing with "The Makers of America" will not be questioned by any one who reads this book, nor by any one who has informed himself by other means of Hooker's place in our colonial development. Mr. Walker, the writer of this sketch, was well qualified by previous studies, undertaken a few years ago when he wrote a history of the First Church in Hartford for its 250th anniversary. The part of that concerning Hooker has been expanded into 200 pages, of which 70, an undue proportion, treat of his youth, education, preaching in England, and in Holland, whither he went in 1630. Mather may have exaggerated his dislike of the "Brownists," but it is highly probable that he reached his own doctrine of Independency apart from the Brownist influence. From Hooker's arrival in New England in 1633, when he was forty-seven years old, Mr. Walker's materials increase in value, and his narrative gains correspondingly in interest and importance. It was to be expected that, going over ground much of which has been gone over many times before, we should come upon many familiar incidents and quotations; and we do in fact, but not too frequently. It is from the aptness and the raciness of the quotations from old sermons, letters, and other documents that the book gets its most characteristic and agreeable flavor. That both Hooker and his assistant, Mr. Stone, should have spent two months away from their year-old colony, in 1637, considering the heresies of Anne Hutchinson, is eloquent for the importance of sound orthodoxy in their estimation; and that eighty-two opinions were condemned by the Synod shows that the scent for heresy was very keen.

Mr. Walker has such writers as Mr. John Fiske and Mr. Alexander Johnston to enforce his claim for Hooker as the founder of democracy in America, but he has little need of them when he can quote such a letter as that of Hooker to Winthrop, on page 121, and such headings of a sermon preached before the General Court as those given on page 125. His part in the first confederation of the colonies allies his work with the national constitutional development of a later time, as his shaping spirit in the first Constitution of Connecticut allies it with the democratic tendencies of Samuel Adams and like men, which saved the Constitution of 1787 from being the aristocratic thing desired by Hamilton and others of his mind. That a congregational system of church government should attract one committed to it to democracy in civil government, was almost inevitable. "The binding power of synods" was that feature of the Presbyterian polity which he could least endure, and we get a capital taste of his quality when he writes to his son-in-law, at the Cambridge Synod of 1646, "he that adventures far in that business will fynd hott and hard work, or else my perspective may fayle." Strangely enough, he was less jealous than the Presbyterians of State interference with the Church, and was even strenuous for the right of civil magistrates to summon ecclesiastical assemblies, so planting seed from which his

Hartford church reaped a full crop of thorns and thistles in due time. The relation of Hooker and other New England divines to the Westminster Assembly has just now a very special interest. He "liked not the business," and would not go to England to be one of a pitiful minority, but he contributed a 'Survey of the Summe of Church Discipline' to the great debate which for eleven hundred and sixty-three sessions drew its slow length along. The first copy did not prove an insurance to the vessel that carried it, for she was never heard of more, save as her ghost came sailing into New Haven after the passing of some years. A second was still uncompleted at his death in 1647, on the sixty-first anniversary of his birth, the 7th of July.

A chapter on Hooker's writings is mainly interesting for its proofs that he anticipated fully that doctrine which has been generally esteemed the peculiar property of Dr. Samuel Hopkins—that we should be willing to be damned for the glory of God. Hooker's phrasing of the doctrine was: "The soule that is truly humbled is content to be disposed by the Almightie as it pleaseth him." It is rather pleasant than otherwise to have Hopkins's fame relieved a little of the burden of that prophecy.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bendall, H., and Lawrence, C. E. Graduated Passages from Greek and Latin Authors for First-Sight Translation. Part I., Easy. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Bennemann, G. W. With Wind and Tide: Homeward Bound. New York: C. J. Powell.

Berkeley, Hastings. Japanese Letters. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.

Bikélas, D. Louki Laras. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.

Black, J. S. The Book of Joshua. [The Smaller Cambridge Bible for Schools.] Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Brugsch-Bey, H. Egypt under the Pharaohs. New ed. condensed and revised. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.

Chamberlain, Montague. A Popular Handbook of the Ornithology of the United States and Canada. Based on Nuttall's Manual. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $8.

Cutting, C. F. A Glance at the Difficulties of German Grammar. Boston: Thomas Groom & Co. 50 cents.

Davidson, Hannah A. Reference History of the United States. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.

Elliott, Rev. W. The Life of Father Hecker. New York: The Columbus Press.

Espinas, Prof. A. Histoire des Doctrines Économiques. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

Francis, L. H. Schoolboys of Rookesbury; or, The Boys of the Fourth Form. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.

Glimpses of Italian Society in the Eighteenth Century: From the 'Journey' of Mrs. Piozzi. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.

DECEMBER

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—Lowell as an Educator, Seth Low; The Action of the Colleges upon the Schools, William C. Collar; A Statistical Study of Memory and Associations, Joseph Jastrow; College Athletics and Heart Disease, Dudley A. Sargent.

DISCUSSIONS.—The Seven Liberal Arts, Thomas Davidson; Objective Methods of Teaching Elementary Reading, Francis W. Parker; Practice Teaching in Normal Schools, III., E. H. Russell; City School Supervision, III., Thomas M. Balliet.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.—Contemporary Educational Thought in Great Britain, J. G. Fitch.

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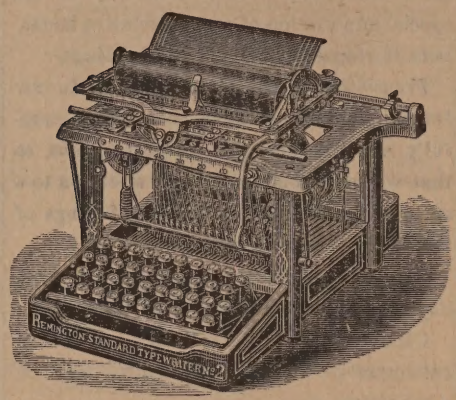

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 17, 1891.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON informs Congress that Germany has opened her ports to inspected American pork products. He adds: "The removal of these restrictions in every instance was asked for and given *solely* upon the ground that we had now provided a meat inspection that should be accepted as adequate." This will be a great piece of news to the editor of the Bucyrus, O., *Journal*. That gentleman was the recipient of a letter mailed to him on October 14, 1891, by the Hon. James G. Blaine, in which that distinguished statesman assured him that Germany had "removed the prohibition on pork" as an equivalent for our leaving "her sugar on the free list." Thus is the mystery of reciprocity deepened, and thus, too, is the "perfect good understanding" which exists between President Harrison and his Secretary of State put beyond all dispute.

The indignation in Chili over President Harrison's Message is not hard to account for. The President has done, substantially, just what he protested against the Italian Government's doing in the New Orleans case—that is, he has accepted *ex parte* testimony as conclusive, in advance of the decision of the court having sole jurisdiction over the case. When Rudini was thundering away at Mr. Blaine last spring, the reply was made to him that the affair was undergoing judicial investigation, and that, meanwhile, the American Government could not accept the version of Consul Corti and Baron Fava. "The President is unable to see," wrote Secretary Blaine to the Marquis Imperiali, "how any Government could justly give an assurance of this character [that 'the guilty parties should be brought to justice'] *in advance of a trial* and a verdict of 'guilty.'" But in the case of the Valparaiso riot, the President is fully able to see how he can declare Chilians, and even Chilian officers, guilty in advance of a trial. The point is, that he has found his verdict in advance of that arrived at by the Judge in Valparaiso, and has practically served notice that he will disregard the decision of the latter in case it differs from his own. All this is well brought out in the circular letter of the Chilian Government addressed to all Chilian Legations. The same document also alludes to various letters of Egan's, of which the contents are said to be unknown in Washington. We greatly hope that a full collection of his letters and despatches will be included in that correspondence which President Harrison promises to lay before Congress.

It was worthy of note, and has an important bearing on our dispute with Chili about the *Baltimore* incident, and on any other dispute into which we may get over sailors' rows in foreign ports, that of 7,516 enlisted men belonging to the American Navy 3,997 are foreign born, only 3,519 native American. Of this total, only 4 310 are citizens of the United States. Of the remainder, 2,756 have made no declaration of intention, and 1,282 have never even resided in the United States. Of the crew of the *Baltimore*, only 148 are Americans; 187 are foreigners, picked up here, there, and everywhere. We have no doubt these latter will fight well when the occasion comes, and are well commanded and well disciplined; but it would be absurd for us to assume, in disputes with foreign Powers over these collisions with foreign police when ashore as "liberty men," that they are God-fearing Yankees, whose word about their own behavior it is safe to take against that of foreign Ministers, judges, and policemen, even to the point of war.

Referring in his Message to the legislative gerrymanders which "buttress" gerrymanders of Congressional districts, President Harrison cites a county in a certain State where "three districts for the election of members of the Legislature are constituted as follows: One has 65,000 population, one 15,000, and one 10,000." He could have instanced a far worse case than this in Connecticut, where the Republicans are in both legislative houses the beneficiaries of a "gerrymander" which is "buttressed" not behind a statute, but behind the more solid and enduring ramparts of a State constitution. As to the lower house of Connecticut, the President would have found one town with a population of 86,045 equalized with another town having a population of but 431; and as to the State Senate, a district which at the Presidential election of 1888 cast 17,649 votes, equalized with another district casting but 2,585 votes. How the system works in the upper house of Congress may be shown by the case of United States Senator O. H. Platt, who was reëlected last January by 141 Republican members of the Connecticut Legislature, representing towns and districts casting only 73,144 votes, while there were opposed to him 134 members representing 195,840 votes. If Senator Platt and his colleague, Senator Hawley, have occasion during this session to refer to the President's views in his Message on either "gerrymanders" or the suppression of the suffrage at the South, they will, of course, tell us all about this peculiar Connecticut "system," but for which their own seats would now be filled by two Democrats.

Much as there is to commend in the report of the Secretary of the Navy, there is one recommendation contained in it the wisdom of which is open to grave doubts: it is the recommendation to consolidate the revenue marine with the navy. This proposition, originating with Senator William E. Chandler when Secretary of the Navy, was wisely ignored by his successor in office, Mr. Whitney, but is now revived by Mr. Tracy. The consolidation, should it ever take place, means that the navy, thereafter, shall perform the duties now performed by the revenue marine. The practice of employing the strong arm of the Government to enforce the laws in times of perfect tranquillity is a dangerous one. The civil and the military services should be kept separate and distinct, and each should be confined to its own sphere of duties. Such has been our policy from the beginning. It is a safe policy, and one of the distinctions of Anglo-Saxon government.

It seems that a committee composed of the most prominent French artists has decided to organize at Paris, in the spring of 1892, an exhibition of the works of Meissonier, and that American owners of pictures by that painter are to be approached for the purpose of requesting loans to the exhibition. Meanwhile the French Minister at Washington has been instructed to recommend this request warmly to our Government, and to apply to the Treasury Department to ascertain whether pictures sent to Paris for the purpose of exhibition can be returned to their owners without the imposition of a second duty. Mr. O. L. Spaulding, Acting Secretary, responded, under date of September 10, to the effect that he has, "unfortunately, failed to find in the law any authority for the remission of duties accruing upon importations of foreign productions, even when they have been previously imported upon payment of duty," and he suggests an application to Congress to have a special law passed permitting the reimportation without duty of pictures loaned to the proposed exhibition. He writes, however, that any Meissonier paintings owned by institutions established for the promotion and encouragement of art in this country can be reimported free of duty under the same paragraph of the McKinley Act (section 759) that now permits them to come into this country without payment of duty as the permanent property of such institutions

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We much fear that the French Minister will not set great store by Mr. Spaulding's polite assurance of the warm interest he feels in the proposed exhibition, and of his readiness to promote its success "in any practicable way." It must be simply impossible for an official of the Government of France to understand the position assumed by the United States towards foreign art, and we suspect that the Acting Secretary's somewhat effusive politeness was partly due to his feeling that the reply he was obliged to make to so reasonable a request would be pretty sure to be read with

contemptuous impatience. No foreigner can understand our tax upon foreign art as a "protective" tariff, and, viewed as a revenue tax, it must seem a niggardly method for a great and wealthy nation to take in order to refill its Treasury, in face of the fact that no European government is willing to admit itself so poverty-stricken as to be obliged to tax art; while the proposition to *retax* an American citizen's painting, when he has contributed to a loan exhibition, and thus helped to forward one of the most hopeful and helpful art movements of the present time, must seem to the art-loving Frenchman an exhibition of Western want of civilization. It is to be hoped that the interest which may be aroused in the proposed exhibition will lead, not to the mere enactment of a special law permitting Americans to reimport without payment of duties such pictures as they may loan to its promoters, but at least to a general law exempting from any subsequent payment of duty any work of art upon which there has once been paid duty upon its importation into the United States.

A fine example of the degrading effect of our pernicious tariff law is afforded by recent correspondence between Mr. James W. Queen, an instrument-maker in Philadelphia, and the Treasury Department. Mr. Queen alleges that it is the custom throughout the United States for professors in colleges to order microscopes from foreign makers for use in their laboratories, and at the close of the term to dispose of them to the students at a reduced price. For the "protection of home manufacturers," he thinks that no institution should be allowed to import such instruments to be so disposed of, and suggests that "periodical inspections" should be ordered by the Treasury Department so as to ascertain whether or not instruments imported are actually in use. The impudence of this suggestion is understood when it is realized that college professors, when importing such instruments, are required to file an oath that they "have been imported by the order and for the sole use of said college as its permanent property, and not for sale or distribution." Fancy a college president being obliged to take such an oath, and then to have periodically to submit to the indignity of a catechising as to how binding he may have considered it—all this that he may be persecuted into foregoing the very natural desire to have for use in his laboratory the very best instrument made, and be constrained to put up with those of an inferior quality manufactured in Philadelphia. We are glad to note that the Treasury Department exhibited no inclination to accept Mr. Queen's suggestion, but regret that he was encouraged to do some spying on his own account by the statement that, in the event of instances of positive violation of the law coming to the attention of the Department "through information *furnished by your firm* or otherwise," proper steps would be taken for the enforcement of the penalties provided by statute.

An example of the gross injustice of this law for the protection of second-grade instrument-makers was recently offered at the Boston Custom-house. A professor in one of the academies near Boston, returning from Europe, brought with him a microscope for his own use in the biological department. Under section 686 of the tariff law, which includes in the free list "professional books, implements, instruments, and tools of trade, occupation, or employment, in the actual possession at the time of persons arriving in the United States," he might very reasonably have expected to import this without duty, but on reaching the steamship dock in Boston a heavy duty was demanded. Appealing to the Collector, he found so firm a determination to force him to pay duty that he finally accepted a compromise whereby the offending instrument was permitted to be carried away without the extortion of a tax, upon his making a gift of it to the institution with which he was connected; but the Principal of the Academy was first required to take an oath that he accepted the instrument as a free gift to the school, for its sole use, and not to be sold or given away! It occurs to one to ask, in connection with the above occurrence, why the teacher should be thus taxed for the benefit of the instrument-maker. Is it of less importance for the well-being of the country that a college professor should be encouraged to equip himself in the very best way possible for teaching his boys, than that some one in Philadelphia should be enabled to make microscopes and sell them at a higher price than they can be bought for abroad?

The negroes of Washington consider that their grievances are so serious that they are holding mass-meetings, hoping to devise some means of removing the discriminations made against them, if not of abolishing race prejudice altogether. The revelations made at these meetings must be a rude shock to those who place their trust in legislation for the accomplishment of these ends. These negroes have been living in a city over which the President and Congress preside as a mayor and common council, and where the Federal laws touching civil rights have free course. Since the war the government of the city has been almost exclusively in the hands of those who enacted these laws against discrimination, and yet in Washington to-day, according to the undisputed evidence of those who spoke at those mass-meetings, there are separate free schools for the blacks, separate eating-houses, and it might have been added separate bathing facilities at the public beach, practical exclusion of negroes from restaurants and barber-shops, and their colonization in alleys and obscure streets.

These Washington negroes, too, it must be remembered, are the most deserving of their race. Many of them are members of the learned professions; more of them are Government employees. They make up one-third of the city's population, and though they have among their number a much larger portion of the vicious and lazy than have the whites, yet their average both for morality and for intelligence is high. Nevertheless they find it necessary to call mass-meetings to implore the well-to-do of their own race "to go out in the eastern part of the city and build up a square where colored people may secure homes, instead of having to go into the alleys," seeing that the real-estate men of the city, who are white, will have no dealing with them. But will the negroes who have money build houses in Washington for the people of their own race? One of the speakers, the Rev. Mr. Gray, declared that they would not. Another speaker, Mr. Pollard, said: "Visit one of the barber-shops conducted by a colored man and see how quick he will shave you." A third, who has an eating-house, frankly confessed that he had to keep two dining-rooms, one for the whites, the other for the blacks; that otherwise he could not earn a living.

The blockade of east bound grain along the Western railroads has in the past week grown to proportions which may fairly be called sensational. All reports during the last fortnight have agreed in describing an enormous increase in the grain offered to carriers from the farms. In the country elevators of Minnesota and Dakota alone the supply was swelled last week by half a million bushels, yet in the same time the stock in New York city fell off nearly half a million, and the grain afloat for Europe decreased by three and a half millions. That this grain was not held back at the farms was shown by the number of grain cars brought from the harvest-country into Chicago; a number which rose during the last two weeks from 6,453 in 1890 to 14,469 in 1891. It is naturally at this great centre of interior distribution that the transportation system has broken down most completely. Until a few days ago, the vessels on the great lakes have transported, by way of Buffalo, the bulk of the east-bound grain. But the setting in of winter, and the consequent close of lake navigation, suddenly threw the whole burden upon the Chicago and New York trunk lines. It was at once discovered that they had not cars enough, locomotives enough, or even switching facilities enough, to carry out their grain orders. High premiums over ordinary rentals were offered to get the use of cars owned by connecting lines; finally a familiar bit of railroad sharp practice was resorted to, and the Eastern companies which accepted through freight-cars for New York from the lines west of Chicago purposely neglected to return them, hoping to keep the cars, despite rentals and penalties, for their own necessary uses. One trunk line alone is said to have appropriated 3,000 cars by this method.

As a natural consequence, the Granger roads refused to let their own cars pass at all into the hands of Eastern lines, until

the heaping up of grain in Chicago had actually outrun the city's storage capacity, since which time the Western companies have been compelled by sheer necessity to hand over their grain cars to the trunk lines, because there was no elevator-room left in which to unload their freight. Meantime the merchants and middlemen who bought Chicago wheat a fortnight ago for delivery or export at New York, have been finding themselves saddled with an unpleasant contract. Ships for Europe have been waiting for days in the harbor, unable to get their contracted wheat; in some cases shippers have been loading them up with buckwheat, barley, and flaxseed, the only grain to be had. The whole situation seems to have been practically inevitable. When our recent wheat crops have averaged less than 450,000,000 bushels, with a relatively light demand at the seaboard, it can scarcely be expected that railways will keep on hand a supply of cars equal to transporting promptly a crop of nearly 600,000,000 bushels, with a heavy export demand. The number of orders recently placed at the shops for new cars is something enormous—20,000 are said to have been ordered in the last two weeks—and there may be good reason for accusing the railroad companies of dilatoriness. But the suddenness of the heavy grain movement has surprised everybody, and there is a considerable difference between buying equipment which will begin at once to pay for itself, and ordering, after a long season of enforced economy, cars which must be left idle in the yards, as the companies would have had to leave these a month ago.

The decision lately rendered by the Massachusetts Supreme Court regarding what is known as the Weavers' Fine Bill, is of much more than State interest. It was alleged that, in some mills, operatives were cheated out of a part of their wages by the imposition of unjust fines, which were levied on the false ground that their work was imperfect; and "organized labor" demanded of the Legislature the passage of a bill which should forbid the laying of any fine. The language of the act was thus explicit: "No employer shall impose a fine upon or withhold the wages, or any part of the wages, of an employee engaged at weaving for imperfections that may arise during the process of weaving." The manufacturers determined to fight the issue out in the courts, and the highest judicial tribunal in the State has now decided, with but one dissenting judge, that the act is unconstitutional. The opinion of the Court quotes from the Constitution of the United States the clause prohibiting any State legislation impairing the obligation of contracts, and from the Massachusetts Bill of Rights the clause which declares the right of acquiring, possessing, and protecting property to be natural and inalienable, and applies these principles to the case in hand. The Court holds that the right to acquire, possess, and protect property includes the right to make reasonable contracts, and that it is a reasonable contract to agree to pay full wages for weaving cloth with proper skill and care, and to withhold a part of such wages if the work is imperfect. It follows that a law which forbids the making of such contracts "is an interference with the right to make reasonable and proper contracts in conducting a legitimate business, which the Constitution guarantees to every one."

What is of some particular interest to us in the family quarrel now going on between Newfoundland and Canada is the fact that the ill-feeling was originated and brought to its climax by the recent discrimination of Newfoundland's people as a whole in favor of our nation. Despite the apparent failure of the late reciprocity negotiations between Newfoundland, Canada, and the United States, the people of the island have granted our fishermen practically all the privileges of free bait asked for by us in that conference, and this without any concession whatever on our part. It would not be easy to say whether the islanders were at the time more pleased at granting a favor to the United States or at outwitting Sir Charles Tupper, whose interference as Canadian delegate with the Washington negotiations they bitterly resented. The friction between Newfoundland and Canada has rapidly increased since that episode. Vexatious obstacles were deliberately placed by the Newfoundlanders in the way of bait purchases along the coast by Canadian fishing vessels. When recently the Canadian authorities, after vainly endeavoring to put an end to these annoyances, retaliated by placing a duty on all imports of fish from Newfoundland, the Newfoundland Ministry promptly retorted by putting in effect a discretionary piece of legislation, originally enacted merely for bluff, and decreeing that imports of food products from Canada to Newfoundland should pay twice as much duty as the same imports from the United States. The quarrel is silly in many ways, as are all "tariff wars," but it is an interesting bit of current North American history. Annexation to the Dominion, which a few years ago used frequently to be referred to as a possible plank in the platforms of Newfoundland's petty politics, is now so universally unpopular an idea that a particularly cautious and politic Cabinet, once, indeed, accused of leanings towards Imperial Federation, has thought it a judicious stroke to fling open defiance at Canada. All this may be of little present consequence in a colony with a total population of scarcely 200,000, but it may at some future time be a source of annoying perplexity to British ministers, whose habit in the past, as the Newfoundland people fully appreciate, has been to play off concessions of French claims in Newfoundland against French concessions of English claims in Africa.

Monday's despatches from Brazil report the annulling of another of the decrees issued by Fonseca in those happy weeks when his hands were not tied by Congress—the one leasing the Central Railway. This is the most extensive railroad system in the country, was built by State funds, and was substantially under State control. Its management has not failed to exhibit the disadvantages of State ownership. In addition to lax and expensive administration, and the filling of positions of authority by Government favorites, instead of experienced railroad men, the interference of this line with privately owned and competing systems has been very harmful. The smaller lines have been compelled to subordinate their interests to the need of getting as large a revenue as possible for the Treasury out of the great road. In the current budget the gross receipts from this source were estimated at $9,000 000. The Government has more than once refused to grant permission to build other lines which might in part compete with its own system, and has even prevented lines that do reach parts of the same territory from reducing rates on freight, out of regard to its own railroad profits. There has thus been reason for dissatisfaction with Government control of the road, and the proposition to lease it has been more than once advanced. In fact, Fonseca's Minister of Finance made such a proposition to Congress before its dissolution, though it did not find favor. But as soon as the Dictator had got rid of the troublesome representatives, he offered the lease, though on rather onerous conditions: one-half the rent for the whole period chosen—and the lease might be taken for a maximum of thirty-three years—was to be paid in advance. The present Government may have annulled the decree because the lease in itself was improper, or because the sentiment of the country is against leasing the road at all.

Among the many odd things of the day is the determination of the Sultan to send Mohammedan missionaries to China. Two Chinese Mohammedans have arrived at Constantinople, and have made a report to the Sultan on the condition of their fellows in China, and he has determined to establish regular relations with them by means of mission stations established in various parts of the Empire. It is announced, however, that these missions will be in no sense proselytizing agencies. Their object will be simply to comfort, help, and deliver the existing members of the Mussulman faith in the Central Flowery Land. Apropos of this, a writer in one of the English December monthlies, in an account of a visit to the French and English settlements on the west coast of Africa, testifies once more to the great work of civilization and social elevation which the Mussulman missionaries are doing among the negroes in that region, corroborating fully what is said about their success among the natives of India. The chief cause of this success is undoubtedly the absolute equality with his auditors in which the Mussulman preacher puts himself. For him no pony phaeton, or library, or drawing-room, or dining-room, or man servant, or maid servant. He is simply a half-clothed tramp, living on peasants' food and sleeping on the peasants' floor, but charged with a message which consumes him with its perennial fire.

THE CHILIAN COMPLICATION.

THE tone of the President's message on the subject of Chili, and more particularly on the mobbing of our sailors in Valparaiso, is taken to imply that he will recommend a declaration of war against that country in case satisfaction is not accorded to us for that lamentable affair. Of course, very much remains to be learned regarding the affair, and it is still to be determined what we should accept as satisfaction for the outrage—whether apology, or indemnity, or punishment of the offenders. Some embarrassment grows out of the fact that the murder of the Italians in New Orleans a few months earlier remains an unsettled question, and that the Government of Italy still declines to send a Minister to this country. It is necessary to square our negotiations with Chili more or less by our relations with Italy. A distinction is sought to be drawn by the President between the two cases, founded upon the fact that the sailors who were assaulted in Valparaiso were in the service of the Government and wearing its uniform, and that they were assaulted for that reason. It is not the killing that affects us so much as the insult. If it were the killing only, we should be compelled to take the same kind of medicine that we administer to Italy.

Of course, there must be a reason why our sailors are more exposed to mobbing in the streets of Valparaiso than the sailors of Germany or of England—some reason why they are more exposed in Valparaiso than the same sailors would be in Buenos Ayres or Callao. The hostile feeling that leads to mob violence does not spring out of the ground. It does not exist without a cause. Before we decide to go to war, we must see whether we had given any occasion for ill feeling on the part of Chili—not that ill feeling justifies mob violence and homicide, but because it has to be taken into account in any estimate of the causes which justify war.

The President's own statement of the *Itata* affair supplies a cause of irritation which cannot be overlooked. The pursuit and recapture of that ship after she had left our waters, on the assumption that she had violated our neutrality laws, was itself an unfriendly act. It has been pronounced illegal by the only court before which the case has yet been brought. Mr. Harrison says that the then insurgent authorities, who are now the Government of Chili, acknowledged the justice of our claim for the delivery of the *Itata*, and offered to give her up, with her arms and munitions, as soon as she should arrive in their waters. But this proves merely that the insurgents were at that time *in extremis*, and could not afford to have the United States Government for an enemy. Of course they would say anything or do anything, in such a pinch, to avoid trouble with foreign governments. Equally irrelevant is President Harrison's assertion that the policy which we pursued in the *Itata* affair was the same that we insisted upon, when our civil war was in progress, on the part of European nations. At that time we claimed whatever it was for our interest to claim, and we took what we could get. We protested against blockade-runners that carried arms and ammunition to our enemies. Foreign governments said: "International law does not forbid the selling or carrying of arms to belligerents. It does not forbid blockade-running; catch the blockade-runners if you can." We caught many of them, but many of them escaped. Neither for those that were caught nor for those that escaped did we ever make any claim on foreign Governments after the war. The building of Confederate war vessels in foreign ports was another matter altogether, having no similitude to the *Itata* case.

President Harrison, we repeat, has supplied a cause of irritation on the part of Chili—not a good cause for the assault upon our sailors, but still an explainable reason. That there may have been other reasons is highly probable. Sailors on shore, after long confinement on shipboard, are sometimes in an uproarious mood. Capt. John Codman, who has had large experience with them, wrote as follows to the Salt Lake *Herald*, under date of November 4:

> "We have Capt. Schley's statement that he allowed 150 sailors, who had been a long time pent up in their narrow quarters, to go ashore on liberty, and that they all behaved themselves in a most exemplary manner. As my old friend here, Major Jim, is wont to remark, 'Mebbe so, mebbe.' I have had thirty-three years' experience on the ocean, and have seen a great many sailors ashore on liberty, but have seldom seen a dozen of them together who would not get into a row, and who, for the most part, did not come off or were not brought off on board the worse for liquor. It would be a great mistake to suppose that all those sailors, firemen, and coal-heavers, of which the detachment was made up, were Americans. Taking the average of the crews in the naval and merchant marine, not one out of seven is American born, and not one out of four is even naturalized. Subject to good discipline as the *Baltimore's* crew undoubtedly were on shipboard, it seems highly probable that those Englishmen, Irishmen, Scotchmen, Danes, Swedes, Germans, and Italians threw off a great deal of restraint when they got on shore. We will assume, however, that if the attack was first commenced by the Chilians, it was cowardly on their part, inasmuch as they were armed while the crew of the *Baltimore* was defenceless. That is the worst feature in the case, and it leaves the blame to be about equally divided between Capt. Schley and the Valparaiso police."

We do not apprehend a war with Chili, but we cannot conceal from ourselves the thought that if Chili was something nearer our own size, the danger would be serious, and would be much augmented by the nearness of the Presidential election. The smallness of our antagonist is a restraint for us and a protection to herself. No possible ending of such a war could bring any glory to us.

SECRETARY FOSTER'S REPORT.

THE part of Secretary Foster's annual report which will be read with most interest is that relating to Treasury receipts and expenditures for the past fiscal year, and estimates of revenue and outgo for the year to come. We are immediately struck by his departure from the form of statement adopted by his predecessor. In Mr. Windom's account of the expenditures of the Government considerably more detail was observed; he grouped his totals under eleven heads, whereas Mr. Foster gives but seven, lumping together in one item of $110,048,167 expenses which the former had explained in their particulars. This makes it difficult, if not impossible, to compare the moneys paid out from the Treasury for particular objects with the sums voted by Congress for those objects, in separate bills. We do not say that such a result was designed by this change of form, but it certainly has come about. Furthermore, Mr. Windom took pains to point out that "the revenues and expenditures of the postal service form no part of the fiscal operations controlled by the Treasury Department," and though required by law to include them in his tables, he immediately deducted them so as to get at the real "ordinary revenues of the Government." But Secretary Foster leaves his "total receipts" at $458,544,233, with no intimation that the $65,931,785 credited to the postal service should be deducted therefrom.

This at once vitiates the comparison which he institutes between the receipts of 1890 and those of 1891. According to him, "the receipts for 1891, as compared with the fiscal year 1890, have fallen off $5,418,847." But the proper comparison is that of his grand total of $458,544,233, less the $65,931,785 credited to the postal service—that is, $392,612,448—with Secretary Windom's $403,080,982. This shows the real falling off in receipts to be $10,468 534 Of the surplus revenue which he arrives at, it is to be said that it is the smallest the Treasury has had since 1879. For the past eleven years the surplus revenue has averaged $103,000,000. Beside this, Mr. Foster's $37,000,000 looks small. It looks smaller yet, and, in fact, entirely disappears, when the total outlay, on the basis of which it is computed, is brought face to face with the sums actually voted by Congress for expenditure in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1891.

On March 3, 1891, Senator Allison asked leave to print in the *Record*, after he had taken time to prepare it, a table showing the appropriations for the years 1890-'91 and 1891-'92. Some surprise was expressed that the table was not then ready, as it had been in former years, but the desired leave was given, and Senator Allison's carefully prepared tables were printed. As he prepared them within less than four months of the close of the fiscal year 1890-'91, it is to be supposed that he knew what he was doing when he wrote down $463,398,510 as the "grand total, regular and permanent annual appropriations" which were "law" for 1890-'91. In fact, he gave all the separate bills with their amounts, so that there can be no doubt whatever of the amount that Congress voted to spend. But, as a matter of fact, Secretary Foster did not spend within $42,000,000 of that amount. If he had paid out all that the appropriations called for, instead of an apparent surplus of $37,000,000 he would have had a deficit of $5,000 000.

But where the Secretary gets bodily into fairy-land is in his estimates of the revenue and expenses for the fiscal year 1891-'92. He puts the revenue for that year at $433,000,000, and the outlay at $409,000,-

000. If this estimate of income had been made when the effect of the McKinley tariff on customs revenue could only be guessed at, there would have been more excuse for it. For example, Mr. Windom estimated the revenue for 1890-'91 $14,000,000 too high, but he had not had a year's operation of the McKinley Bill to go upon as Mr. Foster has. According to the figures for the five months of the fiscal year already passed, which must have been before him, his estimate is at least $11,000,000 too great. But that is not of so much importance as his estimate of expenditures. We must refer again to Senator Allison's table. That was not only carefully prepared, but it was prepared in view of the current charges of extravagance, and was intended to put as good a face upon the matter as possible. Now, it was his deliberate statement that enacted laws called for the outlay of no less than $525,011,618 in the year 1891–'92. Yet here comes Secretary Foster coolly estimating that the expenditures will be no more than $409 000,000! In other words, in addition to the $42,000,000 which he held up of the appropriations for 1890-'91, he proposes to hold up $116,000,000 in the current year. If he succeeds in doing that, we think that many more cases of Government rent unpaid will be heard of, and that there will be still greater numbers of enraged Congressmen wanting to know when the money will be forthcoming which was voted by Congress for public buildings and river and harbor improvements in their districts.

We must also call attention to the disposition which Mr. Foster has made of the funds deposited in the Treasury for the redemption of national-bank notes. By the Act of July 14, 1890, he was directed to treat those funds, then amounting to $54,000,000, as an available Treasury asset. He did so, and treated in the same way the $9,363,715 deposited by banks in the course of the year. Then he expended the entire fund, together with enough other cash taken from the Treasury to make up $134,947,635, in various payments of the public debt. In such payments $23,553,298 is mentioned to the account of redeeming national-bank notes. It is clear, therefore, that he has saddled the Treasury with a liability of $40,000,000 on the national-bank note redemption account. Of course, there is no likelihood that the banks will be surrendering their circulation to anything like that amount; but the fact remains that $40,000,000 which they have deposited for the purpose of redeeming their notes, and which has hitherto been regarded as a fund by itself, has been spent by Mr. Foster for other purposes. He will have to raise the money somehow and some time, just as he will have to pay the deferred appropriations sooner or later. It is all a part of the "after-us-the deluge" policy which characterizes the present administration of the Treasury.

THE SPEAKER'S RIGHTS.

An interview with Mr. Reed, the late Speaker, evidently carefully revised, appeared in the *World* last week, in which he again justified his own course in the last Congress, and fortified himself with an article by Mr. Stanton in the last *North American Review*. "Mr. Stanton proves," said he, "that my views [on the Speaker's right to count a quorum] are held by every parliamentarian in Europe." Turning to Mr. Stanton's article, we find that he cites M. Henri Brisson, who was President of the Chamber of Deputies for four years, M. Jules Grévy, the late President of the Republic, M. Buffet, who was at one time President of the National Assembly, as well as other high French authorities, to show that in France a quorum is made up of members physically present, whether they vote or not; but the fact of their presence is ascertained not by the President alone, *but by the Bureau*, which has to be unanimous in its decision. In Switzerland the presence of a quorum is ascertained by calling the roll. If a quorum answer, a quorum is held to be present at the vote. In Belgium the presence of a quorum is ascertained by a signed list, but if it does not show a quorum, the absentees are put to shame by the publication of their names, and if a member present refuses to vote, all the President can do is to "invite" him to give his reasons for abstaining. In Denmark a member who announces, on the call of the roll, that he does not mean to vote cannot be counted to make up a quorum. In Holland a voting majority is necessary to transact business: physical presence does not count. In Portugal no member is considered present who refuses to vote. In Norway absence from the Chamber is punishable by a fine, but the fact of absence has, of course, to be proved in the ordinary way. In Sweden no quorum is necessary for the transaction of business. In the German Reichstag the presence of a member is ascertained by calling the roll, and if 199 do not answer, no business may be transacted. In Italy there is no rule about "presence."

It will thus be seen that Mr. Reed is mistaken in supposing that his views about the Speaker's power in counting a quorum are "shared by every parliamentarian in Europe." Not one parliamentarian quoted by Mr. Stanton gives any countenance to them. For what did Mr. Reed claim? He claimed the right to *see himself with his own eyes* what members were present, without other evidence, and to count such members for the purpose of forming a quorum. No presiding officer in Europe has or claims any such power. In France, where the closest approach to Mr. Reed's practice is made, says M. Méline,

> "If, when a ballot is to be taken, a Deputy states that half of the members are not on the floor, the *President is obliged to consult the Bureau; and, if the Bureau is unanimous in declaring that a quorum is present*, then the ballot is valid; *but if the Bureau is divided on the question*, a roll-call is ordered for the purpose of finding out how many Deputies are really on the floor."

When we come to compare the other powers claimed and exercised for himself as Speaker by Mr. Reed with those claimed and exercised by presiding officers in Europe, European precedents become still more useless to him. The position of the Speaker of the House, as described by Mr. Reed, is that of a Prime Minister in England and other parliamentary countries—that is, he sits as the leader of his own party, and decides, in conjunction with the Committee on Rules, appointed by himself, of which he is chairman, what business the House shall do. He said:

> "The duty of the Speaker, as I interpret it, is to see to it, as the servant of the House, that the House has the nation's business in hand and does a good session's work. The Speaker and the Committee know what is to be done and about how much can be done, and they map out a programme. . . .
>
> "The duty of the Committee on Rules is not only to present good bills, but to avoid presenting bills at a time when they risk being beaten. They may do useful work for the country by holding off presentation of a good bill which risks defeat until the proper time of presenting it shall have arrived."

The European Speaker has nothing to do with "the nation's business." It is none of *his* business to see that "the House does a good session's work," or to "present good bills." He is a judicial officer, charged simply with the duty of interpreting and enforcing the rules of procedure in the transaction of business, and preserving order in the House. The work Mr. Reed undertook in the last Congress is done in all European countries by the head of the Ministry, who therefore occupies towards the Chair the position of a litigant in a court of justice. The idea of putting the leader of the party in power in the chair, to carry through legislation of a partisan character, like the Force Bill and the McKinley Bill, has never been broached in any parliamentary country.

The bearing of all this on the Speaker's power to count a quorum, and to "see" who is present, for the purpose of making a quorum, is obvious. The "seeing" of a partisan, charged with the carriage of party measures, is obviously inadmissible as evidence under any view of justice hitherto taken in the conduct of either judicial or parliamentary proceedings. Parliamentary institutions would not in any country long survive the adoption of the Reed view of a Speaker's duties. The presence of the leader of the victorious party in the chair, his pockets stuffed full of bills which he was determined to put through, with or without debate, under rules drawn by himself and supported by his followers, would speedily convert parliamentary legislation either into a farce or into an odious tyranny to which no minority would permanently submit.

THE NEW "MINISTRY TO THE POOR."

Considerable attention has been drawn to the decision arrived at two or three weeks ago by a church on Madison Avenue, in this city, to do everything possible to become a "people's church." The members and the pastor were dissatisfied with the meagre numbers touched by their church services, and resolved to devote some $15,000 to efforts towards bringing the people, presumably the unchurched and the poor, within their influence. No one can question the excellence of these intentions, yet they represent a sentiment and method which are rapidly passing away. In this city, indeed, it is as

well established as any fact can be, that the "people," in the sense of the poor, will not go to the churches on Fifth and Madison Avenues, no matter what inducements in the way of advertising and choral services and "breezy discussions of subjects of the day" are held out to them. The best of all proofs of this is that these churches nearly all maintain chapels for the poor, only three or four avenues away from their own doors. The very church referred to supports such a chapel, thus tacitly assenting to the idea either that the poor are not welcome within its walls, or that they will not come there.

It is undoubtedly true, moreover, that these outlying chapels, while doing a praiseworthy work, make but a small impression upon the great masses of non-church-going poor, whose lives remain practically untouched by elevating and reformatory influences. In other words, the plan of inducing the poor to come to the churches has led to results so insignificant that it may be called a failure, and the most hopeful outlook is now in the opposite scheme of getting the churches to go to the poor. We do not mean, of course, to go to them with more chapels, or even to build fine churches in the regions from which, in fact, the churches flee away, one after another, as if from a pestilence; but to go to them in person, through numerous representatives, for week-days as well as Sundays, to live among as well as to visit, to share their social conditions, so far as externals are concerned, and, in short, to seek to deal with them on a basis of equality instead of one of condescension.

Our readers may have noticed the annual meeting of the University Settlements Society, held this week, and may know of the Women's College Settlement in Rivington Street. These organizations represent the beginnings of a movement among us which has been long established in London and other cities of Great Britain. Its origin and growth, methods and results, are described in a lately published volume by Mr. R. A. Woods. Dating back to the Workingmen's College of Maurice, in 1860, where he used to secure the teaching services of young Cambridge graduates, and falling in with the University Extension movement which came a little later, it reached its characteristic and most important development in the determination of Edward Denison and Arnold Toynbee to work for the London poor by living among them. Out of that thought have grown the well-known Toynbee Hall and the Oxford House, with other institutions similar in aim, if not yet of like proportions, the main feature of which is the daily contact established between educated men and women and the poor.

Their work is religious only incidentally and secondarily, although we believe it is undeniable that a religious aim has been predominant in the minds of the founders and supporters of these University Settlements. But it is a religious aim grown wise enough to be willing to work by indirection. The first great gain is in the method of approach, and the persistent and powerful teaching by example. These young Oxford and Cambridge dons who are willing to take lodgings in Whitechapel, and come and go freely in the neighborhood, acquire their first influence by showing that it is not wholly true that the surroundings make the man, and that there are mental resources which make one superior to encompassing squalor and degradation. The effort to share these resources with the people ignorant of them naturally follows, and takes form in the various classes conducted, and in the literary and debating and social clubs which are formed. Manifestly, this is a very different thing from the traditional "missionary work" in cities, and opens the way for religious instruction from an entirely different side.

One valuable result achieved by the London University Settlements is the quickening in their neighborhoods of the sense of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. Casting in their social lot for the time being with the people whose votes do so much to determine matters of local government, the residents are necessarily driven to appeal to the district electorate in order to effect district reforms and improvements. A good example of this is seen in the way a free library was secured for Whitechapel. Some years ago a vote was taken on the proposition to establish one, and it was overwhelmingly defeated. But recently the project was renewed, and, aided by the personal canvassing of 4,000 voters, conducted by more than a hundred representatives of Toynbee Hall, was adopted by a majority of almost four to one. A wide sphere of influence is certainly opened, in these directions, before our New York organizations. Tammany Hall, instead of Toynbee Hall, is responsible for the political education of the corresponding part of our citizens. The men of serious and worthy political, as well as educational and religious, ideals who go to live among them, are in the way of accomplishing greater changes in their way of looking at our civic problems than all the makers of party platforms and nominations, or all the preachers in Fifth Avenue churches, or, alas, all the newspapers.

The London University Settlements have also had a remarkable influence, indirectly, in changing the methods adopted by the churches themselves. The latter have been more and more led to subordinate their purely religious to their social and educational work; or at least to change the emphasis from one to the other. Many instructive examples of this are given by Mr. Woods, none more so than the following:

"A very striking instance of adaptation to the needs of environment is that of a ritualistic church, situated in a region where the people are largely criminal. The vicar maintains a model lodging-house of a very fine kind for men; but the lads' club is the special feature of his work. In his church building, the room consecrated to religious services is up stairs—there being only one other such case in England—and just below is the club-room, whose main feature is a fully-equipped prize-ring, suitably enclosed and raised from the floor for the sake of spectators. Here, two or three evenings in the week, upwards of a hundred lads, nearly all of whom have been in prison, gather to see and participate in tournaments in boxing. . . . In such a way as this many young fellows are brought under good influences who would probably be plying their trade of pickpocket at the street corners, if only the usual mild excitements of church clubs were offered."

If the Church were in want of a precedent for the adoption of the "ministry to the poor" which consists in endeavoring to help them by sharing their life, it could find it in its long-established methods of conducting foreign missionary enterprises. It sends of its choicest and most refined to live in huts and hovels in order to reach the most degraded beings on earth; yet has been singularly forgetful of the same power of personal contact in the case of the poor of its own land. Indeed, one reason given for the removal of a foreign-missionary headquarters in this city from a down-town location to Fifth Avenue was that there were so many unpleasant foreigners thereabouts that the ladies found it disagreeable to come there. Yet the whole work of the missionary organization was to send representatives to pass all their days in immediate contact with unpleasant foreigners abroad. It is as a sign of the growing sense of the inconsistency of such conduct that the University Settlements and kindred institutions in this city have a good part of their significance.

VIENNA'S NEW MUSEUM.

VIENNA, November, 1891.

THE new picture gallery at Vienna has just been opened amid great applause and rejoicing. On all sides one hears praises of the magnificence of the new building, and congratulations on the fact that pictures hidden away in garrets for generations have at length had wall space found for them. The gallery is crowded the five days out of seven when it is opened, and on Sunday morning people push and jostle each other at the main entrance in as great numbers and with as much impatience as at the doors of a favorite theatre. In its way it is as great a popular success as the "Cavalleria Rusticana," which fills every seat in the Opera-house at each successive repetition, or the last new gilded café where gay Vienna drinks its afternoon coffee. And the Viennese can afford to enjoy his new Museum, since he has not been taxed a penny for it; like all the other so-called improvements of the Ring-Strasse, it has been paid for out of that elastic fund of 140,000,000 gulden raised when the old fortifications and ramparts were pulled down and the ground they had occupied was turned into building-lots. Truly Vienna is a lucky city, as a distinguished Hungarian said to me when we visited the gallery together; he, no doubt, thinking, with a statesman's thrift, of the 220,000 gulden which he and his friends have voted for the one painting alone with which Munkacsy is to adorn the walls of the new Hungarian Parliament house in Budapest.

But Vienna would be still luckier if good design and appropriate ornament for the new Museum had been as easily found as money to pay for them. Of the exterior I need here say nothing, for it has been finished several years, and, with the Natural History Museum, of which it is the counterpart even to a hard-and-fast repetition of commonplace detail, has for some time past been a conspicuous feature of the Burg-Ring. But the interior, upon which the architect's fancy has been allowed freest play, has only within the last month been shown to a long-expectant public. Of its magnificence there can be no question; indeed, it would be better if it but failed in this respect to equal current reports. Unfortunately

there has been no exaggeration, and it is as gorgeous as many-colored marbles and much gilding can make it. The gorgeousness, however, is that of a London Holborn Restaurant or a Hoffman House bar. Expensive showiness, pretentious elegance, the characteristic of the architecture as of the life of the new Austro-Hungarian empire, rather than beauty, is the too well realized end of the prevailing scheme of decoration. The keynote to this scheme seems to be given in the conspicuous place, at the top of the main stairway facing the central entrance, chosen for Canova's Theseus: the same honors paid to it in an old museum might have a certain historical value, and then one would not have the statue removed; in a new gallery it is but a sad comment upon the art standard of the management. But the Theseus is not unworthy of the two lions flanking it on either side the great stairway—lions cut after the same model as exactly as if they had been cast in the same mould, expressionless, mechanical, the work of the stone-mason, not of the sculptor—aggressive proofs that bad ornament is far worse than none.

The cheap checker-board design, worked out in the most expensive marble floors and walls, the tawdry over-elaboration of ornament in the dome, the repetition of the same poorly drawn and designed figures in the panels in the walls of the two courts, are all irritating results of the same vulgar tendency of the modern Viennese, to make as much and as loud a show as possible. But by far the most glaring vulgarity of the decorator occurs in the arrangement of black marble columns, gaudily gilded, which support the ceiling painted by Munkacsy, and exhibited by him two years ago in the Champs-Élysées Salon. Of course his work is entirely killed by the violent contrast, with the result that for nine people who stare at the columns, one may look at the painting, and then only to wonder why it should be already so faded and washed out. The color of a Titian, the most stately or sumptuous composition of a Rubens or Veronese, could not stand such a test. Indeed, their paintings in the galleries fare no better, but are simply overpowered by the unbearable pea-green of the background—a color which surely none but a Viennese house-decorator would have dreamed of choosing for the walls of a picture gallery.

The excess of decoration is less serious a drawback in the galleries on the first floor than in those on the second and third. It is in these lower rooms that the wonderful collection of armor from the Belvedere, the antiquities from the same palace, and the jewels and coins from the Burg Treasury are now exhibited; and the color of the walls, the gorgeousness of ornament, do but bring out the armor in stronger relief, while so long as jewels and coins, crystals and precious plate are well placed in appropriate cases in a good light, their effect is neither enhanced nor destroyed by their other surroundings. This part of the building is altogether the most satisfactory. The rooms are spacious and airy, and the light could scarcely be better; it does not fail even on the days when Vienna tries to rival London gloom and grayness. And the arrangement of the different collections is apparently no less successful, though of course this is a point upon which only specialists in each department can speak with authority. Certainly, however, individual specimens are shown to best advantage, and in every case historical or artistic sequence seems to be carefully observed. Of course, the fact that the things exhibited are of enormous interest, even to the average man, has much to do with the attention they command. Few sovereigns are as generous as the Austrian Kaiser in giving the public the benefit of his most precious jewels and priceless treasures; absolutely no other collection of armor can compete in historical value and beauty with the famous one of Vienna. As a rule, if a collector gives examples of every period and country, he is content; but here there is hardly a suit, hardly a weapon, which did not belong to a famous man, king, or hero, thus adding a personal charm which those who otherwise care little for the subject illustrated cannot resist. Armor that, for its own merits, one might pass by with indifference, one stops to look at with a suspicion of sentiment when, for example, it happened to be the property of that Bourbon who fell beneath one of the phenomenal shots of Benvenuto Cellini—as recorded by himself. And so with almost every stand, almost every case. The arms themselves are the secondary consideration; the men who bore them, the fights in which they figured, the first. And this personal interest asserts itself in the other departments as well. Here is the famous Cellini salt-cellar made for Francis I., really less delightful in itself than in his naïve description of its beauty and his own greatness; here, the Albert Dürer sketch-book, open at water-color drawings of figures designed by him for the Triumph of Maximilian; here, the decorations worn by the Hapsburgs of centuries. But it is useless to make a new guide-book to such well-known collections. It is enough to say that they have lost nothing by removal to their present quarters.

It is to be regretted that the picture galleries up stairs on the second floor are so much less satisfactory. The rooms are as large and the light as good, and the series of cabinets, three corresponding to each room, are far more successfully divided and lighted than is usual with these smaller compartments. They are really as enjoyable in themselves as those of Dresden are exhausting. But the pea-green wall alone would more than counterbalance all these not-to-be-belittled advantages. It brings out the gilt frames in fine relief, but it kills the canvases within them as effectively as Munkacsy's ceiling is killed by the gilded marbles. Another mistake, not so deplorable, but still offensive enough, is the staring white bust placed in a dark niche over every door. In some of the rooms there are four doors, and, naturally, the white busts, and not the paintings, first attract the eye. In a picture gallery there should be absolutely nothing to distract attention from the pictures. As little common or artistic sense has been shown in the hanging. There is an attempt to group work together according to period, school, and nation, but with indifferent success. The Italians, it is true, have been kept very well to one side of the building, the Dutch, Germans, and Flemings to the other, the modern men to their own rooms. But beyond this there is little system. Venetians, Florentines, and Bolognese are scattered here, there, and everywhere in the Italian galleries. Of the Frenchmen, a few—Clouet, Vernet, and the eighteenth-century Millet—are stuck in a little corner of an Italian cabinet; while the rest—Watteau, Poussin, Duplessis, Rigaud—share a gallery with Velasquez. The size of a frame, too, often seems the chief reason for hanging a picture in a special place. The most unpardonable instance of this kind occurs in one of the Dutch rooms, where the line of uncommonly fine Rembrandts—the portrait of his mother, one of himself, an old man, and a youth singing—is broken by an aggressive canvas by Jan Lievens, a characterless portrait in a wreath of gaudy flowers, which has no other merit save that in size it exactly balances one of the Rembrandts.

But the worst feature of the gallery is the quantity of trash it contains. There might have been some hesitation in getting rid of worthless canvases so long as the collection remained in the Belvedere; but its removal to the new Museum was an opportunity for judicious weeding-out not given every day to a national or imperial gallery. Instead of making the most of it, however, more canvases have been unearthed from forgotten garrets and added to the already over-large series of rubbish. On a first visit to the Museum one is overwhelmed by the size of the galleries and the number of the pictures; but after a first round, one finds that there is comparatively little to see. In some of the Italian and Dutch and Flemish rooms, two or three paintings at the most can detain one; all are disfigured by the trivialities of obscure artists, by weak, pretentious canvases absurdly attributed to great painters, and by the failures which the latter, as well as the modern man, often enough turned out. It is, in a word, a gallery in which a Guido Reni is supreme, in which the Brummagem imitation is palmed off for the genuine masterpiece. At one time and another favoritism has reigned here, and a Director like Teniers has taken advantage of his position to fill the place with his own tedious performances and those of his friends; and, moreover, the gallery was imperial and had to be kept in the spick-and-span order worthy of an emperor. The trail of the cleaner's scrubbing and the restorer's paint-brush is over it all. There are Andrea del Sartos, all staring Paris greens, and Bordonis, all violent reds and blues and violets, that fairly set one's teeth on edge. There are Raphaels and Parmeggianos done up like new, and a couple of Rembrandts that look as if they had just come out of a bath and had had all character and beauty washed out of them. And who was it, I wonder, who got the commission to go around with that colossal pot of cobalt blue, and now give a good coating of it to a Bellini or a Perugino Madonna, and deepen the draperies of Lotto's Virgin; now touch up the sandals of Moretto's Justina and dash it over any and every other canvas that caught his eye as he passed; or perhaps put in a distant sky or a near bit of sea? It is perfectly inconceivable (but only too painfully evident) that such a piece of vandalism could have been perpetrated.

Modern art, though it fills six rooms on the second floor with oil paintings, and all the rooms above with water colors and odds and ends, might better have been left unrepresented altogether but for a little Troyon and a Makart; and the strangest part of it is that, while of course one comes to the familiar Defregger and Kaulbach, the names of the greater number of artists in this department are absolutely unknown. But perhaps the desire of the management to cover the walls at any cost has its worst outcome in the devotion of two rooms to the not very striking cartoons drawn by Vermayen to celebrate the return of Charles V. from Tunis; and of all the line in a third to the huge map-like battle scenes of Peter Snayers. These may be historical, but they are not art.

That in this labyrinth of mediocrity and worse the good work still holds its own is strongest proof of its greatness. And without question there is good work in Vienna, though

in such decided minority. It is not, however, found among the paintings of Rubens, Dürer, and the Venetian school, where the guide book bids you look for it. All the big Rubenses may have been painted by himself; there is a legend that the Emperor had him watched during the two weeks he gave to his "Four Quarters of the Globe." But, whether entirely his own work or principally that of his pupils, it makes little difference, since certainly the result cannot be compared to his great masterpieces as one sees them in Munich, for example; in Vienna, as in Dresden and many other galleries, it is to his small sketches, to his portraits, one must turn to find the painter, not the manufacturer. The Dürers may be many in number, but one would give them all for the portrait of Holzschuher in Berlin, of Bernard van Orley in Dresden; and as for the famous Trinity, only the little stretch of landscape at the bottom of the canvas is genuinely Dürer-esque, artistically interesting. But it is the Venetians who suffer most at Vienna, the giants among them being made to answer for the sins of the pigmies; the name of Titian, of Tintoretto, of Veronese is labelled on many a picture from which the master himself would have shrunk in disgust. There are, of course, some fine Titians—the man with crimson sleeves holding a statuette in his hand, the three treatments of the same head in one frame (perhaps not painted by him, though he would have been proud, not ashamed, to own it), the large sketch of landscape and figures, the fat man in black and fur, to mention no others; there are fine portraits by Tintoretto, and fairly good Palma Vecchios, and a Bellini and a Carpaccio of no small merit. But the fact remains that walls had better have been left bare than have been covered by the great mass of the work for which the Venetians are held responsible.

The glory of the gallery is really in the series of portraits by Velasquez: the little royal children, in their big hoops and stiff stomachers, with the sheen of their silks, the glitter of their silver lace, rendered as only he could do it; the Infanta Maria Theresa (there are no less than five pictures of her by him here), her rouged face disfigured by the ill-humor which he has made as familiar as the eyes and Austrian lips of his Philip; Philip himself, and his son, the little Don Balthasar Carlos, refined, simple, and strong; a group of Velasquez's own family, his studio and easel in the background; and, probably because they were not *pretty* enough to attract the restorer, only one of his pictures, that of a beggar boy, has been seriously tampered with. Rivalling the Velasquezes are the Rembrandts, the portrait of his mother and that wonderful singing youth alone making up for the dreariness of the rooms one must pass through to reach them. Vandyke also is well represented—that is, in his portraits; not in his uninteresting Madonnas and St. Georges and other Scriptural and allegorical compositions. And here and there one comes across a picture which asserts itself, despite pea-green walls and surrounding rubbish—pictures which differ one from the other as much as Moretto's Justina and the little Adam and Eve by Van Eyck, with the delightful Lilith, half woman, half blue and yellow chameleon; as that head of a Florentine, by an unknown master, which hangs in the first room, and the long, narrow, charmingly decorative panels by Schiavone; as the Cæsar's Triumph drawings by Mantegna, and the Judith, effective in its somewhat conventional, dramatic way, of Allori. There are good examples, too, of a man like Ruysdael, whose landscapes artistically have so little to interest the modern painter; and there are one or two instances, Peter Breughel the most notable, of an artist who in other galleries sinks into apparently well-merited obscurity, here coming to the fore, not so much because of artistic excellence as by the force of his own individuality.

But, when all is said, and even if I went still further into detail and wrote out a whole catalogue of the exceptions, it cannot be denied that bad and indifferent, restored and cleaned-up work is the rule. Here, in its gorgeous new quarters, instead of being impressed by the collection, one only wonders how it was that Vienna ever ventured to rank its gallery among the great ones of the world. And it is the same in all the other galleries of the town—in the Academy, in the Art and Industrial Museum, in the Lichtenstein Palace: everywhere, to an acre of rubbish you may find perhaps a few feet of decent work; everywhere a big, rather than a good, show is the ideal striven after. But what can be expected of people who, though they brag of their capital as a great art centre, deliberately took the beautiful old glass from the windows of St. Stephen's Church to replace it with hideous memorials to some popular hero or popular event—I neither know nor care which? They may now pride themselves on their gaudy new picture gallery, but to the real lover of art it can have little attraction until its walls are repainted and redecorated, until four-fifths of the rooms are closed, and the remaining fifth filled with the canvases which alone deserve to have survived the generation that produced them.

N. N.

CLARETIE'S LIFE OF LE SAGE.

PARIS, November 26, 1891.

THE author of 'Gil Blas' will always remain among the French classics. Le Sage may be said to be the first novelist of the eighteenth century. The fate of novels was very different then from what it is now: the public of the end of the nineteenth century may be defined as a novel-reading public; the success of a review, of a magazine, of a newspaper depends greatly upon the quality of its novels. We may have become very prosaic, very realistic, yet we live much in a world of pure imagination. We are not satisfied with the numerous sensations which are given to us daily by our own private affairs, by the affairs of the whole world, which are brought very near to us by the newspaper and the telegraph: we must have imaginary joys and hopes and fears. The combinations of each life, rich and varied as they are, do not satisfy us; we want other combinations, created by the invention of writers.

I often wonder how a man can sit before a table and write a novel; all has been said, all has been thought, the play of passions has no secrets for us. It was not so in the happy days when there were hardly any novels, when people contented themselves with studying history. History also is a sort of novel, as it never comes to us except through the imagination and the theories of the historian. Novel-writing began in France with what may be called the metaphysical or the historical novel, or a mixture of the two. Le Sage was the true creator of what we call the *roman de mœurs*, of the novel which pretends to be an exact description of ordinary life.

The biography of Le Sage has recently been written by M. Léo Claretie, a nephew of M. Jules Claretie, the member of the French Academy and the present Director of our French Theatre. His 'Essai sur Le Sage' was originally a thesis written for the doctorship in letters, but has now assumed the proportions of a volume—and a very readable volume it is. Le Sage was born at Sarzeau, near Vannes, May 8, 1668; his father was Claude Le Sage, sieur of Kerbistoul, royal notary, farmer of the tithes of the Abbey of Prières. He was educated at the College of Vannes, and went to Paris to study law. He never returned to Sarzeau, but, says M. Claretie, "Breton he remained all his life by character, pride, independence, probity, tenacity carried to obstinacy, and by superstition." Collé gives in his journal a characteristic anecdote which shows his pride: "Before 'Turcaret' was played, he had promised the Duchesse de Bouillon to read her the piece; it was thought that the reading would take place before dinner; some business detained him and he arrived late. The Duchesse de Bouillon received him with an appearance of impatience and pride, and told him, with an air of discontent, that she had lost an hour waiting for him. 'Well, madame,' said Le Sage coldly, 'I will make you gain two hours.' After this short speech he bowed and went away."

Le Sage, at the age of twenty-six, married Marie Elisabeth Huyard, daughter of a Parisian bourgeois; the mother of his wife was named Marie Carlos, a name which suggests a Spanish origin. Perhaps his mother-in-law gave him the first idea of 'Gil Blas.' As a lawyer, Le Sage had no success; he very soon gave himself entirely to literature. We shall say nothing of his 'New Adventures of Don Quixote,' which appeared in 1704. His first successful book was 'Le Diable Boiteux,' which came out in 1707, and had a second edition in the same year. Two gentlemen fought, sword in hand, at Barbin's shop (the famous Barbin, who sold his books on the steps of the Sainte-Chapelle) for the possession of the last copy of the second edition. Dancourt gave a play at the French Theatre, "Le Diable Boiteux," and soon afterwards another, "Second Chapitre du Diable Boiteux."

The 'Diable Boiteux' is the only novel of Le Sage's now read with 'Gil Blas.' The idea is ingenious: the devil takes off the roofs of the houses of Paris, and shows us the inner life of the capital; we have thus a true picture of every-day life such as had been shown so far only on the stage, in the comedies of Molière, Regnard, Dufresny, Dancourt. The public found in it, under a thin veil, the stories and scandals which amused it at the time; the style was clear, lively, witty, without affectation.

'Gil Blas' has a singular history. It did not appear as a whole, but in four parts; the two first were published, in two 12mo volumes, by P. Ribon, in 1715; there exist only two or three copies of the first volume, antedated 1714. I found one of these volumes, marked 1714, on the Quai Voltaire, not in a bookseller's shop, but in one of the little boxes which the *bouquinistes* put on the wall of the quai; the *bouquiniste* felt instinctively that the volume had some value, and sold it to me for a price which he thought was very high. The two first parts (1715) have become very rare. The third part was published in 1724 by the Widow P. Ribon, full nine years after the two first; the fourth part came out eleven years afterwards, issued by Jacques Ribon in 1735. The bibliophiles have only lately begun collecting their 'Gil Blas' with these four volumes, which are the true original parts of the works. It is extremely difficult to secure good copies of the four, as they are always found in old calf bindings, with pages soiled and torn. To this first original edition of 'Gil Blas' the biblio-

philes add the edition of 1747, published in four volumes by the Libraires Associés, an edition which was revised by the author. A good library ought to have both these editions.

I have often asked myself why there were such long intervals between the publication of the first parts and that of the two others. Was the reading public so limited? Did not 'Gil Blas' meet with the same success as the 'Diable Boiteux'? Did Le Sage get tired of his own work or grow discouraged? Did he search for new documents in Spanish literature, which was of such resource to him in all his works? The answer to these questions is not given in the volume of M. Claretie. We can only conjecture that 'Gil Blas' was the favorite work of Le Sage; that he polished it and repolished it incessantly. It was to him what the 'Caracterès' was to La Bruyère, who printed seven editions of his work in his lifetime, always adding new portraits, new reflections, new maxims. We see also in the biography of Le Sage that his time was continually taken up by other writings, and especially by the plays which he had to prepare during twenty-six years for the Théâtre de la Foire. This theatre was the temple of satire: Le Sage spent the greater part of his life upon small plays of all kinds—prologues, comic operas, Chinese pieces, satires, vaudevilles, parodies. He had many collaborators—Fuzelier, D'Orneval, and others. He received 4,000 livres a year for his collaboration. It was his daily bread. He wrote, besides, plays, which he never signed with his name, for the Italian Theatre.

The only play of Le Sage's which is still read (it was given at the French Theatre) is "Turcaret." It is a cruel picture of the *fermiers généraux*, of their cupidity, their inhumanity, their vulgarity. During the nine years which separate the publication of the two first parts of 'Gil Blas' and that of the third part, Le Sage shared in the making of forty-two comedies, prologues, and comic operas; in the period which separates the publication of the third and fourth parts we find his hand in thirty-eight plays and in three novels, 'Guzman d'Alfarache,' the 'Aventures de Robert Chevalier dit de Beauchesne,' and 'Estevanillo Gonzalès.'

These last novels are read no longer, or by very few people; they sometimes find a place, when they are in the original editions, in libraries made up of what we call "livres rares et curieux." M. Claretie gives amusing details on the adventures of a pretty girl of the Rue Mazarine, Marie Petit, who followed Favre when he had an official mission to Persia. On the way Marie Petit became the mistress of Ferréol, who bought the famous Circassian slave Aïssé, and who was at the time Ambassador of France in Constantinople. Ferréol wished that the mission to Persia should be given to his own secretary, Michel, and by his order Favre was poisoned. Marie Petit, in man's clothes, took with her the son of the victim, conducted him to Persia, and appeared herself before the Shah as the Ambassador of Louis XIV. On her return to France she was arrested, and in order to exculpate herself she wrote her Memoirs. Ferréol wrote his reports on her scandalous life in Persia, her abjuration of the Christian religion.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs asked Le Sage to make a narrative of the adventures of Marie Petit. M. Claretie gives us Le Sage's answer to the Foreign Office. It is a curious autograph, now in the collection of M. A. Bovet, who bought it in June, 1884, for 1,010 francs (a high price, but autographs of Le Sage are very rare). She acknowledges, he says, in her relation of her journey, that

"at Erivan she was looked upon as an houri, but protests that she did not make the happiness of the Mohammedans, not even of the old Khan who adored her. The love of this good lord had nothing material in it—quite in accordance with the opinion we have of the chastity of the Levantines; she even never had any criminal weakness for M. Favre, whatever may have been said. This Cleopatra of the Bourbonnais, happier than the Cleopatra of antiquity, has the privilege of charming men without corrupting their manners. . . . Conducting negotiations, she had no other object than the service of the King and of the nation. . . . The 'Memoirs' which you communicate to me, and in which I find a character of truth, have shaken all my ideas. The pen which I kept ready for the justification of a woman who did not seem to me so guilty, falls from my hand, and I see now in her an adventuress, whose life seems to me less worthy of being offered to the curiosity of men than of being concealed from it."

This ironical letter ends with a question: Le Sage asks what remains for him to do; but it is quite clear that he has no desire to become the historiographer of Marie Petit. In fact, the incident dropped there, and Marie Petit is still waiting for an historian.

M. Claretie attaches some importance to the 'Adventures' of the filibuster Beauchesne, and tries to resuscitate this now forgotten novel, which, he says, is as amusing as the novels of Jules Verne. I doubt, however, whether modern boys will like it as well; modern boys delight in semi-scientific works, and Beauchesne had no knowledge of electricity.

The biography of Le Sage is really the list of his works, which is a very long one; his life had no incidents. He was not a man of the world, he refused to become a candidate for the French Academy; he spent his time with a few friends in the cafés of Paris and was not seen in the salons; the cafés of the time were almost literary salons. He retired in his old age to Boulogne, where he was most respected, and where he died on the 17th of November, 1747.

Correspondence.

WHAT DID IOWA MEAN?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Four questions were distinctly presented to the voters of Iowa at the late election: First, Shall the prohibitory law be abandoned in favor of some form of local option and license? Secondly, Is the extreme protective policy of the McKinley Bill wise? Thirdly, Should there be free coinage of silver? Fourthly, Shall the Republican or the Democratic party control the districting of the State, and shall the Democracy have a chance to "Michiganize" the State for the coming Presidential election?

Immediately after the election it was generally asserted that the Democratic victory was wholly or mainly a decision against prohibition. But now that the full returns are at hand, in detail, it is plain that more than one question was answered. I know positively that each of the above four issues was considered to be supreme by some voters, and study of the detailed returns shows that each had influence. The fourth and third, however, cannot be easily isolated; but no one who talks with voters can doubt that many dissatisfied Republicans were held in the ranks by them. Republican speakers and organs insisted that if the Democracy should obtain control of the Legislature, the State would be gerrymandered and "Michiganized." This fear was used as a whip on those who disapproved of the party policy, and if the next General Assembly of the State is not controlled by the Democrats, it will be for just that reason. The silver question seems also to have prevented some such Republicans from voting, as they wished to do, for the Democratic candidates for State offices. The McKinley Bill was certainly condemned, as appears from the fact that many counties in which prohibition seems to have succeeded, and which will demand local option if the present law shall be repealed, showed heavy Democratic gains and Republican losses. The verdict, too, was unmistakably against the prohibitory law, but it cannot be maintained that that was the only decisive issue. Old Republicans and young men of Republican antecedents voted for Democratic candidates on account of dislike of both the prohibitory law and the McKinley Bill. And the condemnation of them was not as pronounced as was the feeling against them, because some did not wish to seem to favor unlimited coinage of silver, and others, who wanted the State prohibitory law repealed, dared not vote for the candidates who, if elected, would be sure so to do.

How, then, is this decision against the prohibitory law to be explained? First, it reveals the fact that very many old Republicans who favored the law and expected good from it at first, have been convinced that it is not the best weapon to use against the liquor curse now and here These voters are still thoroughgoing temperance men, but they think that they have learned by experience that prohibition is too largely a failure in Iowa. If this were all, I do not see that any one ought to be troubled, for we ought all to be able to distinguish between opposition to the drink evil and prohibition, which is only one of many forms of opposition. But I cannot hide from myself that another and much more serious fact was revealed. All evidence goes to show that a disproportionate number of young men voted against prohibition, and these young men meant to secure for themselves and others the privilege of drinking conveniently and legally, if they should please so to do.

It was by that sort of old-fashioned temperance work which our more advanced prohibitionists despise, as being far behind the times, that the majority of the voters of Iowa were taught to array themselves against strong drink, and then to embody their opposition in a law. But since the enactment of that law there has been a diversion of energy from the work of persuading young people one by one to take a stand against this evil by both their personal habits and their influence. Instead of that, we have had constant discussion of the law, with arguments to show that all other reliances are a delusion and a snare, and that all people who distrust the law are unsound on the main question; and the result is (was it not to have been expected?) that troops of young men signalize their arrival at voting age by going to the polls to cast a vote for what they consider "personal liberty." While we have been busy in defence of the law, they have been concluding that the right to drink comfortably, conveniently, socially, and legally is a thing worth voting for. N. V. N.

Story Co., Iowa.

MR. CLARKSON'S PECULIAR WAYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Clarkson affirms that "the hope of the party lies in the expansion of a stalwart

Republican press." It was therefore, no doubt, with purely patriotic views that he stole, a few years back, the mailing-list of the *Voice*. That a man capable of such an action should be able to hold up his head and should be considered fit to be President of the so-called "National Republican League," is a most striking proof of the degradation that has overtaken our political methods. M. C. L.

PHILADELPHIA, December 13, 1891.

THE MAYOR OF CLEVELAND AND HIS CABINET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having read the able arguments of "G. B." with interest and faith, and believing the ideas therein fully as valuable for local as for national application, I was pleased to see the following in the new municipal law for the city of Cleveland:

"Sec. 27. The Mayor and heads of the several departments shall each have seats in the Council, and the Mayor shall be entitled to take part in its proceedings and deliberations on all questions, and the heads of departments shall be entitled to take part in its proceedings and deliberations on all questions relating to their respective departments, subject to such rules as the Council shall from time to time prescribe, but without the right to vote; and such officers may be compelled to attend meetings of the Council in the same manner as the members."

The law has other good points, but has been in operation only about six months.—Respectfully yours, WILLIAM WALKER.

ALLEGHENY, PA., December 7, 1891.

WOMEN TEACHERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZÜRICH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent letter I informed you of the result of the proceedings of the Senate of Zürich University regarding the bestowal of the "venia legendi" upon women. This week the governmental Council of Education discussed the matter from the legal point of view, and decided that no distinction can be made between men and women as such. Female as well as male candidates for the honor of "Privat-Docent" must bring proofs of their capacity to do scientific work, and hold a "test lecture" which shall be satisfactory to the respective faculty. The faculty is the highest authority on the question of qualification, so the way is open.—Yours respectfully, A. L. G.

ZÜRICH, December 3, 1891.

Notes.

IN April, 1891, a MS. was sold in Philadelphia purporting to be a set of prayers, or "Daily Sacrifice," in the handwriting of George Washington, though the script is very different from any known writing of Washington. It is now announced for publication, with an introduction on the religious life of Washington by the Rev. Charles F. Deems, and a special recommendation to ministers: "It is conceded that the prayers of George Washington will be of great value in your labors, they being a powerful argument in favor of religion, and may be the means of converting the unbeliever." It is a pity that some effort has not been made to convert those who do not consider the prayers as by Washington, before making one more addition to the mass of suspected Washington material.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will shortly issue the eighth volume of the new 'Chambers's Encyclopædia'; 'Ashes and Incense,' poems by Waltman Barbe; 'A North-Country Comedy,' by M. Betham Edwards; 'A Divided Duty,' by Ida Lemon; and 'The Tannins,' a monograph on vegetable astringents, by Dr. Henry Trimble.

Worthington Co.'s holiday list includes 'With Stanley in Africa,' a summary of this explorer's adventures by Capt. McClure; and 'Manners and Customs of Spain,' by James Mew, with etchings by R. de los Rios.

D. C. Heath & Co. have nearly ready 'Beowulf,' translated into modern metres by Prof. John Lesslie Hall of the College of William and Mary.

Ginn & Co. announce for January 'Ben Jonson's Timber,' edited by Prof. Felix E. Schelling of the University of Pennsylvania.

Leach, Shewell & Sanborn have in press Johnson's 'Rasselas,' edited by Prof. F. N. Scott of the University of Michigan, and a 'Plane and Spherical Trigonometry,' by Prof. E. Miller of the University of Kansas. This firm, by special arrangement, have become the American publishers of Dr. Kiepert's 'Atlas Antiquus.'

The recent excellent performance in this city by the Meininger players of Von Kleist's drama, "Die Hermannschlacht," leads us to mention a work by Richard Tieffenbach which will soon appear in Berlin, with the title, 'Ueber die Oertlichkeit der Varus-Schlacht'—a question of permanent interest not yet definitively decided.

A practically unknown corner of art history has been explored by Robert H. Lamborn, Ph.D., in 'Mexican Painting and Painters: A Brief Sketch of the Development of the Spanish School of Painting in Mexico,' of which a limited edition of 500 copies has been printed for the author. Dr. Lamborn passed some seven months in Mexico in the years 1881 and 1883, and made a collection of nearly eighty pictures of the Mexican branch of the Spanish school of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, which is now deposited in the Pennsylvania Museum in Memorial Hall, Philadelphia. His interest thus aroused, he was surprised to find that this school was almost entirely ignored by the makers of dictionaries of art and biography, and his little monograph of seventy-six pages is the result of an attempt to fill the gap. It includes, besides a general disquisition on the development and decay of the Spanish-Mexican school of painting, short biographical notices of 121 painters and a catalogue of his collection. It is beautifully printed on heavy paper, and illustrated with two phototypes from originals in the author's collection, and an outline of the "Entombment" at Tzintzuntzan, attributed to Titian. It should be a valuable addition to the reference-books of our great libraries. Copies may, presumably, be had of the author, whose address is Washington, D. C.

'Symbolism in Christian Art,' by F. Edward Hulme, F.L.S., F.S.A. (Macmillan & Co.) is one of the thousands of books which are brought into existence every year without any apparent reason. As we already possess, in English, several good manuals upon the subject treated, the only excuse for the production of another would be that it is an improvement in some particular upon those which it follows, and this Mr. Hulme's book is not. It is not, on the whole, a bad compilation, but it is by no means free from errors, and its style is dry and unattractive. There are numerous illustrations, of mediocre quality.

'George Eliot; Her Early Home' (Raphael Tuck & Sons) is the title of an attractive gift-book, elaborately illustrated by different hands. Views of Nuneaton, Griff, and other places, taken on the spot, serve to show how closely the great novelist followed each detail in the descriptions which are scattered through her verse and prose, and are here collected as a text for the engravings. The march of improvement, while it is almost more deliberate in rustic England than anywhere else in the world, is gradually changing the appearance of George Eliot's favorite shire; but many of the cottages, manor houses, and churches which she has made familiar to her readers are still very much as they were in the days of her impressionable childhood, and they are admirably reproduced here. A mistake of the printer makes the date of her death 1860 instead of 1880.

There have been many editions of Sheridan's great comedy, with and without prefaces and illustrations, but we doubt whether the new issue of "The School for Scandal," illustrated by Lucius Rossi (Raphael Tuck & Sons), is not that with the largest page. Unfortunately, the typographical arrangement of the text in double columns is tasteless; and the black and white of the letterpress does not marry well with the gay colors of Rossi's polychromatic illustrations, which apparently are somewhat greasy lithographic reproductions of water-color drawings. The costuming is picturesque, but the figures lack character to such an extent, for instance, that it is not easy at first glance to distinguish *Lady Teazle* from *Maria*, and in like manner *Charles* and *Joseph* are inadequately differentiated. Still, as an example of the use of color in book-illustration, this edition of "The School for Scandal" is not without interest.

The satirical "romaunt of the town," 'Sybilla,' by T. C. DeLeon (Mobile: Gossip Printing Co.), takes on a holiday form, yet would not arrest attention but for the photographic illustrations, which consist of tableaus "made by ladies and gentlemen from our society" on occasion of the reading of the poem. These are more agreeably representative of Southern society than the text, if not worthy of Mr. De Leon's exaggerated praise in comparison with artistic compositions.

A. Witteman, 67 Spring Street, sends us two seasonable collections of characteristic views of New York and Brooklyn, generally well chosen, but too often ill-printed by the heliotype process. For pictorial effectiveness the New York cover view is unsurpassed.

A number of reissued classics are on our table and need hardly more than the finger-post. The 'Arabian Nights' squeezed into three volumes of the dainty "Knickerbocker Nuggets" series (Putnams) suggests the feat by which the genie returned into the casket. The selections are from Lane's version, and are accompanied by Stanley Lane-Poole's preface. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have issued very taking editions of 'The Scottish Chiefs' and 'The Children of the Abbey,' each in two volumes, handsomely printed, and bound in exceptionally good taste. Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford' cannot well be thought of as more fittingly or attractively attired than in the edition just brought out by Macmillan & Co. Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie furnishes an introduction with some personal and local reminiscences, adapted rather for past readers. The illustrations are by Hugh Thomson, and are both ornamental and in keeping with the spirit of the book. The typography is admirable, and the cover is richly gilt after an appropriate design by Mr. Thomson.

Two thin volumes of Yule-tide stories and

two of "Christmas poems from round the world" make a series called 'In the Yule-Log Glow' (Lippincott). Mr. Harrison S. Morris, who is responsible for the selections and may be praised for them, has inserted pieces of his own in prose and verse, which show him to be a disciple of the author of the 'Christmas Carol.' The small library is prettily made within and without.

The fancy calendars seem fewer in number this year than usual, and the number might well be diminished in favor of a truer taste. Humor and grace and not a little good drawing are displayed in Pauline Sumter's 'All Around the Year' for 1892, issued by Lee & Shepard in Boston, children being the subjects of the twelve designs in color. Much larger and more pretentious, but also less meritorious, is 'A Year's Sunshine,' published by Raphael Tuck & Sons, after designs by Maud Goodwin, whose coloring and draughtsmanship both leave something to be desired. In book form we have 'Women's Thoughts for Women,' chosen and arranged by Rose Porter (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.). Each of the twelve months has its excerpts from a single writer, beginning with Mrs. Browning and ending with Miss Rossetti. In the case of George Eliot, sentiments borrowed from her characters have by this grouping (with the compiler's personal equation) the appearance of being the writer's own. Here there is nothing, perhaps, to complain of, but an odd effect might be produced by the same treatment of writers of fiction generally.

A fairly bewildering variety meets the eye of one who turns over the bound volume of *Harper's Young People* for 1891. The weekly issue doubtless has its influence in holding down the number of serials—never more than one long one is allowed to run at the same time; and the shorter contributions, thus made predominant, strikingly reveal their great range when massed under one cover. Adventure and extravaganza rule in the stories, and athletics furnish a text for many skilled advisers how to become experts in football, running, jumping, tennis, and the like; nor are the girls forgotten, though they do not fare as well as the boys. "Process" dominates in the illustrations, which are not of a high order, though an occasional animal drawing of Mr. Church's and all of Mr. Gibson's out-of-door work light up the pages.

St. Nicholas for 1891 makes two sightly volumes. The frontispieces furnish the best of the illustrations, three or four being notably good, and next after them come some of the artistic conceits going with fantastic stories. On the whole, the serious aims of the management are well maintained. The leading serial stories are by Mr. Trowbridge and Noah Brooks, and relate to boy-life of a vigorous and homely type. An interesting contribution is made by Mr. E. L. Welles in "My Autograph-Book"—interesting as testifying to the good-nature of celebrities in complying with a boy's request for their autographs, and, in the case of Thackeray's long letter, interesting in other ways.

One of the best of New Year's gifts is *Babyhood* (New York). "The mother's nursery guide, devoted to the care of children," the sub-title defines this valuable monthly magazine, of which the seventh bound volume has just come to hand. Time does less to impair the usefulness of back volumes of *Babyhood* than of most other periodicals, and a full set is much to be prized by any mother of a growing family. An admirable feature from the first has been competent medical direction, for which Dr. L. M. Yale is and has been responsible.

With the close of the year Mr. W. D. Howells will terminate his literary connection with *Harper's Magazine* and assume the chief editorial control of the *Cosmopolitan Magazine* of this city.

The Messrs. Goldthwaite, publishers of the *Geographical Magazine*, project another monthly, to be called *Minerals*.

The Ninth Annual Convention of the Modern Language Association of America will be held in Columbian University, Washington, D. C., on December 28–31 inclusive. At the regular sessions of the Convention the following papers will be presented: "The Gerund in Nineteenth Century English," by Prof. J. L. Armstrong (Trinity College, N. C.); "The Preparation of Modern-Language Teachers for American Institutions," by E. H. Babbitt (Columbia); "The Sounds of R," by Alexander Melville Bell (Washington); "Jean de Mairet: A Critical Study in the History of French Literature," by Julius Blume (Johns Hopkins); "Ignored Resources of French Literature for College Study," by Louise Both-Hendriksen (Brooklyn); "Diminutives in *-ing* in Low German," by A. F. Chamberlain (Clark); "Augustini Sendebrev til Cyrillus, and Jeronymi Levnet," by D. K. Dodge (Columbia); "The Isleños of Louisiana and their Dialect," by Alcée Fortier (Tulane); "Nathan der Weise (with special reference to the criticisms of Kuno Fischer)," by G. Gruener (Yale); "James Russell Lowell as a Prose Writer," by T. W. Hunt (Princeton); "Indo-European Parallel Roots with and without initial *s*, especially in the Germanic Languages," by G. Karsten (Indiana); "A Study of Lanier's Poems," by C. W. Kent (Tennessee); "The Phonology of the Patois of Cachy (Département de la Somme)," by T. Logie (Williams); "The Law Language in England from Edward I. to Henry VIII.," by B. F. O'Connor (Columbia); "The Jersey Dialect (Channel Islands)," by J. S. Shefloe (Woman's College, Baltimore); "Philology and Literature in American Colleges and Universities," by H. E. Shepherd (Charleston).

—We must briefly dismiss here some few remaining children's books of a not very brilliant season. 'The Story of the Iliad,' by Prof. A. J. Church,' and 'The Story of the Odyssey,' by the same author (Macmillan), are skilfully condensed from the original, keeping close to it almost invariably, reproducing the choicest passages with fidelity, and omitting episodes or details of doubtful use to young people. Boys or girls of twelve years or under ought to find either volume equally charming. Mr. Church would have made them still easier reading if he had avoided an occasional artificial phrase, and had dropped the solemn style, as Prof. Palmer does in his 'Odyssey.' The illustrations after Flaxman, colored in imitation of ancient vase-painting, are in harmony with the story and increase the attractiveness of these well-printed volumes. 'Mistress Phil,' by Mary H. Debenham (Thomas Whittaker), imitates Mrs. Ewing's style very noticeably, but the imitation goes no further. The story is set in the English town of Waltham, about the middle of the last century, and the author has taken care to avoid anachronisms, while making no pretence of being historical. Though designed, according to the publisher, "for prizes and rewards," the book is a pleasant one, and teaches its simple lesson of unselfish kindness in an unobtrusive way. Another book which still more plainly shows Mrs. Ewing's influence is 'The Knighting of the Twins, and Ten Other Tales,' by Clyde Fitch (Roberts Bros.). Here, however, there is little originality, and the effect of importing Mrs. Ewing's peculiarly English family life into such of the stories as pertain to this country is, of course, incongruous. It would have been well if, having carried his copying so far, Mr. Fitch had been able to copy Mrs. Ewing's self-restraint, too, and so avoid the sentimentality into which he sometimes falls, particularly when touching upon religious matters. The English antiquarian, the Rev. J. C. Atkinson, in 'The Last of the Giant-Killers' (Macmillan & Co.), offers a number of wonder-tales in which archæology, folk-lore, modern slang, and obsolete words are strangely jumbled together. "Had you rather be better than you seem or seem better than you are?" is the unmannerly question suggested by 'Rose and Lavender,' an English story by the author of 'Miss Toosey's Mission,' etc. (Roberts Bros.), so uncompromisingly does the sharp contrast between solid worth with an unattractive exterior, and folly masked by skin deep beauty, forbid a *tertium quid*. The poor heroine, moreover, is so overladen with her burden of homeliness, clumsiness, and dulness as to make the choice a sadly doubtful one to any but an extra stalwart conscience. 'The Abandoned Claim,' by Mrs. Flora Haines Loughead (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), tells of three children of a San Francisco mechanic, suddenly thrown upon their own resources, who decide to take up Government land for a home. Their farming experience are well related, and make an interesting story, albeit things really run a little too smooth for probability. The tone is serious without being dull.

—Capt. Gronow's 'Reminiscences,' published originally a quarter of a century ago in four successive volumes, have been reissued in two handsome octavos under the title 'The Reminiscences and Recollections of Captain Gronow; being Anecdotes of the Camp, Court, Clubs, and Society, 1810-1860,' with a portrait and thirty-two illustrations from contemporary sources, colored by hand (Scribners). The contents are a series of social anecdotes, varying from half a page to two or three pages in length, in which the author unburdens his memory of the experience of fifty years spent in the midst of the most notable people and social conversation of his time. He passed from Eton to the Grenadier Guards, and lived the career natural to such a beginning, with much respect to "good form" and some eccentricities of his own. He narrates scenes, incidents, and sayings that were truly as much common property as portraits, according to his own view, and he observes the conventions of social good taste. He hits off the character of his work excellently when he describes his reminiscences as "fragmental and miniature illustrations of contemporary history"; he renders a picture of society in its individuality, and the value of the work lies in its multifariousness, its vivacity and clearness of impression, its saving the trifles which give picturesqueness and effect to the times, whether in fashions of thought and behavior or in personality. The illustrations are chosen with much care and skill, and are "strongly characterized, though not precisely caricatures," in order to harmonize with the spirit of a work which deals much with "eccentric personages, odd celebrities and incidents somewhat out of the common order"—so the illustrator, Joseph Grego, describes his method; and in fact these pictures are an added charm of the volumes, which must remain one of the important sources for the social life and manners of the first half of our century.

—We made passing mention, the other day, of Mr. J. G. Bartholomew's article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November on the mapping of North America. This writer states that "no complete and systematic survey has yet been organized in the United States," whereas, notoriously, a systematic topographic survey has been in progress under the Geological Survey for the past ten years, during which time some 650,000 square miles, or more than one-sixth of the entire area of the country, including Alaska, has been mapped upon scales comparable in every respect with those of European countries. For obvious reasons, this survey is being executed for industrial, and not immediately for military purposes, as has generally been the case in Europe. Mr. Bartholomew's oversight is the more remarkable as, in the same paragraph, the work of the Geological Survey is described. His list of maps of the United States, again, is said to contain "only recent and authentic maps" and "original survey publications." It appears, however, that his plan was to include only such as happened to come under his eye; and as there is little attempt at classification and no apparent attempt at selection, the result is curious, and well illustrates the proverbial ignorance of Europeans concerning this country. No distinction is made between the mother maps, as those made from original sources of information may be designated, and those compiled from them. Little distinction is made between topographic maps proper and maps made to serve special and specific purposes. Maps which have long ago been supplanted by later and better work occupy quite as prominent positions as these. Several of the most prominent of the compiled maps are omitted, while, on the other hand, the list is extended to include the diagrams of postal routes, maps of mines and mining districts, of land grants to railroads, etc. A series of maps published by Rand, McNally & Co. of Chicago are given prominence in a paragraph, while those of no other of the scores of map publishers of the country are named. There is no good reason why such a list should not have been extended to the dimensions of several volumes.

—Apropos of what has recently appeared in the *Nation* with regard to the correspondence of Paul Dudley and Cotton Mather with the Royal Society, a correspondent sends us the following note in illustration of the side lights that are thrown upon the history of the colonial period by letters to be found among the archives of the Royal Society. Dr. William Douglas had a strong dislike to Cotton Mather, and wrote in depreciation of his 'Magnolia,' from which, however, the author of a history of the Plantations did not scruple to annex much information:

"Writing from Boston on the 25th of September, 1721, William Douglas desires of Dr. Alexander Stuart his 'serious thoughts,' and those of his 'ingenious friends of the profession,' and particularly 'Dr. Meade's opinion of a practice called inoculation of the small-pox, communicated to the Royal Society by two correspondents from the Levant.' Dr. Douglas had lent the *Transactions* (Nos. 339 and 347) to 'a certain credulous preacher of this place called Mather.' Upon the arrival of the 'Small Pox (after nineteen years absence) here last spring, the clergy, spirited by Mather, preached up Inoculation. I not sufficiently assured [?] of its consequences did most possible to oppose this rash practice. We have in all to this time had above 60 persons inoculated of all ages, sexes, and conditions. One or two hundred dyed. Several have had the confluent sort accompanied with a fretor [?] peculiar to Inoculation. . . . From morning to night I am employed in tending small pox patients, and I reckon that before next Jan. I shall have seen more persons in that distemper than I could have seen in my lifetime in any part of Europe.' . . . About 10 000 persons in 'this Town who have not had the small pox, and at present writing about 100 decumbents. Please send your letter to the New England Coffee House, to be put into any Boston Ship's bag.'"

RECENT POETRY.

It is many years since there has come such a discovery, such a veritable *trouvaille* for the lover of wild music, as the book which bears the cumbrous title 'The Bard of the Dimbovitza: Rumanian Folk-Songs,' collected from the peasants by Hélène Vacaresco, translated by Carmen Sylva and Alma Strettell (London: Osgood; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). We have had occasion ere now to praise Miss Strettell's remarkable versions from the Greek Anthology; and here, in dealing with a theme so different, she has shown the same power. These songs belong only to a certain district of Rumania, and were taken down by a young lady from the peasants on her father's estate, where she had to listen for them by cradles and by death-beds; had to learn spinning, that she might join the girls at their spinning-parties, and had to hide in the corn-fields to listen to the reapers. The result is like nothing else, neither the gypsy, nor the Romaic, nor the Arabian songs. It is as if one of those strange tribes of musicians who sometimes drift into Paris or Vienna came sweeping across the stage in strange garments, with flashing eyes and wild voices and chords hitherto unknown. There are "Luteplayer's Songs" and "Spinning Songs"; songs of the sword, of the shroud, of the fire, and of the blood. They deal with nature and time and eternity with a strange directness, like that of Emily Dickinson: the graves give up their dead; nay, the dead soldier lies absorbed in the one yearning hope that they will not yet put him actually in the grave till he has learned how the fight ended. Almost every poem has a delicate prelude, like that of a zither, giving some background from nature; or like the "remark" appended to an etching. The song of the fire, for instance, has this prelude (p. 10):

"I consumed the deep, green forest
With all its songs;
And now the songs of the forest
All sing aloud in me."

They sing aloud, indeed, through the whole book. Yet in what language can one find a vision more wild than this (p. 20)?

THE COMFORTERS.

He who sleeps by the fire doth dream,
Doth dream that his heart is warm,
But when he awakes, his heart
Is afraid for the bitter cold.
Didst thou mark how the swallows flew, how they flew away from hence?

My father is dead, and his cap is mine,
His cap of fur and his leathern belt—
Mine, too, his knives.
When I fall asleep, when I slumb'ring lie,
Then the knives spring forth, from their sheaths they fly,
And roam the fields.
I know not whither the knives have strayed,
But when morning dawns, at my window pane
I hear a tapping—I fling it wide,
And there are my knives come home again.
"Where have ye been?" I ask them then,
And they make reply: "In the hearts of men!
There was one so sick for love, and torn—
We healed its wound;
And another was weary and travel-worn—
We gave it rest.
For dear to us are the hearts of men,
And dear their blood;
We drink it as furrows drink the rain,
Then, tapping, come to thy window-pane:
Make way for thy knives, they have done their work.
Now wipe the blood with thy sleeve away—
Thy sleeve with the dusk-red broidered flowers—
And wash the sleeve in the river clean,
Then thrust us once more our sheaths between,
The sheaths on the leathern belt."

He who sits by the fire doth dream,
Doth dream that his heart is warm,
And when he awakes, his heart
Is afraid for the bitter cold.
Didst thou mark how the swallows flew, so swiftly away from hence?

Or as this (p. 22)?

AT A GRAVE.

Look not upon the sky at eventide,
For that makes sorrowful the heart of man;
Look rather here into my heart, and joyful
Shalt thou then always be.

To yonder grave there ofttimes came a woman,
And said to it: "Hast thou forgiven me?"
"Avaunt!" the grave made answer.
Then weeping she would go her way, but going
She ever plucked a flower from the sward.
Yet still the grave would grant her no forgiveness.
Then said the woman: "Take at least my tears."
"Avaunt!" the grave made answer.
But as she, weeping, turned away and went,
Behold, the grave-stone would uplift itself,
And the dead man gaze forth,
Sending a long look after her, that woman
Who weeping went her way.

Look not upon the sky at eventide,
For that makes sorrowful the heart of man;
Look rather here into my heart, and joyful
Shalt thou then always be.

Side by side with these weird visions there are the most delicate and graceful fancies. It is the Rumanian practice to paint a flower on the wall of every cottage where a maiden lives. Should she fall from virtue, the flower is effaced, and it is thought that no rain will fall and no flower grow beside that cottage again. Many are the songs which allude to this simple and primitive symbol. And to show how direct and tender is the sympathy with nature in these songs, read this, entitled "Hay" (p. 73):

Yesterday's flowers am I,
And I have drunk my last sweet draught of dew.
Young maidens came and sang me to my death;
The moon looks down and sees me in my shroud,
The shroud of my last dew.

Yesterday's flowers, that are yet in me,
Must needs make way for all to-morrow's flowers.
The maidens, too, that sang me to my death
Must even so make way for all the maids
That are to come.
And as my soul, so too their soul will be
Laden with fragrance of the days gone by.
The maidens that to-morrow come this way
Will not remember that I once did bloom,
For they will only see the new-born flowers.
Yet will my perfume-laden soul bring back,
As a sweet memory, to women's hearts
Their days of maidenhood.
And then they will be sorry that they came
To sing me to my death.
And all the butterflies will mourn for me;
I bear away with me
The sunshine's dear remembrance and the low
Soft murmurs of the spring.
My breath is sweet as children's prattle is;
I drank in all the whole earth's fruitfulness,
To make of it the fragrance of my soul
That shall outlive my death.

We have given but a faint impression of the wealth and variety and freshness to be found in this extraordinary volume. It seems to cheapen civilization, and it is certainly "a far cry" to return from it to civilization again. Yet another book from a widely different source—since what is farther from Rumania than Chicago?—gives us a fascinating nomad in its heroine, who might almost have been nurtured on these songs of the wild East. This book is Miss Harriet Monroe's 'Valeria, and Other Poems' (Chicago: Privately printed). Mark, for instance, the rhythmic cadence in this song of the travelling child-minstrel (p. 10):

"[She sings and dances wildly.]
Dance on, children of song, over the hills with me;
Haste down, out of the clouds, down to the sunlit sea.
Wild winds sweep us afar out of the heights they sway.
Ah, come! breath of the south, buried in blue—away!
Come, win kingdoms of light; crown ye with summer's praise.
Sing! dance! tune me your lutes, wreathe them with deathless bays.
Are ye beggars that rove, heirs of the proud world's scorn?
Nay, kings! dowered with wealth richer than gold of morn.
[Reënter the Prince, who listens unnoticed.]
On, on! Ours is the truth; deep in her heart we read,
We give glory to fame, life to the mighty deed.
Gods we—conquering Death, wreathing his brow with flowers,
Give earth all to her slaves—heaven and time are ours!"

The songs contained in a play are often the severest test of a poet, and it is fair to say that none of Valeria's other songs equal this; but the tragedy itself is one of rare conception and grasp, full of surprises, and capable, in the hands of a playwright, of being an effective acting play. The situation at the close of

the third act is peculiarly unexpected and dramatic; and nothing in the play is weak or imitative. The volume also contains, among its shorter pieces, Miss Monroe's "Cantata," sung at the dedication of the Chicago Auditorium, which certainly gives great hopes for her Columbian dedication ode, since her cantata is undeniably strong, varied, dignified, and in good taste. The whole tone of the volume is so well sustained—in keeping with its beautiful execution by the De Vinne Press—that one is surprised not to have heard more of Miss Harriet Monroe. She has evidently troops of friends, however, for the volume is prefaced, in the old-fashioned way, by a long list of subscribers.

Chicago also sends us, although by way of Philadelphia, a volume of 'Dramatic Sketches,' by Louis J. Block (Lippincott), which is far above the average work of young poets in serious thoughtfulness and steady poetic expression.

Among recent American volumes, that by Mr. R. W. Gilder, 'Two Worlds, and Other Poems' (Century Co.), naturally takes the lead, since his touch has grown uniformly steady, his taste is secure, and he shrinks from too daring flights. Yet his longer poems, as his Phi Beta Kappa Ode, well bear study, while he seems to have elevated into especial prominence the briefest of all, the title-poem of the book:

TWO WORLDS.

I.—THE VENUS OF MILO.

Grace, majesty, and the calm bliss of life;
No conscious war 'twixt human will and duty;
There breathes, for ever free from pain and strife,
The old, untroubled pagan world of beauty.

II.—MICHAEL ANGELO'S SLAVE.

Of life, of death the mystery and woe,
Witness in this mute carven stone the whole;
That suffering smile were never fashioned so
Before the world had wakened to a soul.

This is noble and condensed; and the author was perhaps right in giving it precedence, as we read that Wordsworth printed his 'White Doe of Rylstone' in quarto, to show his appreciation of its value. The unmeditative human heart may, perhaps, think that Mr. Gilder might well have given another whole department of his little volume to his poem on his Newfoundland dog, which surely stands out among dog-poetry as "Rab and His Friends" stands eminent among dog-prose (p. 37):

LEO.

I.

Over the roofs of the houses I hear the barking of Leo—
Leo the shaggy, the lustrous, the giant, the gentle Newfoundland.
Dark are his eyes as the night, and black is his hair as the midnight;
Large and slow is his tread till he sees his master returning,
Then how he leaps in the air, with motion ponderous, frightening!
Now as I pass to my work I hear o'er the roar of the city—
Far over the roofs of the houses, I hear the barking of Leo;
For me he is moaning and crying, for me in measure sonorous
He raises his marvellous voice, for me he is wailing and calling.

II.

None can assuage his grief, though but for a day is the parting,
Though morn after morn 'tis the same, though night after night comes his master,
Still will he grieve when we sever, and wild will be his rejoicing
When at night his master returns and lays but a hand on his forehead.
No lack will there be in the world of faith, of love and devotion,
No lack for me and for mine, while Leo alone is living—
While over the roofs of the houses I hear the barking of Leo.

'The Poet and his Self,' by Arlo Bates (Boston: Roberts Bros.), perhaps offers an awkward title for the leading poem; but the whole book has that strength of motive and maturity of utterance belonging to all this author's work. In some cases, as in "A Burial," Mr. Bates seems to us to have gone too near the boundaries of the repulsive, but his "Flower-Cycle" is charming, and the short detached poems 'From a Sketch-Book' afford each a picture, as this (p. 69):

A MARCH DAY.

A single boat lies on the glass-smooth bay,
As gray the water as spun flax, and gray
The sky as smoke; and gray as moss-grown stone
Crumbling on some old grave, forgot and lone,
The shore and boat and tree,
The stretches of beaches,
The long, sandy reaches,
The wavering dunes and the wide, windy sea.

Another thin volume, with a poem of real grasp and movement between its slender covers, is 'The Heart of the Golden Roan' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), by O. C. Auringer, an author residing at Northwood, N. Y., whose 'Scythe and Sword' showed remarkable intimacy with external nature. This poem is wholly different, the gallop of a horse from the mountains to the sea, rendered in an intricate measure most skilfully handled, the whole occurring in a half-ideal world:

THE NIGHT RIDE.

'Twas dark, when like a cloud
On fire, with thunder loud
Of tramping hoofs that ploughed the valley sod beneath us,
We launched into the night,
Whose arms to left and right
Spread to receive our flight, then closed, in gloom to sheathe us.

. . . . . .

So steadily, yet fleet!
The miles from under feet
Reeled backward in retreat, and massed themselves in distance;
The pine-plumes black in air
Streamed past like witches' hair,
The dark boles, lean and bare, seemed writhed in fierce resistance.

As one in dreams of night,
In fancied plumes bedight,
In ecstasy of flight swims the ethereal river,
So I flew on my way,
With spirit waxing gay
As some glad bird in May thrilled with ecstatic quiver,

Till I scarcely heard the beat
Of my stallion's nimble feet,
Or felt the touch of seat, or bridle-rein, or stirrup;
Saw not how onward bore,
Swift, swifter evermore,
My roan—blood to the core! without a cheer or chirrup.

The two volumes of early 'Poems' by John Ruskin (New York: Chas. E. Merrill & Co.) may well excite deep interest in the minds of his faithful admirers, and even among that increasing number who are revolting against his somewhat arbitrary sway. There is a curious fascination in looking through these somewhat commonplace lines—based successively on Scott, Byron, and Shelley—for the germs of that marvellous rhetoric which has charmed a generation. Of this we find no trace until it appears in a note in one of the later poems (ii., 232), which turns out to have been written when he was at work on 'Modern Painters.' Thus early, then, was it manifest that prose, not verse, was to be his vehicle. Too much praise cannot be given to the loving toil of Mr. W. G. Collingwood, who has not merely edited, but compiled the book, and has lavished on it a wealth of detail worthy of some patient German professor commenting a Latin classic.

Another volume deriving its chief interest from the writer's name is the 'Poems' of Mr. W. E. H. Lecky (Appleton); they are truthful and ethical, but not imaginative. The title-page bears on its reverse the new inscription, "Printed in America." Still another book has the yet remoter interest to be found in the name of the author's brother, this book being 'Daphne, and Other Poems,' by Frederick Tennyson (Macmillan). Those who recall the singular grace and beauty of the early sonnets of Charles Tennyson (afterwards Turner) will not be surprised that another of the brotherhood should share the magic gift; and certainly few volumes of sustained blank verse can show so much of the Tennysonian rhythm—the rhythm of "Oenone," for instance—as may be found in these pastorals on these immortal Greek themes. There is no reason, for instance, why Lord Tennyson should not have written with his own hand this passage of exquisitely modulated and varied blank verse from "Ariadne" (p. 73):

"All night the bark held on beneath the moon
And airs that only breathed upon the sea
Lovesighs, and only drew soft answers from it
That trembled back a subtle sympathy,
A soundless ripple, kissing the dark side
O'er which she leant, and heard at intervals
The silvery waters chiming, while the wake
Of the light vessel quiver'd like a flame
In the warm moonlight, vanishing away
Thro' darkest shadows toward her island home,
Whose distant mountain summits seem'd to frown
A silent warning on her silent fears."

Another blank-verse volume, 'The March of Man,' by Alfred Hayes (Macmillan), can claim no such charm of versification, although it expresses liberal and enlightened thought and is dedicated to the memory of Priestley.

Two volumes by women poets, both well known and popular, will be greeted with pleasure by their admirers. These are 'Lyrics and Legends,' by Nora Perry (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), and 'The High-top Sweeting, and Other Poems,' by Elizabeth Akers (Scribners). As between these, we prefer Mrs. Akers's as being more spontaneous and simple, though sometimes commonplace; whereas Miss Perry, who is less often commonplace, carries with her a constant suggestion of artificiality. More pleasing than either is a volume by the late Caroline A. Mason, 'The Lost Ring, and Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), since this lady is well known by her hymns and well represents the religious and domestic muse.

A book of real promise, by a new poet, Richard Hovey, is 'Lancelot and Guenevere: A Poem in Dramas' (United States Book Co.). The meaning of this phrase, "a poem in dramas," is not quite clear, but there is a preliminary drama, more ambitious than the main one, and to our thinking far less successful, since it tries the experiment, always dangerous, of weaving together various mythologies—Pan and Merlin, the Valkyrs and the Angels—without making the ultimate meaning sufficiently clear. But the triter subject of the Arthurian legend is handled with a power which really gives indication of good work to come; and the final situation, where the trustful Arthur heaps love and confidence upon the guilty pair, while they stand cowering beneath the shame of his misplaced generosity, is a noble dramatic conception.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

A NOTABLE number of new editions has recently been published. The fourth edition of Story's 'Commentaries on the Constitution,' by Judge Cooley, appeared in 1873, and the fifth has now been brought out, after an interval of nearly twenty years, by Dr. Melville M. Bigelow (Little, Brown & Co.). The book now for the first time contains a table of cases. How many of the fifteen hundred or so cited have been added by the present editor, we have no means of knowing; nor is it a very important matter, as the reputation of the work rests on other grounds. Judge Cooley's notes have generally been retained. The first volume seems but slightly changed.

In the "Students' Series" the two best books, perhaps, are Cooley's 'General Principles of Constitutional Law' and Bigelow on Torts (Little, Brown & Co.), and we are glad to see new editions of both. Mr. A. C. Angell has added to the former several hundred new citations, which illustrate the development of the law in the last ten years. The latter is a revision rather than a new edition, and a new

chapter on malicious interference with contract is added. The introduction shows that the author still adheres to his definition of a tort as a "breach of duty fixed by municipal law for which a suit for damages can be maintained." This is substantially the same as the definition given in the third edition, and was there stated to be based on the idea that the duty involved in the notion of contract is one fixed by the *parties*. But can any legal duty be said to be fixed by the parties? The parties make the promise, or enter into the undertaking; the law itself raises the duty. The duty is to keep the promise, or to perform the undertaking, and this surely is imposed by law. We can easily conceive of a system of law in which contracts were not enforceable in courts of justice. There would still be an undertaking, but there would be no legal redress for breach of it. Dr. Bigelow's definition appears to us to cover contracts as well as torts, and hence to be misleading.

Judge Drake, in the preface of the seventh edition of his excellent work on Attachment (Little, Brown & Co.), mentions the interesting fact that, in giving it to the public, he becomes, at the age of eighty, the first American legal author who in his own lifetime has edited seven editions of any treatise of his own on any branch of civil jurisprudence. The cases cited have increased from 1,185 to 5,100, 700 being added in the present edition.

Such collections of cases as those of Messrs. H. W. Chaplin and Marshall D. Ewell ('Cases on Criminal Law,' 'Cases on Domestic Relation,' Little, Brown & Co.) are of little use to the practitioner, but are of great interest in another way. The use of cases as the chief means in legal study, set on foot at Harvard, is spreading so fast that in most of the law schools it threatens to produce a revolution such as has lately occurred in Columbia. There the conservatives have been defeated, and the force of a movement which has driven them to set up a law school of their own can hardly be overestimated.

Sir Frederick Pollock's name is a guarantee that his new series of 'Revised Reports' (Little, Brown & Co.) will be well edited. We must say, however, that, for the practitioner, full annotations referring him to the judgments in which the case cited has been criticised and discussed, seem to us a necessity of such a revision.

Mr. Russell H. Curtis's handbook, 'Important Federal Statutes Annotated' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.), will be found of immediate value. It deals with the construction of the new Court of Appeals Act, the jurisdiction and practice of the Federal courts generally, and one or two other subjects. The plan pursued is that of giving the annotations under the sections to which they relate.

When the statutory revision of the laws relating to this city, prepared by three Commissioners, was in 1882 enacted by the Legislature, it was, Mr. Mark Ash says, in his volume on 'The New York City Consolidation Act, as in force in 1891' (Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.), "supposed" that all laws passed afterwards relating to the city would be in the form of amendments to the Consolidation Act. Those who suppose that the Legislature at Albany will do what it ought to do, however, generally reckon without their host. Nothing pleases it better than to pass important laws covertly; and there is no surer way of accomplishing this result than by enacting an amendment without any reference to the act amended. So it has happened in the case of the Consolidation Act. The Legislature has in the last nine years passed "a vast number of laws which, although relating to New York city solely, do not in terms amend any of the sections of the Consolidation Act." Hence the necessity of a new edition of the Consolidation Act, and in the future, no doubt, of many more new editions, until, as in the case of the Code, a new consolidation is required. The edition is annotated with notes of all the judicial decisions. It also contains the Montgomerie and other early English charters, and a valuable Table of Laws, showing the sources from which the various provisions of the Consolidation Act have been taken. So far as we have had an opportunity of examining it, the work seems carefully and thoroughly done.

Mr. Henry Campbell Black's aim in preparing his 'Dictionary of Law' (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co.) has been, in his own words, to prepare a "concise yet comprehensive book of definitions," and not an "epitome or compilation of the body of the law." Vernacular words and phrases are admitted "so far as construed by the courts." English law, Feudal law, Roman law, and foreign law are all drawn upon. The result is a bulky volume of more than twelve hundred pages, containing a very full collection of terms. It seems likely to be a useful book. It might probably be reduced somewhat in size by leaving out a large number of words which appear to have been inserted merely because the definition of them has been involved in the decision of a case. But when they are words which judges and lawyers use exactly as the laity use them, it seems superfluous to include them in a law dictionary. "Dead head" is slang, or colloquial English, not a term of the law; its congener, "dead-beat," is properly enough excluded. "Fabricate," "fabricated evidence," "fabricated fact," mean to a lawyer exactly what they mean to a layman. We may say the same of "fair" (in the sense of just), "false news," "falsehood" (in the ordinary sense of a statement known to be untrue and intended to deceive), "fakir," "faro," "farrier," "farthing," "father," "father-in-law," "fathom," "female." We take these instances from the first few pages of a single letter. If such words are admitted, *any* word the meaning of which might be involved in a decision ought to be given; but this would necessitate the admission of the whole English vocabulary.

The difficulty with most law dictionaries is that their authors have generally endeavored to make them combine the functions of lexicons with encyclopædias. In the hope of making them useful to the practitioner, they are filled with essays on various topics of the law, which cannot possibly in a small compass be made to take the place of a text-book. Bouvier is full of such essays, but then Bouvier's name carried weight such as no succeeding lexicographer has possessed. Mr. Black has wisely endeavored to confine himself to definitions. He has included a long list of legal maxims. We note one or two definitions which do not seem entirely satisfactory. *Assault* is defined by Mr. Black as an "unlawful *attempt or offer* on the part of one man, with force or violence, to inflict a bodily hurt upon another. An *attempt or offer* to beat another without touching him, as if one lifts up his cane or his fist in a threatening manner at another, or strikes at him, but misses him." This definition certainly suggests that the *intent to do* physical harm is an essential part of an assault. Yet in criminal law (and most of the learning on the subject of assault comes from criminal cases) the opposite is held. In the case of the Commonwealth vs. White (110 Mass, 407) it appeared that the defendant was driving a wagon along a highway which H. and S. were repairing, that a dispute arose, in the course of which the defendant took up a gun and, aiming it at S. and H., said: "I have got something here that will pick the eyes of you." The gun was not loaded, but the Court said: "It is not the secret intent of the assaulting party, nor the undisclosed fact of his ability or inability to commit a battery, that is material; but what his conduct and the attending circumstances denote at the time *to the party assaulted*." In other words, acts denoting the threat of an attack constitute in law an assault, though no physical attack be in fact intended. Sweet's dictionary makes this distinction clear. *Family meeting* is spoken of as "an institution of the laws of Louisiana," no hint being given of its origin. The opposition between *Penalty* and *Liquidated damages* is not made clear. The definition of *Res adjudicata* is rather vague; it does indeed mean "a matter adjudged," but *all* matters adjudged are not by any means *res adjudicatæ*. *Republic* is defined as "a commonwealth; a state in which the exercise of the sovereign power is lodged in representatives elected by the people." Webster is given for authority, but the definition merely describes one kind of republic. It should of course include republics without representative institutions. Perfect accuracy of definition is in law, as elsewhere, almost an impossibility, but as we have come upon these in hastily turning over the leaves, it is safe to say that the work will bear a careful revision.

RECENT FICTION.

With My Friends. By Brander Matthews. Longmans, Green & Co.

Three Tales. By W. D. O'Connor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Elsket. By Thomas Nelson Page. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Auld Licht Idylls. By J. M. Barrie. Cassell Publishing Co.

According to St. John. By Amélie Rives. John W. Lovell Co.

Phillida. By Maud Howe. John W. Lovell Co.

Edleen Vaughan; or, Paths of Peril. By Carmen Sylva. Cassell Publishing Co.

Blanche, Lady Falaise. By J. Henry Shorthouse. Macmillan & Co.

The Story of the Glittering Plain. By William Morris. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Darkness and Dawn; or, Scenes in the Days of Nero. By F. W. Farrar. Longmans, Green & Co.

THERE used to be a superstition that the power of literary creation was a special gift of God, never allied with the critical faculty and quite incomprehensible to the man thus favored. He was supposed to have an irresistible impulse to write and then to "go it blind"; a child might know more surely than he whether his work was a success or failure. This pleasant superstition is rapidly disappearing. The modern littérateur loves to tell how he does his work and to strip his craft of mystery. He is entirely unselfish, and if any one else can't write, it is because he is a stupid fellow, not for want of instruction from one who can. No man more than Mr. Brander Matthews has labored to dispel illusions about imaginative writing and writers. All who take an interest in the matter know how he writes plays

and stories, and, by reading the prefatory essay of his last volume, 'With My Friends,' may learn much about the "Art and Mystery of Collaboration."

The stories following the essay are written in partnership, Mr. Matthews being in every case one of the firm. They illustrate some of the tendencies of collaboration pointed out in the preface, especially that towards very accurate construction and deeper consideration of manner than of matter. If the form was not in each instance so admirable, the insignificance of the fact or fancy would be evident. The style is the story, and, excepting the two written with Mr. Bunner, this clear, concise style is more closely associated with Mr. Matthews than with any of his partners. "The Documents in the Case" and "The Conversations of Dear Jones and Baby Van Rensselaer" are already well known; Dr. Johnson would have annihilated them in a brief, polysyllabic paragraph, yet it is not hard to imagine Shakspere chuckling over them, and seized with a mighty longing to return to earth and try his hand at the American variant of the English tongue. Two heads are for construction better than one, and a third might have suggested to the authors of "Edged Tools" that, since M. Blitzini was controlled by the "huffy spooks" only when behind the footlights, the two knowing spectators should, after the conjurer's disappearance, have slid the table down to the auditorium. His reappearance would have made a more satisfactory and no less surprising dénouement. The fantastic idea of "Three Wishes" is too feeble for fifty pages of elaboration. Mr. Anstey's fun is much more primitive than Mr. Matthews's, and we have enough faith in the ability of both to believe that either could alone have written a better story about Heywood and his Djinn.

To appreciate the debt which both writers and readers owe to Mr. Matthews for his clear expositions of the technic of his craft, it is only necessary to glance at the late W. D. O'Connor's 'Three Tales,' written when stories were made up with little thought given to form, by people who had not the Oriental's instinctive skill in narrative. There are two Christmas stories which show the influence of those qualities of Dickens which but slightly detract from greatness, yet are very tiresome in mediocrity. We can very well do without the writer who deluges us with sentimentality, and who has a mania for working up melodramatic contrasts between the rich and poor, the virtuous and vicious. Mr. O'Connor may have been the superlatively fine character described in Walt Whitman's preface, and he certainly was an estimable man, but that is no justification for dragging his tales forth from well-won oblivion.

Since time was, it has been granted that wicked English lords have an irresistible propensity to pursue pure and lovely maidens over paths where full-grown dragons sit spitting endless fire. To do that is to fulfil their destiny, or else discredit for ever a host of respectable writers of fiction. For a Viking's daughter to dwell by a good trout stream, in the midst of what Kipling calls heaven-climbing glaciers, is to court destruction. True as the needle to the pole, the wicked lord, who is always a phenomenal pedestrian, will point his boots over the glaciers; then the fate of the Viking's daughter is inevitable, sure to be written. It is written in 'Elsket,' by Mr. Page, perhaps more discreetly than by others, with less of lurid color and loud lamentation, but that is no excuse for an obviously superfluous performance. It is well that he relieves himself from the suspicion that he has "run to seed" by the excellent tale for which that suggestive phrase makes a title. Here he is in the realm of reality, where his imagination adds force and spirit to the things he has seen and known. Of all his tributes to the great sorrow of the South, none is more profoundly touching.

'Auld Licht Idylls' is full of grave and penetrating humor. The Auld Lichts seceded from the Established Church of Scotland nearly two centuries ago. The smallness of their numbers, ever diminishing, in a way supports their pet doctrine of original sin; to be an Auld Licht one needs to be also an original saint of impregnable austerity. They are a special creation, and though Mr. Barrie cites several instances of cravens coerced into "joining" by unremitting conjugal nagging, a moderate surveillance would surely discover that they were not dyed in the wool. Much of our modern humor is farcical, depending for effect on its gross extravagance, arbitrary and often local. The humor in this series of sketches, incorrectly called idylls, can be felt wherever English is spoken and read. Nobody could miss it, except perhaps an Auld Licht; and as to be preternaturally solemn is one of his abiding characteristics, he would probably read the book through without a smile. Should he suspect irony, he would lay it to a wee bit o' spite, for the author confesses in the first chapter that he is the precentor of the Free Kirk. Mr. Barrie does not deliberately make fun of the Auld Lichts, but treats them with perfect respect and courtesy, dwelling sympathetically on qualities which ought to command esteem. To live in uncompromising righteousness according to John Knox appears to "us others" a futile embittering of daily bread; yet, if we cannot admire all the repression of human desire and the renunciation of pleasure which it implies, we are as far past praying for as any Auld Licht minister could wish.

'According to St. John' is a foolish novel; if it were less so, we might be shocked by the use which is made of certain words recorded by that disciple whom Jesus loved—"Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends." The author's notions about morals have never appeared to be conspicuously sound, but since in this story she makes a distinct effort to be virtuous, almost chaste, we observe with regret her confusion about morals, in the widest meaning, in the perception of right and wrong. For instance, when her young person from Virginia, Jean, confesses to the dying Mrs. Farrance that she loves Mr. Farrance, and with agony reproaches herself for wrong done to her friend, Mrs. Farrance bids her not despair, but fetch her a despatch-box, which, being opened, reveals the picture of one whom Mrs. Farrance has ever loved; therefore is Jean exculpated with honor. In due and convenient season Mrs. Farrance dies, and the stricken husband obligingly marries Jean. To convince her of his love causes him some slight embarrassment. He owns up to still loving the late Mrs. Farrance, and, with the air of an infallible casuist, explains that this sentiment does not preclude love for Jean, for, "though my reason tells me that she has gone from me for ever, she is as real a presence to me as the spring about me." To which Jean responds that, though it is strange, she understands, thus making us mourn that she chose to play the fiddle instead of composing treatises on pure reason.

For the distortion of Scripture which impels Jean to make her quietus with a hypodermic needle, the author apologizes, saying that her confused and excited brain gave the words "a personal meaning which they never had." It is gratifying to be assured that Christ was not talking directly at the morbid young lady who so carefully arrays herself for death in a blue cashmere and bronze slippers; but who can picture the confusion of the brain that makes such an utterance the inspiration for such a deed! The nastiness of one person, Mme. Cici, would do credit to any of the French naturalists, and perhaps not one has attained to that perfection in description of brutal depravity, relevant to nothing, purely for its own sake, which is reached in the restaurant scene participated in by the youthful Jean, the disgusting Cici, her faithless husband, and a fair unknown.

'Phillida' Langdon is a child of the setting sun, but so subdued by travel and other kinds of education that no one could ever find her out. Amidst the flower of British aristocracy, she moves a queen. She loves Sir John Lawton and is beloved by him, a gentleman of long descent, exceptional personal beauty, and an unfortunate aptitude for loving "you, only you, for ever." Sir John's inexact method of expressing his emotions proves his undoing, for, when Phillida, overlooking the accident of an existing wife, is ready to cast in her lot with his, the wind blows her a letter written by another of his eternal loves. Thus disillusion comes to her, but not the force for renunciation, which is left for Sir John. At the critical moment, he is seized with remorse for an unaccomplished wrong and sails away. We feel that it was rude in him to leave a lady in the lurch, and rejoice that she plucks up spirit to love again more wisely. The American author has done 'Phillida' quite as well as an English lady-novelist could. Scrupulous attention is paid to all the small usages of high society, without that emphasis which, to use our own phrase, often gives the American away. The incidents are neatly run together; descriptions form gentle interludes, and the people, who have no sort of serious occupation, are good-natured as they well may be, and no more brilliant than is consistent with good form. When the author takes a plunge beneath the surface of things, her prophetic gloom might well cause the British aristocracy to shake in its shoes. She says that the class is doomed, and, when picturing its extravagance, offers us a metaphor about the brightness of the candle's last flicker and the brilliancy of an expiring flame.

Perhaps it is because familiarity breeds contempt that a Queen seeks literary models among commoners. In 'Edleen Vaughan' there is no person of title or of any pretension to ancestry excepting a benevolent bard, Llewellyn. The novel has a theme, maternal passion. However sensational or extravagant the incidents may be—and many are superlatively so—they are of value for illustrating the overwhelming, misplaced love of Edleen Vaughan for her ruthless son. The eternal sacrifice of women for their children is so common a spectacle that this woman's follies and sins, committed for her son's sake, are not improbable nor inconsistent with a gentle, loyal, and truth-loving nature. Fortunately, few women have so bad a son as Tom. His career is a "carnival of crime." He lies, steals, seduces, forges, and murders. Wherever there is anything unlawful going on, he is sure to be in it. He is a good-looking young man of agreeable manners, yet, if burdened with only half as many crimes, would be thoroughly detestable. The sense of what is conclusive for good or bad in character (a sense that seems dead in many good women

when they become novelists) shines clear and strong through the tangle of the plot; and in all the people, including the witch and the bard, human traits not visible to a superficial observer are revealed. It is a pity that the novel had not been cast in simpler lines, and that the author's literary training and taste are not so sound as is her sense or so true as her feeling. It would be difficult to write worse English than the prose; the songs and ballads attributed to Llewellyn have pretty sentiment and some spirit, and the expression is appropriately simple.

'Blanche, Lady Falaise,' is the sort of character Mr. Shorthouse delights to draw—that for which his pure, rather elegant style is peculiarly suited. Seeing life through the medium of an idealistic, spiritual nature, the sorrow which inevitably comes to her is keen, lasting, and pitiful, out of proportion to its cause, viz., disappointment in the character of a man who never was what she imagined him to be. Faced year after year with the facts of Damerle's existence, few women could have maintained an illusion about him—none, indeed, except a Lady Falaise exactly formed to fit the situation. The position of Lord Falaise, constantly reminded of his wife's infatuation for the man who had jilted her, has ludicrous features, but they disappear in contemplation of his patience, loyalty, and generosity. He is in every aspect noble, and if, as one of his friends remarks, he did believe that George, 27th Viscount Falaise, represented the supreme result of creative effort, he was not so very far wrong. The representation of the vigorous, popular, unprincipled preacher Damerle shows how flexible a really fine style may be, how equal to any emergency. The impression made by this short novel is the very best possible to a work of fiction: we feel that should we live for ever, we cannot pass an hour in better company.

The date of the action of Mr. Morris's 'Story of the Glittering Plain' is prehistoric, the method more casual, and the expression more archaic, than Malory's. If one were shut up with the book for several weeks in jail or quarantine, to follow the adventures of Hallblithe of the House of the Raven in quest of his beloved of the House of the Rose might provide a melancholy distraction. In such isolation and idleness one might invent an interpretation of the allegory, if allegory there be, or, at least, arrange a *précis* of events, and with its aid compose a tale no less rational than that of "The Land where the Jumblies Live." In default of any other *raison d'être*, we imagine that this artistic combination of imitation vellum, parchment, and antique lettering may be intended to take a place with other bric à brac on a drawing-room table.

Canon Farrar's 'Darkness and Dawn' is such a big book that the average reader may disapprove of it on sight; the average reviewer attacks it with a feeling of positive enmity against the author. The first chapter does not modify prejudice. The succinct description of the palace of the Cæsars, its splendor and its deathless shame, suggests a well-written text book; the reflections of Agrippina Augusta, revealing, as they do, a marvellous instinct for crime, confuses the mind accustomed to regard fraud, torture, and murder as slight obstacles to the achievement of desire. With the entrance of Nero the action begins, and apathy gives way to interest, which holds and increases even to the end of the sixty-sixth chapter, page 556. The author warms to his work, sweeping the enemy along, never letting go his hold until he has converted him into a stanch friend and most respectful admirer. Scholarship, dispassionate judgment, and a clear understanding of how much human character is affected by century and circumstance, are some of the rare yet requisite qualities which make an acceptable historical novelist. Canon Farrar displays all these with a skill in selection which lends freshness to the picture of an era very well known to many schoolboys, and not forgotten by those older folk who, at fifty, are vain of a knowledge which was ignorance at fifteen. Nero is, of course, the central figure, and, though he has not found his apologist, his shade cannot reasonably complain of injustice. Had the last of the Julian line been permitted to sing, fiddle, and write poor verses in obscurity, he would doubtless have been known to a limited circle as "a bad lot," but he would have escaped an infamous immortality. In the avowed object of the work (to illustrate the causes which led to the triumph of Christianity) there is a suggestion that some new light may be thrown on a subject which has been discussed through many centuries; but all that we see is the new faith rising on the ruins of the old, and there is no cause so obvious as that the faith which gave hope and comfort to the poor, the oppressed, and the sorrow-laden was bound to hold fast and to make its way by the ultimately irresistible force of the need of the majority.

JAPAN, CHINA, AND TIBET.

Jin riki-sha Days in Japan. By Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore. New York: Harper & Bros.

New China and Old. By Ven. Arthur E. Moule. London: Seeley & Co.

The Land of the Lamas. By William Woodville Rockhill. New York: The Century Co.

In the library of modern books on Japan, now numbering hundreds, even in English alone, the works of women writers are not least. In two instances, those of Miss Isabella Bird and Miss Alice Mabel Bacon, they may be ranked among the best. In her views of Japan, taken mostly while riding in a man-power carriage, Miss Scidmore does not pretend to look very far below the surface. Hence her book will probably not live much longer than the time taken to write it. It is a bright, lively, and entertaining picture of Japan in its transition state from a feudal and hermit nation to a modern State full of people, who have voluntarily taken upon themselves the problems of adapting western civilization to essentially Asiatic conditions. How the face of the country and populace are being graven by the wrinkles of experience is Miss Scidmore's congenial task to tell, and her story is told in pleasing style. Her range of travel and observation was limited almost entirely to central Japan. Tokio, with the circle usually described in the guidebooks; Fuji, Kamakura, Yokohama, and Nikko; Kioto, with its ring of neighboring cities; and the Tokaido, with its rosary of charming places famous for curios, are described in detail, the farewell view being from Nagasaki. Confined thus to the beaten tracks in Japan, the book is in form an indexed and illustrated octavo of nearly four hundred pages. The chief element of freshness in it is the author's sympathetic knowledge of the folk-lore and history of the land and people, derived from the writings of those authors who have illuminated by genuine research the life beneath surface and appearances. To these the author expresses gracefully her obligations.

As solidly handsome in outward form, as well as in interior contents, as Miss Scidmore's book is both externally and internally pretty, is Mr. Moule's 'New China and Old.' It is the result of thirty years' personal observations as an agent of the English Church Missionary Society. In form it is a well-made London book of over three hundred pages, beautifully illustrated and well indexed. With the white light of close and prolonged observation, and after many rose-colored impressions have been corrected by time and experience, the venerable ex-missionary writes with singular clearness and sanity, yet with kindly sympathy. His first chapter is a philosophical analysis of the causes of the amazing power of cohesion in the Chinese Empire. He then treats of life in an inland city, in an open port, in the country, and in the house of a Mandarin. He discusses ably and luminously not only Buddhism and Taoism, especially as they affect Chinese life, but also ancestral worship, superstitions, language and literature, and Christian missions. The clear thought and power, born of long familiarity, make these chapters very attractive reading to one who thinks of the Chinese as serious beings and not as curiosities. The author, after surveying the past history and present resources of missionary effort, acknowledges that as yet Christianity is hardly perceptible in China, when compared with idolatry and unbelief. Nevertheless, his experience has wrought hope, and hope that makes him not ashamed to ask younger men to follow in his faith and labors. For a grave, judicial, unenthusiastic but thoroughly trustworthy estimate of China, we know of nothing so worthy of recommendation as this book.

In reading Mr. Rockhill's book on 'The Land of the Lamas,' we not only turn our thoughts to the high places of the earth, but reach the highest range of good bookmaking. In external array the volume advertises attractively the resources and power of the Century Company. The 400 pages of thick paper and neatest print are well furnished with fresh illustrations, most of them from photographs. The text and appendices, with a rich aftermath of learned and suggestive notes, form the garnered fruit of long research, exploration, and literary toil. Two maps show the countries traversed and the author's routes. The sub-title is 'Notes of a Journey through China, Mongolia, and Tibet,' but only a small portion of the work is devoted to the well-trodden ground of China proper. In the bulk of the book, we have described, with the always interesting element of personal adventure, the less known portion of the Chinese Empire.

The personality of the author lends piquancy to the flavor of the book. He illustrated by his scholarly acquirements the best traditions of the American Legation in China—too little in the gross, it must be confessed, but brilliant with a few names that may be mentioned along with S. Wells Williams. Mr. Rockhill also accompanied our naval expedition to Corea in 1871 as Chinese Secretary to Minister Low, and fortunately escaped scatheless from the jingall-balls. We have looked in vain, however, for any detailed comparison between things Tibetan and Corean, notwithstanding that Dallet and other French authors insist that Corea borrowed Buddhism quite directly from Tibet. It is certain also that the "Reformed" Buddhists in Japan locate much spiritual treasure in the central Asian plateau. While, however, Mr. Rockhill in this respect

illustrates the modesty of a scholar—since his sojourn in Corea was only thirty-five days, and this on the deck of the frigate *Colorado*—he is rather cruel to the Theosophists. He tells us how he informed the lamas of the great interest felt in their country, tenets, and personnel by the modern esoteric Buddhists—presumably of Boston, London, and other places distant enough to lend enchantment. The lamas of Serkok were immensely amused, declared that none of the miracle-performing saints and sages of primitive ages were now living or had lived since ancient times. These Tibetans, who should have been genuine Mahatmas, looked upon the modern school of esoterists as "rankly heretical, and as something approaching an imposition on our credulity" (p. 102). We fear that Mr. Rockhill's book will be placed on the Index Expurgatorius of the Reformed Japanese, as well as of the European and American Buddhists.

Mr. Rockhill's journey was made in 1888 and 1889, after years of preparation in the study of Chinese and Tibetan, but his route included, in reality, only a comparatively small portion of the eastern plateau. Nevertheless, his book is not the hasty product of a tourist, but a rich contribution to the literature of science and exploration. Seven hundred miles of the journey was on ground never before trodden by a white man, as far as known. Except the journey of Huc and Gabet to Lassa in 1845, this journey of Mr. Rockhill is probably the most difficult and dangerous executed in Asia in the course of this century. Unlike the gay and garrulous Abbé Huc, who wrote with Gallic fancy and embroidery of facts, the American author has penned his narrative in the interest of accuracy and not of sensationalism. When Huc wrote in several instances that "We were met at the gates by the authorities, who granted us freely the hospitalities of the city," the average reader would not suspect that the Abbé suffered imprisonment.

Though Mr. Rockhill does not allow to all Tibet a population of over three and a half millions, yet he demonstrates that the natural wealth of the plateau is great. It is more than probable that he will be followed soon by the pioneers of commerce and believers in a stalwart policy for the opening of trade routes. Tibet is perhaps the last country still shut off from the influences of modern civilization, but, like China, Japan, and Corea, its invisible but lofty walls must fall. In spite of the author's modest plea in the preface that his purpose was to furnish facts rather than to "turn out a well-finished bit of literary work," his pages have a genuine charm. The Tibetans, despite the lama despotism and superstition, are wonderfully human. The supplementary notes discuss many points of interest in ethnology, comparative religion, and primitive culture.

Essays on English Literature. By Edmond Scherer. Translated by Geo. Saintsbury. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Edmond Scherer is the most brilliant foreign writer who has lately criticised our literature, and since Matthew Arnold, by his review of one of these essays, made their author widely known among ourselves, he has been highly regarded. Mr. Saintsbury's translation, therefore, will be very welcome to many who would like to know what M. Scherer had to say upon other authors than Milton. In this volume we have, besides the paper on Milton, essays upon Wordsworth, Sterne, Mill, Carlyle, Shakspere, Beaconsfield, Taine, and George Eliot. M. Scherer obtained his introduction to so wide and thorough an acquaintance with our language by the fortune of a partly English education. His understanding of it seems to be complete, and his range, at least in modern books, is large. He was besides well furnished as a critic, and brought to his subject a thoughtful mind, familiar with modern ideas and trained in modern methods. If any one not of our blood were capable of appreciating our literature, certainly he stood in a position to do so; but we think that what most strikes the mind is less his power of appreciation than the distinctness with which he makes out defects.

It is to be expected, of course, that when national works are brought before the world's tribunal, they will be measured by the standard common to all nations, and it is plain that the greatest works, those of broadest and most direct human sympathy, will gain thereby. On the other hand, those works which are characteristically national, those which are most intimately bound up with the special temperament and historic genius of the people, will suffer. The sympathy, the *rapport*, which exists between an author of genius and his countrymen is just the element which compensates for his defects as determined by the world's standard; and therefore the critic who lacks the temperament of the race by which alone the deepest insight is possible, is disabled from an appreciation of the value and meaning of national books to their own people. It seems to us that this is the reason why M. Scherer, in writing of Milton or Wordsworth or Sterne, varies essentially from any critic of the native strain. His keen analysis of 'Paradise Lost' is unexceptionable from the point of view of a nation which never felt the passion of Puritanism; his exposition of Wordsworth is not to be found fault with on the side of intelligence; but in both instances there is just that lack of temperament which prevents his appreciating that compensation which we just spoke of, made by these poets to their own people by virtue of the intimacy of their thought with the nation's. Their worth is heightened thereby above what it would be adjudged by a universal standard. With Sterne the case is somewhat different. Scherer overestimates him because sentimentalism was more developed in France than in England, and because those defects in Sterne, both of taste and character, which are most felt by an English reader, are less obnoxious to the Gallic mind. Upon George Eliot he lavishes his praise; but, as Mr. Saintsbury remarks, there were peculiarities in his own experience, as one who had abandoned his faith, which made her thoughts and her characterizations more near to him. Shakspere is a universal genius, and yet Englishmen have never been satisfied with foreign criticism of their author, except upon the side of learning; and M. Scherer himself in his two admirable essays writes best when he confines his remarks to the mistakes of others. Again, in the essay upon Taine, he is dealing rather with the method than with the special matter of English literature to which it was applied. He makes a protest against that critical theory which would explain all things by race and environment, and which neglects personality as a main, if not the chief, factor in creation. In those portions of the volume in which he himself traces the descent of English poetry in this century, admirable as is his criticism of individuals, he does not, to our mind, bring forward anything which is not perfectly obvious.

In pointing out these limitations, which so excellent a critic illustrates the more forcibly by virtue of his position, we have reference only to the general character of the work. Its usefulness lies very largely in the clearness with which it discriminates what is always and everywhere good in literature from what may be rejected by other nations, but nevertheless, though the author does not say so, may be highly valuable to the nation which produced it. No one can read such lucid expositions of the structure and methods of a great author's works without clarifying his rational judgment. M. Scherer, also, is particularly rich in thoughts by the way, in sidelights, and in axioms and judgments which belong to pure literature, and are as applicable in one land as in another. The temperate use which he makes of the historical method is in itself a lesson of restraint. Though he is not, in our judgment, a great critic in the sense in which Sainte-Beuve was, and has not the subtlety and fine grain of truth that distinguished Lowell, he stands, nevertheless, *longo intervallo*, beyond other foreign critics, and is one of few among them whose decisions or impressions respecting our literature deserve to be weighed.

The Princess Tarakanova. By G. P. Danilevski. Translated from the Russian by Ida de Mouchanoff. Macmillan & Co.

Lacking a great historical novelist, Russians have been content, for many years, to award to Danilevski all the praise which is his due in this field of work, and possibly rather more than his due, if we compare his achievements with any recognized standard. Danilevski's method is well illustrated in this volume which a Russian woman has translated in an admirable manner. 'The Princess Tarakanova' is not, properly speaking, a sustained narrative, but a series of pictures, wherein the personages are effectively grouped. It resembles a sensational drama "in two acts and eight tableaux." That the author arranged his tableaux cleverly is undeniable; and so thoroughly aware of his strong point was he that, not infrequently, he introduced what he considered fetching situations, without much regard to whether they were called for by what preceded them, or whether they exercised any influence upon what followed. A fine example of this procedure is offered by chapter xix. of the present volume, entitled "The Historiographer Miller." This trick, combined with a general abruptness, has had much to do with the inferior rank which Danilevski has always been consigned to, in any question of purely literary value. However, the gulf which separates him from the really great and universal geniuses of the Russian school is so patent to any well-informed reader that it need not be enlarged upon, further than to convey a hint of the place which the author has held at home, and so forestall possible misconceptions of motive in alluding to it, and animadversions of persons who do not admire the Russian school in general, and who would assuredly find a ground of attack upon it were he represented as being first-class in his native land.

The Princess Tarakanova, so Danilevski assumes, was really the daughter of the Empress Elizabeth and her morganatic husband, Count Alexis Razumovsky, which is the view best adapted to pathetic treatment. How the Princess has come to be brought up abroad is not disclosed, but, at the time the story opens, she is planning a visit to Russia, with the intention of taking the throne from Catharine II. Count Alexis Orloff entices her on board the Russian fleet at Leghorn, and she is carried a prisoner to Russia, where she dies

shortly after of consumption, in the fortress at St. Petersburg. The translator, in a very interesting preface, gives the opinion of the best historians on this case, which is that the Princess was a pretender, being a native of Prague or Nuremberg, who was known under different names in all the capitals of Europe for ten years before she undertook her expedition to Russia, and who was distinguished for her great beauty (and probably by a likeness to the Empress Elizabeth), as well as for her riotous conduct. Russia was spared the calamity of a successful invasion by this person, whoever she may have been, but the frontispiece, taken from a famous picture in Moscow, depicts the death attributed to her by popular legend, though not by recorded facts—from an inundation of the Neva. This frontispiece is the most noteworthy of the four well-executed illustrations with which the book is adorned, that labelled "Count Alexis Orloff" being in reality the portrait of his brother, Count Grigory, and the portrait of Catharine II. being one of the most unsatisfactory likenesses of her which it was possible to select out of the mass of beautiful and characteristic specimens in existence. It might stand for any one else as well.

Brief as is the episode on which the book is founded, slight as is the story, and conspicuous as are Danilevski's peculiarities, it furnishes very interesting and agreeable reading. Easy to peruse, as the famous historical novels are, it is easy to forget, as they are not.

Bishop Wilberforce. By G. W. Daniel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

For some inexplicable reason, the American publishers of the series "English Leaders of Religion," of which this volume is the third, make no sign on the individual volumes that they have any serial standing. But some such sign is necessary to justify this sketch of Bishop Wilberforce in addition to the full biography of him and Dean Burgon's sketch already within reach. Mr. Daniel's work is avowedly a composite photograph of his predecessors' books, and it has the hazy adumbration which the composite photograph has in most cases. In his anxiety to gloze over everything disagreeable, the writer has gone far to make an exceedingly dramatic subject dull and spiritless. Thus, for example, there is not a word about the secession of the Bishop's brothers Robert and Henry from the English to the Roman Church, though the event must have been a crucifixion for a man of Samuel Wilberforce's principles and prejudices. The part played by reaction in religious experience gets a capital illustration from that secession and Samuel's High-Churchism, seeing that their father, the great anti-slavery reformer, was, with Zachary Macaulay, one of "the Clapham Sect" of evangelical religionists. Happily, Samuel inherited something from his father's humanitarian zeal. The "Ten Hours' Factory Act" found in him a successful advocate on his first entrance to the House of Lords, and it was a glowing anti-slavery speech in 1840 that first made him known to Prince Albert and secured for him the royal favor until he sacrificed it in the Hampden controversy, six years later. In general, all things progressive were distasteful to him, so that one of the surprises is to find him a member of the "Sterling Club," "so called," says Mr. Daniel, and this is more surprising, "because its members were expected to be free from the unrealities that cling around those who are fettered by prejudice and conventionality." It was so called because John Sterling was the leading spirit.

When Wilberforce became Bishop of Oxford in 1845, Newman had just gone over to Rome, and the Hampden controversy, in which Newman had been a principal actor in 1836, was soon to enter on its second stage. The position was a trying one, and the success of the Bishop was not remarkable. He was a High Churchman, in both ecclesiastical theory and form, quite independently of the Tractarian movement, without being one of the High and Dry from whom Newman hoped as little as from the Evangelicals, especially as they were Erastians almost to a man. Wilberforce drew off from Newman more and more as the Tractarians developed their Romanizing tendencies, until Newman wrote him that his matter was not acceptable to their organ, the *British Critic*. But the average Churchman could not be expected to discriminate, and what with the suspicions of Low Churchmen and Broad Churchmen on the one hand, and of the Tractarians on the other, he often found himself between the devil and the deep sea. His theology and criticism and science were all of the most conservative and reactionary character. His theories were a matter of subjective speculation with which the facts must somehow be made to agree; if they would not, so much the worse for the facts. It could hardly be expected that the Bishop's eulogist would give us an account of his most notable discomfiture in 1860, when, at a meeting of the British Association, he made an eloquent assault on Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' and, asking Huxley whether he was related to an ape on his grandfather's or grandmother's side, received an answer not less memorable than Dean Stanley's to those who sneered at Bishop Colenso in Convocation. "If there were an ancestor," said Huxley, "whom I should feel shame in recalling, it would be a *man*—a man of restless and versatile intellect, who, not content with an equivocal success in his own sphere of activity, plunged into scientific questions with which he has no real acquaintance, only to obscure them with an aimless rhetoric, and distract the attention of his hearers from the real point at issue by eloquent digressions and skilled appeals to religious prejudice."

If Mr. Daniel was bound, as a loyal eulogist, to say nothing of this merited rebuke, he need not have been so careful in general to obscure the individuality of his hero. What he has partly shown us is that Wilberforce was the "Remodeller of the Episcopate,' a man who meant business, and not merely careless ease, nor even "the quiet and still air of delightful studies." He was an overseer of his clergy, and cracked his whip over them in a persuasive fashion. The book has no intellectual and little moral interest. It moves entirely on ecclesiastical lines. We find ourselves sighing for a little of that "want of tact and judgment" which made the Bishop's biography by Canon Ashley and R. G. Wilberforce an entertaining book. His witticisms that are reported go but a little way to justify his reputation as a fellow of infinite jest. The best is the best-known—his answer to the lady who boldly asked him why he was called "Soapy Sam." "Because, madam," he answered, "I am always getting into hot water and always come out of it with clean hands."

An Introduction to Spherical and Practical Astronomy. By Dascom Greene, Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1891. Pp. viii, 150.

In this small and convenient volume is contained nearly everything of astronomy that an engineer will need. Unfortunately, the few omissions, such as precession, aberration, parallax, and refraction (the last not quite excluded), with the few excessive abridgments, are of radical importance. By adding two more sheets to the book, so as to include sufficiently these subjects, and amending it in some other respects, it may in a future edition be rendered a work of exceptional merit. Professor Greene, in his preface, by way of excuse for the omissions, says: "It [the book] claims to be no more than an introduction to the subject, and aims to present its first principles in an elementary and practical form for the use of beginners." But, in the first place, a student has no time to go through such a subject as astronomy twice; and it is not practical teaching to omit any practical topic in such a branch, to be taken up at a later period. In the second place, the class of students resorting to Troy, though they be beginners, must not be put off with any inferior presentation of a science. Indeed, logic and completeness are of even more importance in elementary than in advanced treatises. A book such as this might easily have been, which should touch upon every necessary matter with logical severity, giving all that is needed and excluding all that is superfluous, would serve as an intellectual tonic for the young man, and operate in some degree as a corrective to the dissipating and demulcent influences of other modern text-books. Besides, in any subject, but above all in mathematics, it is a great advantage to keep the treatise which has been deeply conned, but which has been partly forgotten in after years, at one's elbow as a book of reference, and for that reason elementary works should be as nearly tabular in form as the nature of their subjects will permit, uniting the utmost brevity with completeness in certain systematic limits.

Prof. Greene's descriptions of instruments and the ways of using them are pretty good, but not full enough for practical needs. Thus, it is said that the adjustment of the principal focus of a transit instrument "may be verified by moving the eye so as to detect any parallax existing between the star and the wire." This does not sufficiently emphasize to the beginner the indispensableness of this operation; nor are the precautions to be observed in performing it pointed out. Nor is anything said about ascertaining the fixity of the parts of the telescope, the collimation of the objective, etc. Nor is the reduction of time observations set forth and illustrated in a practically adequate manner.

The mathematical deductions throughout the book are given with commendable clearness and brevity; but the treatment of the foundations of the method of least squares is decidedly antiquated. The principle of the arithmetical mean is assumed as self-evident. Such reasoning will not go down in our day, and to teach boys to be satisfied with it is a grievous wrong. It may, no doubt, be said that a book intended for boys who seek instruction solely as a means of livelihood should not notice mere speculative doubts, and should sedulously avoid opening temptations to purely intellectual engrossments, the joys of which their situation in life must forbid; and there is some truth in this. But there can be no advantage to anybody, in our swiftly progressive age, in being unable to distinguish bad reasoning from good. Good logic is the most fundamental thing which any kind of student can possibly be set to acquire.

The Development of Theology in Germany since Kant and its Progress in Great Britain since 1825. By Otto Pfleiderer, D.D., Professor of Theology in the University of Berlin. Translated, under the Author's supervision, by J. Frederick Smith. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

THIS huge octavo is the second volume of a "Library of Philosophy"; the first was Erdmann's 'History of Philosophy.' It is not, the general editor informs us, a translation in the ordinary sense, there being no German book to match; the translation is from Dr. Pfleiderer's MS., and has been revised by him. It is difficult to understand why the book was made and how Dr. Pfleiderer was persuaded to make it, for it is nearly all contained in vols. i. and ii. of his 'Philosophy of Religion,' of which there is an English translation. That begins with Spinoza, while this begins with Kant, and in general it is fuller than this, especially on the philosophical side. Where it is less full is in regard to the later developments of theology in Great Britain. To these, 100 pages are given in the present volume, and are its least valuable part. The theologian or clergyman must indeed be ignorant who does not know as much of recent British theology as is here set down. Doubtless Dr. Pfleiderer's judgment on its different men and books is interesting, but the information would have been much better addressed to German readers. Tulloch's 'Movements of Religious Thought' is given as one source of the author's information. It is a source much fuller than his stream. To find all our fault before proceeding to our praise, the length and breadth of the book are so great in proportion to its thickness that its contents might easily have been put into a duodecimo of 500 pages in good type, and its mechanism could not have been worse contrived for the reader's convenience. The index is a bare list of names; the table of contents is extremely general, and the running titles of the pages are no more analytical than these.

When every deduction has been made, the book is full of interesting matter. If Dr. Pfleiderer himself does not write in an easy, pleasant, streaming style, his translator has made it that for us. In Book i. we have six chapters on "The Basis of Modern Theology in German Idealistic Philosophy"; one each given to Kant, Herder, Schleiermacher, Fichte, Schelling, Hegel. The exposition is admirable; the manner is not polemical, but sympathetic, taking every subject at his best. "I dislike above all things," says Dr. Pfleiderer, "that method of writing history which presents nothing but the writer's subjective judgment of people, without so much as allowing them to say what their own opinions and views are." To this ideal he is true from first to last. He finds Kant lacking in the courage of his convictions in the Critiques of both the Pure Reason and the Practical, and most germinal and fruitful in his 'Critique of Judgment,' the speculative conception of which—a teleology based on external and internal experience—"runs like a golden thread through the whole of post-Kantian philosophy."

A second book treats "The Development of Dogmatic Theology under the Influence of Idealistic Philosophy," and a third, "Biblical and Historical Theology." The most noticeable points in the latter are the cordial acceptance of the results of Graf and Kuenen and Reuss which assign the priestly portions of the Pentateuch to the fifth century B. C.; the damaging estimate of Ewald, which discredits Dean Stanley's 'Jewish Church,' so largely based on Ewald; and the generous and hearty recognition of Strauss, especially in his new 'Leben Jesu' of 1864, which is too lightly passed over by the majority of English readers. In the concluding book, on British criticism and theology, nothing is more refreshing than the estimate of Westcott's 'Introduction to the Gospels' as belonging "to that class of apologies which, by their learning and air of superiority towards the main arguments of the critics, and occasional minor concessions on secondary points, are accustomed to make a great impression and really perform the service of retarding the progressive theological spirit of an age." If anything could better show than this the freedom of German as compared with British orthodoxy, it is the comparative estimate of the anonymous 'Supernatural Religion,' and Lightfoot's answer, which is set down as no answer at all to the significant part of his opponent's work. In conclusion there are words of lofty praise for Martineau and for Dr. Edwin Hatch's 'Organization of the Early Christian Churches,' the work of one too early lost to Protestant theology.

Principles of Political Economy. By Charles Gide, Professor of Political Economy in the University of Montpellier, France. Translated by Edward Percy Jacobsen. With an introduction and notes by James Bonar. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1891.

IT is the fashion to describe writers that hold, or are supposed to hold, certain views in political economy as the "Orthodox School," and it cannot be denied that in France the title is not altogether inappropriate. The distinguished economists of that country have generally shown a disposition similar to that of the champions of religious orthodoxy, practically assuming that they are in possession of the truth, and regarding the propounders of new views as schismatics or heretics. While it may be true that the fundamental theories upon which their system is framed have been conclusively established by experience, there is ground for complaining that they have followed the "high *priori*" method rather too exclusively. The deductive method, as defined by Mill, is indisputably that appropriate to such a science as political economy, but they have employed a method that is more suitable to geometry than to sciences having to do with living beings. Hence there has arisen among them a certain haughty and exclusive spirit, as becomes the possessors of a somewhat esoteric doctrine, and they seem of late years to have been almost without influence upon the governmental policy of their country.

Against this state of affairs Prof. Gide's book is a protest, although a very mild and good-tempered one. Upon examination it does not appear that he has any new theories to propound, or, indeed, that his results differ materially from those reached by most economists of ability. His position, as Mr. Bonar says, is substantially that of the "classical school," if we substitute evolution and social union ("solidarity") for finality and individualism. But his work is marked by a generous breadth of view, taking in not only what ought to be, but what is, giving, as the author says, their due share of justice even to notions that do not command our assent, upon the principle of Shakspere's maxim:

> "There is some soul of goodness in things evil,
> Would men observingly distil it out."

As a result we have a review of nearly the whole field of economics, comprehensive, appreciative, and generally perspicacious. We cannot say that the author has in every case understood the strength or discerned the weakness of the positions that he criticises, but he has at all events kept himself free from bias, and the matter of his book is in refreshing contrast to the arid generalities that have usually constituted the bulk of most French text-books of political economy. The more recent discussions that have engaged the attention of professors of the science are intelligently stated, or their results summarized, and it is evident that the author's reading has been extensive. Moreover, his style is vivacious and agreeable, occasionally even eloquent, having, in fact, those elements that make the scientific treatises of the French so easy to read. It is not surprising that the book should have reached a third edition in France, or that it should, in Mr. Bonar's words, help many a young Frenchman to turn his attention to economic studies.

Nevertheless, we are not convinced that the economic literature of our own language is substantially enriched by this translation. There is nothing in the book that is not to be found in treatises with which we are already provided, and Prof. Gide is very far from having mastered his subject. He denounces as altogether a sophism the notion that cost of production and value stand to one another in the relation of cause and effect, yet he presently declares that the market value of a product that can be multiplied at will is the minimum cost of production. Indeed, his language upon this critical subject of value is generally confused. A like ambiguity may be observed in his use of the word "wealth." The argument that capital is not the result of saving is a mere quibble. Absurdly unqualified statements are common, such as that without legislative intervention not only the forests of Europe would have disappeared, but the art of working in wood also. Still more preposterous is the assertion that "mowing-machines, threshing-machines, reaping-machines, do not increase the crop of corn by one grain," to which it is added that mechanical discoveries virtually do not affect in the least the chief expenses of the workman, viz., food and housing.

We fancy that in such statements as these we detect the influence of the physiocrats, and, in spite of his critical attitude towards the classical school, Prof. Gide is not altogether free from its weaknesses. He does not hesitate, occasionally, to dismiss an argument with an arbitrary declaration of his judgment, and is prone to intermingle speculation with reasoning. Sometimes these speculations are almost puerile in their character; and, lest our readers should think our criticism too harsh, we will give a specimen of them in concluding. It occurs at the close of a grave discussion of money, under the title "The Decadence of the Precious Metals":

> "But now the attributes which raised them to their exalted station seem to be dropping off, one by one, like the jewels from off a diadem. Supplanted as instruments of exchange by the improvements effected in commerce and in credit, despised as articles of luxury by the fashion of our day, it may be that, after having been so long the very type of wealth, gold and silver are destined to be one day erased from the catalogue of riches!"

Den Struensee'ske Proces. Af N. Lassen. Særtryk af *Tidsskrift for Retsvidenskab.* Copenhagen. 1891. 8vo, pp. 219–303.

PROBABLY no single episode in the political history of Denmark has been so fully and so variously discussed as the brief ministry of Struensee and his relations to the unfortunate Queen Caroline Mathilde. Writers of almost every nationality have attempted to prove,

now the Queen's innocence, now her guilt, and Struensee's conduct has been subjected to the same severe scrutiny. During the first years after the catastrophe of 1772, few in Denmark doubted the guilt of both parties. Later a reaction set in, especially as regards the English Princess, the clearest indications of which are to be found in the pathetic poem of Ploug and the romantic tales of Ewald and Carl Bernhard. Caroline was represented as a persecuted saint, succumbing finally to the intrigues of her enemies, led by the Queen Dowager, Juliane Marie. In one of the latest works on this subject, Blangstrup's 'Christian VII. og Caroline Mathilde,' already noticed in these columns, the cause of Caroline's unfaithfulness, if unfaithful she was, is graphically shown in the detailed account of the King, the most despicable figure in the whole Danish line. While this and all earlier works are concerned either with the historical or the romantic features of the story, Mr. Lassen's treatise takes up Struensee's case from the purely legal standpoint, with the object of giving "an answer to the question of how far the sentence and punishment inflicted upon Struensee were just."

It may be well, before discussing the work, to recall briefly the events which led up to the trial. Johan Frederik Struensee was a German physician, son of the Bishop of Altona, whom Christian VII. had met on his travels in 1768 and appointed his medical attendant. The clever young German, for he was only thirty at this time, soon acquired a great influence over the weak monarch, whose early dissipations had entirely unfitted him for the conduct of state affairs. In September, 1770, the elder Bernstorff, who, as Minister of Foreign Affairs, had effected many important reforms, was removed from office, and in December of the same year the Privy Council, after having been deprived of all influence, was finally abolished, the power being concentrated in the Royal Cabinet, over which Struensee had full control. On July 14, 1771, the famous Cabinet order was issued by virtue of which the favorite obtained practically absolute power. During the succeeding months, one extreme reform followed another, many of which were of such a character as to gain their author numerous enemies both at court and among the people. His supposed relations to the Queen hastened his fall, and on the morning of January 17, 1772, after a court ball, the Queen and Struensee, together with the latter's confederate, Enevold Brandt, were seized by order of the Queen Dowager and Prince Frederick and thrown into prison. The Queen was confined in Kronborg until after her divorce, when she was taken to Celle in Hanover, where she died several years later. Struensee and Brandt were tried by a commission composed of some of the most prominent jurists of the time, and, being found guilty of having inflicted injury upon the King, were, in accordance with the law regulating such cases, condemned to lose their right arms and their heads, and their bodies to be quartered. The execution took place on April 28 in the presence of a large multitude.

After a brief introduction, in which he defines the scope of his work, Mr. Lassen proceeds to take up in turn each of the five points into which the accusation resolves itself, the first of these being Struensee's relations to the Queen. Unfortunately, the original papers referring to this portion of the trial have never been thrown open to the public. During the lifetime of the late Queen Dowager, who was a granddaughter of Caroline Mathilde, this was of course out of the question, and since her death the authorities have preserved the same secrecy. As, however, the chief items are known on excellent authority, the loss is not as great as it might seem. Mr. Lassen expresses no doubt whatever of Struensee's guilt in this matter. He gives satisfactory evidence of the improbability that his confession was obtained by force, and asserts in addition that the circumstantial evidence against him was sufficiently strong to condemn him in any court. Of Caroline's supposed death-bed assertion of her innocence Mr. Lassen makes no mention. On the question of the justice of the sentence under this head our author agrees with the ruling of the court, giving reasons which the limits of this article will not permit us to repeat, but which are certainly sound. No less certainly, in their endeavor to ruin Struensee by the introduction of this charge, the King's immediate relatives lowered the reputation of King and country in a most shameless manner. Ordinary tact and delicacy would have suggested a total ignoring in public of this whole question.

The second and no less vital point is the accusation that Struensee had usurped and abused the State power in effecting changes, notably the abolishment of the foot-guard, without the consent of the King. But, as Lassen pointedly remarks, "this decision is defensible only on the supposition that the King, by reason of his insanity, was incapable of forming sensible resolutions." Of this, however, there is no mention in the Court proceedings. On the contrary, the King is, after the fashion of the time, referred to in the most flattering terms. No absolute proof even is given that Struensee acted without the formal consent of the King. The arguments of the commission with regard to Christian's power to make changes that conflict with the letter of the law, are shown by Lassen to be wholly illogical, since, under the law of 1660, the King was raised above all such considerations. In view of this, it is hard to understand Lassen's statement that "if any one should draw the conclusion that Struensee was unjustly sentenced, I believe that this conclusion would be very premature." For we must regulate our judgment by the attitude of the Court towards the King, and not by the real mental state of the latter. Having been declared so excellent a ruler by this body, the King's capacity to form a correct judgment is thereby formally admitted, and the charge against the Minister falls to the ground. If the dissolution of the Privy Council and the issuing of the Cabinet order of July 14 were illegal, then the responsibility rested solely upon the ruler, Struensee acting merely as his agent. In trying to justify the decision of the Court, Lassen seems at the same time to convict it of the basest falsehood and flattery. The extracts from Struensee's and Brandt's testimony are exceedingly interesting as throwing light upon the mental condition of Christian during Struensee's government, but, regarded as a justification of the action of the Court, they seem to have "nothing to do with the case."

The other three points are properly treated at less length and need not detain us. In concluding, the author meets the charge of the extreme barbarity of the punishment, so often made by the defenders of Struensee, by declaring very justly that this was due to the spirit of the times and not to any unfair discrimination. In an age when the wheel and the iron virgin were no unusual instruments of torture, this execution cannot be regarded as barbarous, especially as, by the testimony of the attending clergyman, the severing of the arm and head were almost instantaneous. However we may differ from Lassen in matters of detail, his treatise must be regarded as one of the most valuable contributions to the history of a remarkable statesman.

La Monnaie et le Bimétallisme International. Par Émile de Laveleye. Paris. 1891.

THE author's Introduction has this paragraph:

"Ce que l'on commence à voir clairement—et c'est là un grand progrès—c'est que la monnaie métallique, étant de sa nature un instrument d'échange universel, doit être réglée par traités. Ce sont les États-Unis surtout qui ont reconnu cette verité, et c'est pour ce motif qu'ils ont pris, deux fois déjà, l'initiative des conférences monétaires."

We had supposed that this initiative had been prompted by quite different motives; we are sorry to learn that it was occasioned by mistaking a falsehood for a truth. Where are governments or nations that are trading with one another? The New York merchant and his Russian correspondent would have made mutually profitable arrangements long ago if they had not been forced to travel the "high *priori*" road of philosophic officialism. Acts of sovereigns, legislators, judges, or administrators in enforcing the use of any substance as a circulating medium are harmful or useless according as they do not or do establish those relations which traders would have brought about among themselves if they had been let alone. It is doubtless true that a great many of the world's inhabitants are suffering from the fact that silver is abundant, or that it is clumsy, or that it is too variable in value for the new commerce. The demonetization of cattle must have worked similar hardship ages since; but there is no direct evidence that the big warriors, to save themselves from loss, forced their good chief to load up his tribe with cattle on a falling market.

The disuse of silver by the commercial world, or the tardy acknowledgment of such disuse on the part of certain Governments, is the cause, in M. de Laveleye's opinion, of so many bad things that we are not surprised to find that it engendered the McKinley Bill. M. de Laveleye, of course, predicted something like this as long ago as 1881, in a letter to the Cobden Club. It is well for his reputation as a prophet that he was not a protectionist (except in the matter of silver); he might have written a letter to the Home Market Club and predicted an era of free trade.

If every creditor should insist to-morrow on receiving the gold nominated in his bond, every one would be so distressed that no one would go on doing so. This is our security against its being done. Most creditors, nowadays, accept, even when gold itself is specified, gold's value, whether it be lands, houses, or goods, or the promises of honest men that own these things. "But gold is increasing in value, and, in consequence, prices are going down." This appears to M. de Laveleye something quite terrible: "C'est le commerçant obligé de vendre moins cher qu'il n'a acheté." Really, even the peanut-boy will not regret having to take a dime instead of the expected quarter for his wares, when he finds that the price of gallery tickets has dropped overnight from a quarter to a dime.

Perhaps, when things get too bad, we may enact that the dollar shall contain less gold. Such things have been done to relieve a prince's necessity, to the great distress of his subjects. The subjects may not be able to see any harm in trying the experiment for their own advantage. Why would it not be as simple a way of paying off old debts as to enact

that when a gold dollar is mentioned, it shall mean a certain weight of some other metal? Perhaps the debtors will get a law passed that every creditor shall accept less than 100 per cent. This has also been tried, and is quite as easy as giving every one the alternative of paying in either gold or silver in some fetish ratio of 1:15½. Let those who are haunted with the dread that gold will become dearer, petition the Government to demonetize it, to make "mere merchandise" of it, to trample upon it. We can conceive no other punishment that will bring the monometallists to their senses and to remorse.

An Introduction to the Study of Mammals, Living and Extinct. By William Henry Flower and Richard Lydekker. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. 763.

A VERY fair knowledge of the mammalia may be secured from this book without toiling through the numerous special monographs on the group. It is by much the best introduction to the study of the subject within reach. One of the authors is of the highest rank among authorities on the recent forms; the other occupies a similar position with regard to the extinct. Under their hands, as might be expected, the errors so common in the works ordinarily called manuals do not appear; their mastery of the subject prevented mistakes in the choice of material when they found it necessary to draw from others. The first 146 pages are devoted to the introductory chapters, comprising discussion of the tegumentary, dental, skeletal, digestive, and sensory systems, and the distribution, geographical and geological. The quality of this portion, as in fact of the following pages of diagnoses and descriptions, is such as leaves the impression on the reader that its greatest lack is a greater quantity than was possible within the limits of the volume. The interpolation of the fossil forms, with a large number of excellent illustrations affording the means of direct comparisons with portions of the skeletons of the recent, has been very well managed; in consequence, the student gets a broad and comprehensive view of the subject that could not be acquired from works relating only to living types. No space is wasted on theory; the student is allowed to grow his own genealogical tree.

In the accounts of habits and modes of capture there is much to interest the general reader; and the pictures make considerable additions. Occasionally a drawing exposes a feature, probably due to an imaginative artist, not wholly in accord with what is known of the creature represented: for instance, the skunks frisking about like squirrels up in a tree. It might have been better, for American readers, to give the common names as used in this country as well as in England. Our elk is the animal locally called the wapiti; the European elk is our moose; our rabbits belong with the European hares, and so on. The usages are so fixed there is no hope of change, and the best we can do is to recognize the differences. We find Solenodon restricted to Cuba and Hayti, though also found in Central America. Specialists will not agree in regard to the principal groups in the classification adopted, and there are differences of opinion as to the rank assigned certain genera and species; but, on the whole, works on natural history are rare indeed in which the grounds for criticism are so few as in the volume before us.

Twelve Months in Peru. By E. B. Clark. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

THE author of this little work of 158 pages has enjoyed opportunities for the contribution of fresh knowledge concerning South America which seldom fall to the lot of women, and we regret to be compelled to say that her opportunities have been poorly improved. We have heard much about railroads and other enterprises in Peru, we have had the Cholos and the Indians well characterized, we know Lima by heart, and have seen the charming Limeña, wrapped in her *manta*, hurrying to mass in the soft light of the early morning; but we have never looked in upon the home life, have never understood the inner heart, of the women of Peru. That subtle analysis of national peculiarities which the finer feeling of a woman can make so well, has hitherto been wanting in every book dealing with South America. After gleaning the experience of 'Twelve Months in Peru,' we have seen no new vision, have caught no note which had not been distinctly audible before. The author must have penetrated secrets which remain for ever hidden to travellers of the other sex, yet she gives not the slightest initiation into them. She journeyed on mule-back far into the heart of the Andes, but we are left to imagine how she was equipped, how arduous or how easy she found it.

Some of her sketches of life in the mountains are racy and interesting, but lacking in detail, and the transitions are so abrupt as to mar each picture which she was about to create. The description of the Verrugas bridge, and the excitement of crossing the chasm while the bridge was in process of reconstruction, swung in a sort of cage from a cable, is one of the best things in the book. There are some bits of history and matter of a statistical order which are of easy access, and might better have been omitted. The author errs in connecting Guayaquil by rail with Piura, and in alleging a similar connection to exist between Truxillo and Payta. She may have heard of the suggestion of the Peruvian Corporation to connect the Payta-Piura line with the Pacasmayo-Magdalena line, and perhaps a continuation southward to the road which now connects Truxillo with Salaverry, and have confused this proposition with the existing state of affairs. We are also somewhat puzzled to understand why she should persist in perpetuating the popular misconception of the hills on the Isthmus of Panama, by calling them "rugged mountain ranges." The view of Lima is good. Aside from this, the pictures are not meritorious.

Robert Carter: His Life and Work, 1807–1889. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 1891.

IF any hostile criticism of this book were provoked by the general character of its contents, it would be disarmed by the modesty of the prefatory note, which assures us that it was written for Mr. Carter's friends, and that "it is not expected that those who did not know and love him will care to read it." His friends, however, were no narrow circle, for he made many in his business, and many more through his connection with the Scotch Presbyterian Church in this city, the Bible Society, and Princeton College, of each of which he was a trustee, and still others on wide and frequent journeys in America and abroad. As a publisher he was a man of the strictest probity, taking solid comfort in the publication of such religious books as Henry's 'Commentary' and D'Aubigny's 'History of the Reformation,' and delighting in the sale of Spurgeon's books as much because of the good he thought they would do as for the money they brought in. We have had so many disappointments among professing Christians, in politics and elsewhere, that his coreligionists may well be proud of such a man as this. Stanchest of Presbyterians, he was no narrow sectary, and could go and hear Cardinal Manning preach in Rome without misgiving. Some of the pleasantest pages are those which report his acts of kindness to fugitive slaves. When he left Scotland for America in 1831, a good woman advised him to take a wife with him, saying, "Ye'll get naething there but a Yankee, and they're a' black." The account of his boyhood and his youth has the charm that always attends humble fortune and the struggle against odds. The mother had much homely wit with her simplicity. Of certain newly rich people, who were hurt by their prosperity, she said: "Ah! when soles get to be upper leathers, they're awfu' stiff"; and, when her son wrote her that his being a foreigner might stand in his way, she said, "Hech, sirs! they have a guid face to ca' my son a foreigner." It was Mr. Carter's opinion that private fortune is a public trust, and having in his earlier career set apart one-tenth of his income for the good of others, he afterwards made it his rule to give away yearly an amount equal to his family expenses; and he would have been no true Scotchman if he had not found that by such an arrangement his family expenses were sensibly reduced.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Oscar F. The Story of Jane Austen's Life. Chicago. A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Ainger, Alfred. Tennyson for the Young. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.
Airy, Osmund. Text-Book of English History from the Earliest Times. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Appletons' Handbook of Winter Resorts. Revised for 1891–92. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Ballou, Clara E. Our Child: A Tale of Passion. W. D. Rowland. 25 cents.
Ballou, W. H. An Automatic Wife. W. D. Rowland. 50c.
Bell, E. Handbook of Athletic Sports. Vol. V., Athletics—Cycling—Skating. Vol. VI., Practical Horsemanship and Riding for Ladies. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Betts, C. L. The Perfume-Holder: A Persian Love Poem. New York: Saalfield & Fitch.
Binger, Capt. Du Niger au Golfe de Guinée. 1887–1889. 2 vols. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Bissell, Prof. E. C. A Practical Introductory Hebrew Grammar. Hartford, Conn.: Hartford Theological Seminary. $1.75.
Blackall, Emily L. Won and Not One. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Bradshaw, J. The Poetical Works of Thomas Gray. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Butcher, Prof. S. H. Some Aspects of the Greek Genius. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Carpenter, Prof. W. B. The Microscope and Its Revelations. 7th Ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston & Co.
Church, Rev. A. J. Stories from the Bible. Second Series. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Collingwood, W. G. The Art Teaching of John Ruskin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Conway, Prof. W. M. Dawn of Art in the Ancient World. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Curtis, G. W. From the Easy Chair. Harper & Bros.
De Leon, T. C. Sybilla: A Romaunt of the Town. Mobile, Ala.: The Gossip Printing Co. $2.
Dobson, Austin. William Hogarth. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7.50.
Du Maurier, G. Peter Ibbetson. Harper & Bros.
Duras, Duchesse de. Prison Journals during the French Revolution. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Dyer, J. M., and Whitcombe, R. H. Elementary Trigonometry. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Fawcett, Edgar. Songs of Doubt and Dream. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $2.
Fenn, G. M. Syd Belton: The Boy who would not Go to Sea. D. Appleton & Co.
Findlay, George. The Working and Management of an English Railway. 4th ed. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Forbes, Archibald. Barracks, Bivouacs and Battles. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Fulton, Rev. J. The Beautiful Land: Palestine, Historical, Geographical and Pictorial. Thomas Whittaker. $3.75.
Furney, E. E. Culture: A Modern Method. New York: I. H. Brown & Co.
Gardiner, S. R. A School Atlas of English History. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Gaskell, Mrs. Cranford. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Gilmore, Prof. J. H. The Outlines of Rhetoric for Schools and Colleges. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 50 cents.
Grandgent, C. H. Italian Composition. [Heath's Modern Language Series.] Boston: D. C. Heath. 65c.
Grant, F. W. Spiritual Law in the Natural World. New York: Loizeaux Bros. $1.
Green, Anna K. The Old Stone House, and Other Stories. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 40 cents.
Harper, W. R., and Burgess, I. R. An Inductive Latin Primer. American Book Co.

Hill, G. B. Writers and Readers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Hughes, W. R. A Week's Tramp in Dickens-Land. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.75.
Hutton, Laurence. Letters of Charles Dickens to Wilkie Collins. Harper & Bros.
Irving, W. The Alhambra. [The Darro Edition.] 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.
Irving, W. The Voyage, and Other English Essays from the Sketch Book. [The Riverside Literature Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Jackson, Mrs. Mary A. Life and Letters of General Thomas J. Jackson. Harper & Bros.
Jenks, Edward. The Government of Victoria (Australia). Macmillan & Co. $4.
Kirkland, Miss E. S. A Short History of England for Young People. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Kirkpatrick, Prof. A. F. The Divine Library of the Old Testament. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Kitchin, D. B. Le Château d'If. [Episodes from Modern French Authors.] Longmans, Green & Co. 40 cents.
Knight, W. Wordsworth's White Doe of Rylstone. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Lafayette, Mme. de. The Princess of Clèves. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.75.
Lane-Poole, Stanley. Stories from the Arabian Nights. 3 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Lavisse, Prof. E. General View of the History of Europe. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Leisure Hour, 1891. London: Religious Tract Society; New York: Fleming H. Revell Co. $2.50.
Lodge, Prof. L. D. A Study in Corneille. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.
Loewy, B. A Graduated Course of Natural Science. Part II. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Lovett, Richard. United States Pictures, drawn with Pen and Pencil. London: The Religious Tract Society; New York: Fleming H. Revell Co. $3.20.
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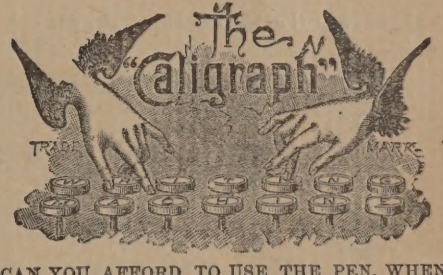

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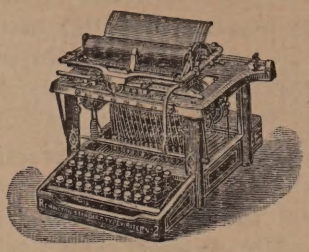

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 24, 1891.

The Week.

So many Republican newspapers are now edited by office-holders that anything like impartial comment upon an act of the Administration is to be expected from few journals of the party. What the subsidized organs think about the appointment of Elkins, but do not dare to say, finds expression in the remarks of two Republican newspapers, representing New England and the Northwest. Says the Manchester (N. H.) *Mirror:* "Mr. Elkins is a smart chap, but neither his character nor his reputation is such as to entitle him to a seat among the able and upright gentlemen who constitute the Cabinet. We fear the President has made his first serious mistake." Says the St. Paul *Pioneer Press:* "Mr. Elkins has shared with Dudley and Quay and others a position which may have been unmerited, but is none the less a disqualification, to some extent, for high and responsible office. It is for this reason that his selection at the present time will provoke surprise and disappointment. An appointment to so high a place should not be open to the criticism that will follow this. It can hardly be said that the nomination of Mr. Elkins is a fortunate one for the President or the party."

By the sudden death of Senator Plumb one of the most important personages in public life has been removed. Mr. Plumb had forged his way to the front as a Senate debater by sheer perseverance. When he first entered that body, he took a very humble rank among the members. By assiduous practice he became a formidable competitor of the ablest men there, and was really a power in the councils of the nation. His course in the last Congress, wherein he opposed the McKinley tariff in several very strong speeches, and finally voted against it, drew the attention of the country to him. This was a very bold step on his part, but the sequel proved that he had acted wisely. The State of Kansas was lost to the Republicans in the whirlwind that followed the passage of that measure, and Senator Ingalls lost his seat in consequence. Mr. Plumb, while adhering to the Republican party, had guided his own steps in such a way as not to offend the political elements that were opposed to McKinleyism. There is good ground for the belief that Mr. Plumb at the hour of his death was stronger at home than he had ever been before, and this solely on account of his opposition to the Tariff Bill.

The unanimous reëlection of Mr. Daniel to the United States Senate by the Legislature of Virginia is treated by the press of the State as a return to the practice of ante-bellum days, when a faithful public servant was kept in office term after term. In the early days "the Old Dominion" formed an effective barrier against the "rotation-in-office" doctrine. In the Seventeenth Congress, for example, eighteen of the twenty-two Representatives from Virginia were old members, five of them being in their third terms, while five others had served in from five to eleven Congresses. As late as the last Congress before the war, when the State was entited to twelve members, one had been elected three times, two four times, two six times, and one seven times. A change was produced by the reconstruction era, and what the Lynchburg *Virginian* calls "the general dislocation and upheaval of social and political ideas which followed the cataclysm of the war." Changes became frequent, and even the most worthy officials often had to fight hard for a continuance in public life. The pendulum is now swinging back, and Mr. Daniel's unquestioned reëlection is a sign of the times.

The anti-lottery section of the Democratic party in Louisiana have nominated a strong ticket, with an aggressive and experienced campaign leader at its head for Governor, and have also adopted a platform denouncing the proposed Constitutional amendment which continues the charter of the lottery and makes it a part of the Constitution. The "united and individual support" of all the members of the Convention is pledged to the principles of the platform. The Convention's action forces the lottery issue squarely upon the other wing of the Democratic party whose Convention has not yet adopted a platform, but has made its nominations. It is noticeable that the members of this wing are declaring that their two leading candidates are anti-lottery men, but it is certain that the nominee for Governor, Mr. McEnery, is a lottery man, and has acted in the past in the lottery's interest. They are also circulating a report that a compact has been arranged between the anti-lottery wing and the National Republican Committee, the terms of which are, that, in return for Republican support of the anti-lottery ticket this year, the anti-lottery Democrats will help carry Louisiana for the Republican Presidential candidates next year. All these reports have the peculiar lottery flavor, and are obviously false. The only way by which the McEnery ticket can be removed from suspicion will be for the Convention to adopt an anti-lottery pledge similar to that which the other Convention has adopted.

The idea seems to be widely accepted that the President is compelled to issue a proclamation on the first of January imposing duties on sugar, molasses, tea, coffee, and hides when imported from countries that have not made reciprocity agreements with us under the McKinley Act. The truth is, he can issue such proclamation or not just as he pleases, since the condition of issuing it at all is the state of his own mind. This will be seen by an attentive examination of the law, which reads thus:

> "Sec. 3. That with a view to secure reciprocal trade with countries producing the following articles and for this purpose, on and after the 1st day of January, 1892, whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied that the Government of any country producing and exporting sugars, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides (raw and uncured), or any of such articles, imposes duties or other exactions upon the agricultural or other products of the United States, which, in view of the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides into the United States, he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable, he shall have the power, and it shall be his duty, to suspend by proclamation to that effect the provisions of this act relating to the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, tea, coffee, and hides, the production of such country, for such time as he shall deem just," etc.

It is easily seen that the proclamation is to be issued only in case the President is "in a state of mind." If he should be in a state of mind regarding Venezuela, for example, which declined to lower her tariff in our favor, he could impose duties on the sugar, coffee, and hides coming from that country. But if he should think that the reason assigned by Venezuela for not lowering her tariff (namely, that she could not spare the revenue), was a good and valid reason, then it would not be incumbent on him to issue any such proclamation, because in such case the Venezuelan tariff would not be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable. It is not unequal or unreasonable for any country to impose sufficient taxes to pay the cost of its own Government.

The case of the British West India Islands is somewhat peculiar. These are all crown colonies, but all of them, nevertheless, are allowed to frame their own fiscal systems. The population is about 5 per cent. white and 95 per cent. black or mulatto. The whites and a small percentage of the mulattoes are the governing class, and they arrange the tax laws so as to throw the bulk of the cost of the local governments on the working class, *i. e.*, the blacks and the imported East Indian coolies. This is accomplished by means of duties on imported food products. All or most of their food comes from the United States. The duties on these articles are paid mostly by the poor and ignorant blacks, who know nothing about taxation, and could not understand the subject even if it were explained to them. When the governing

classes of the islands say that these are revenue duties, and that they cannot be spared, they probably think so, but, as a matter of fact, they can be spared of the whites will consent to a land tax of sufficient amount to supplement the discarded duties on food. It is only a question which class shall pay the cost of carrying on the local government. The British West Indies are not the only countries where the rich throw the cost of supporting the Government on the poor by means of duties on imports; but we refrain from mentioning any other at present.

The dedication in Philadelphia on Thursday of the Drexel Institute of Art, Science, and Industry was an event of far more than local interest and concern. The institution is devoted to the work of preparing youth of both sexes for the activities of mature life through training in the practical and technical methods which they must follow in their chosen vocations. Thus the business department will provide training in stenography, typewriting, bookkeeping, business forms, accounts, correspondence, and the writing of English, with familiar lectures on the terms and operations of manufactures, commerce, finance, and law, and it will aim to prepare students for the higher forms of employment as clerks, bookkeepers, and secretaries. The department of mechanic arts will include a thorough course of manual training, which will be supplemented by carefully devised courses of instruction in drawing, mathematics, science, and other branches, with systematic training in the workshops and laboratories, and an opportunity to acquire a practical knowledge of steam and electrical machinery and appliances in connection with the mechanical plants in the building. The department of domestic economy will instruct girls and young women in everything pertaining to the organization and management of the household, its two years' course embracing cookery, millinery, and dressmaking; the building, sanitation, decoration, and management of the house; household economy, human physiology and hygiene, business forms and accounts, elementary economics, and physical training. The edifice which Mr. Drexel has erected for the Institute, with its site and equipment, has cost half a million dollars, and he has given one million more for its endowment in securities returning $50,000 a year. The benefaction is thus in every way most remarkable, and it is difficult to conceive a keener satisfaction than must be felt by the man who conceived the noble project and has carried it out during his lifetime.

The removal of the Premier of Quebec and his Cabinet for corruption will surprise no one who has followed the course of affairs in Canada since the charges which have led to this result were first made. The sudden disappearance of leading persons involved as soon as an uncovering of the scandals was threatened, and a strong line of testimony against the accused, formed a case against them which later denials and a sudden energy in the way of libel suits did little to weaken. While it would be going too far to ascribe the large crop of public scandals over which Canada is now blushing to the use made of that country by fugitive officials from this side the border, the evil influence of the employment of their country as a place of refuge by American thieves is conceded by Canadians. One of the finest residence blocks in Montreal was notoriously built out of the Broadway Railroad bribery fund, and is still known there as "Boodlers' Block." A fugitive excise officer from this city took an active part in one of the railroad bribery schemes exposed in Canada last summer, and contributed his experience to the work. The leading Canadian officers now in disgrace have had a career like that of our city public thieves —an entrance into office as men of small means, and a sudden development into men of wealth, with houses and diamonds to correspond. There is certain to be a good deal of race and religious feeling involved in the Quebec scandals, for the disgraced officers will appeal to their French tongue and their Romanist belief to obscure the case against themselves.

The full text of Mr Goschen's speech before the London Chamber of Commerce on the 2d enables us to form an opinion upon the whole matter with more distinctness than we could heretofore. His plan for an enlargement of the central gold reserve of the United Kingdom is briefly this: The Bank is to offer its £1 notes in exchange for gold; but in order to enable it to pay the expense of printing the notes, taking care of the gold, clerk hire, etc., it is allowed to issue £5 in notes against £4 of gold and £1 of Government securities (consols). It is assumed that the stock of gold in bank will be doubled by this operation, or raised from an average of £20,000,000 to £40,000,000. It is conceded by Mr. Goschen that a certain proportion of the gold now in the pockets of the people would be exported and lost to the country (as gold) by the operation. That is, the gold represented by the one-fifth of new notes issued against Government securities, being liberated from actual use as currency, would be sent to the best market. But it would not be given away. It would be returned in the form of goods. Then Mr. Goschen says that he would rather have £40,000,000 in a central reservoir than £50,000,000 in the pockets of the people. He would rather have the smaller sum in a place where it can be got at, than the larger in a place where it cannot be got at. In this position he is unquestionably right.

Of what avail will this larger sum be in case of a panic? The Bank in that event is to have the power to issue notes beyond the present legal limit—*i. e.*, in its own discretion, at a high rate of interest—the interest to inure to the benefit of the Government minus a sum sufficient to pay the Bank for its risk. This plan does not contemplate the suspension of specie payments for a single moment. The Bank must assume the entire risk of the overissue of notes, but the risk will be small if it has £40,000,000 gold in its vaults. Mr. Goschen speaks only of an internal panic —that is, a panic not accompanied by an export of gold. In the event of such a panic, an overissue of notes would be of no avail, since they would be presented for redemption as fast as issued. But the Bank would judge for itself whether the panic were external or internal or mixed, and would govern itself accordingly. The plan is well conceived, and was well received by those to whom it was addressed; Mr. Lidderdale, the Governor of the Bank of England, moving the vote of thanks to Mr. Goschen at its conclusion.

Our weekly contemporary *Bradstreet's* has fallen into an error respecting Mr. Goschen's remarks on the silver question in the above speech, which, it says, "only indicated that, should another international conference be arranged for, the position of England in regard to the adoption of an international ratio of the value of silver might not be so inflexible as was the case in the past." On the contrary, the speech declared in so many words that, whether there should be another conference or not, the position of England would not be changed one iota. So Mr. Ottomar Haupt, a bimetallist of some prominence in Paris, understands it, for he writes to the *Financial Times* expressing disappointment at the inflexible attitude of England as indicated in the speech. Mr. Haupt adds to his complaint the important information that Austria-Hungary "has now finally decided to adopt the single gold standard, for which purpose large purchases of the precious metal have been made." Another piece of information contributed by Mr. Haupt may have some interest for the bimetallists hereabout. He says that if another international conference should be held, bimetallism could only be adopted "on the basis of about the actual value of silver; and neither the ratio of one to fifteen and a half, as in the Latin States, nor that of one to sixteen, as adopted by America, would stand a chance of forming the future basis of the establishment of universal bimetallism. And precisely in this question of the choosing of the proper ratio are centred the greatest difficulties."

The death of the Duke of Devonshire will have more important political consequences than any Duke's death has had

for many a day. It takes Lord Hartington out of the House of Commons, and Lord Hartington and Sir Henry James were the two men who gave the Liberal Unionists in the House any weight, and secured for them much public confidence. Lord Hartington, however, was the leader. Sir Henry James was simply a highly respectable and rather half-hearted member of the rank and file. It was Lord Hartington's presence in the party, or set, which gave it an air of permanence. No one suspected him of personal ambition or disappointed hopes in breaking with Gladstone, as every one knew he was doomed to be a duke. Moreover, his advice was taken by all the members of the set as a final guide, because every one looks on him as preëminently a "safe man," which is the kind of man in public life the English most admire. His removal to the House of Lords will, to all intents and purposes, take him out of politics, for he is naturally indolent, and the House of Lords gives very little stimulus to exertion. Sir Henry James has no desire to lead, and nobody any longer trusts Mr. Chamberlain.

The latest curiosity of the English law as affecting the liability of writers and publishers is to be found in a decision of the Court of Queen's Bench in London, rendered on December 8. Messrs. Chapman & Hall had lately published a volume entitled 'African Stories,' written by a certain Major Ellis. In one of the tales a character named James Peacock was introduced, who was described as an ex-African merchant whose wealth had been acquired in an illegitimate manner. Thereupon came forward a veritable African merchant, Mr. James Pinnock, who maintained that he was referred to by many infallible signs in the story, and asserted, furthermore, that his fortune had been obtained in an entirely reputable way. He proceeded to take action against the publishers, inasmuch as the author was inconveniently absent in the West Indies, doubtless in quest of material for another volume. As soon as Messrs. Chapman & Hall learned that the book in question was giving offence, they at once broke off its publication and withdrew all copies issued to libraries. Moreover, it was not even alleged that the libel was intentional, yet libel it was, the jury said, and the plaintiff was given damages to the extent of £200. Expert testimony as to the nature of the offending volume was given in court by several authors—by Mr. George Meredith among others, he having read the tales in manuscript. He described the work as "an attempt by a writer of serious mind to be humorous." Mr. Meredith himself was not much taken with Major Ellis's humor, he said, but thought it might tickle the public. What the result might have proved but for the unfortunate sensitiveness of Mr. Pinnock, cannot, of course, now be said; but we must say, without knowing anything about the merits of the particular case, that the public has to suffer too many things at the hands of writers with a natural turn for the humorous, to make it regret very much this damper put upon an author who was trying to be mirthful against the grain.

The renewal of the charter of the Bank of France is close at hand, and the currency "cranks" are preparing their various plans for turning the bank-notes into something else than promises to pay gold on demand. Foremost among these, as here of late, are the farmers. The farmers in France have long been troubled by the difficulty of borrowing money from the banks, owing to their inability to give any easily convertible security. Their land may be good security in the long run, but it is very poor security for short loans, because it does not always find purchasers in case of default. Some means of making somebody lend the farmer money on such security as he can offer has, therefore, long been a great desideratum in French politics, and he has at last, as might have been expected, turned to the Government for relief. Some of the farmers would doubtless, like Peffer, like to have the Government "prepare" money, and "cover it into the Treasury." But others are more moderate in their aims. What they ask for is that it should be made a condition of the renewal of the Bank charter that the Bank should make long loans on agricultural paper endorsed by the "Syndicats Agricoles," which are societies of farmers not unlike our Farmers' Alliances. The Bank, however, refuses to lend on any paper which has not the characteristics of commercial paper; that is, it must not run for more than three months, and must be payable on a day certain, and, in case of non-payment, must entail the bankruptcy of the makers and endorsers. The farmers, however, are by no means satisfied with this, and the reason is that the "basing" idea has got a firm foothold among them. We are all familiar here with this idea. It used to be preached vigorously in the old greenback days, even by such orators as Wendell Phillips. That idea is, that promissory notes need not be made convertible when due, or convertible at all, provided they are "based" on something—that is, as long as something exists which the note is supposed to represent. Simpson expanded this "basing" idea when he proposed that the Government should get experts to estimate how much gold there was in a mountain, and then "base" notes on the contents of the mountain as thus estimated.

The action of the Spanish Government in extending all its existing treaties of commerce, without modification, until June, 1892, has an important bearing upon the reciprocity agreement with this country affecting our exports to Cuba and Porto Rico. Spain has held that she was bound to give to the nations with which she was in treaty relations the same advantages as those accorded the United States in the special reciprocity arrangement. Thus, only a few days ago the Governor-General of Cuba received the following despatch from the Minister for the Colonies: "In pursuance of a claim preferred by the Minister of the Netherlands, I remind your Excellency that merchandise and products coming directly from Holland, and embraced in the schedules annexed to the treaty with the United States, enjoy the same benefits as the American goods." Under this ruling, the United States have had no discrimination made in their favor as yet. Such a discrimination would have existed after February 1, 1892, the date at which all the Spanish treaties were to reach their term; but now the Government gives notice that it will extend them for five months longer, thus neutralizing the reciprocity convention for that added length of time. And it should be remembered that by next July a new Cuban tariff will be promulgated, in which Spain will be able to arrange the rates so as to put her own exports beyond fear of our competition.

Brazil's unique method of peaceful revolution has its advantages, but its rapid extension from one State of the country to another gives it almost a comic air. All that is necessary, apparently, is for a group of the dissatisfied to get together and indulge in threatening talk against the Governor, when the latter is expected at once to resign. This practice had become such a well-established rule of the game that the action of the Governor of Pernambuco on Saturday in calling out the troops and actually firing upon the rioters, might almost be called unfair play. He himself appears to have been filled with remorse at this breach of good faith on his part, as the insurrectionary party no doubt considered it, and hastened to file the desired resignation after what must be characterized, under the circumstances, as a perfectly unnecessary effusion of courage and blood. However, it is probable that the whole process has in reality less the appearance of comic opera than it would seem to have at this distance; it is very likely only the local completion of the revolution at the capital which made an end of Fonseca. Most of the Governors were his vassals, many of them having been directly appointed to their offices by him, and their forced resignations are doubtless to be looked upon as an expression of the popular desire to get rid of the last reminders of the Fonseca régime. Even so, the method is sufficiently startling to a law-abiding mind, and shows how many lessons in the art of republican government Brazil has yet to learn.

JUDGESHIPS AND OTHER OFFICES.

PRESIDENT HARRISON has once more earned the hearty commendation of the nation by the excellence of his judicial appointments. No President in recent times has been called upon to name so many judges in an equal period, and no President has maintained a higher level in his selections. The last Congress required him to man a new court of appellate judges, and the nominations for six of the places which he sent to the Senate on Wednesday week fully sustain the reputation which he had previously established for the exercise of uncommon discrimination.

The most striking feature of these nominations is the fact that two of the six appointees of a Republican President are prominent Democrats. Mr. William L. Putnam of Maine is by far the most conspicuous and eminent member of the party in that State, which has made him its nominee for Governor and would gladly have honored him with any office. His fitness for the bench may be estimated from the fact that he was offered a judgeship of the State Supreme Court a few years ago, and that the two Republican Senators from Maine earnestly recommended his appointment as Chief Justice of the United States when that office fell vacant during Cleveland's Administration. Mr. George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania is equally honored by the people of his State, without distinction of party. The Philadelphia *Ledger*, which mixes independence with its Republicanism, says of him :

"No member of the bar of his age is better known throughout the State of Pennsylvania. He represents and fulfils the best traditions of the Philadelphia bar. That he has proved himself a lawyer of the best type is the unanimous judgment of his contemporaries. He has distinguished himself in the trial and argument of causes, and he has done his duty successfully and well in public matters, and especially as a member of the Constitutional Convention; but he has chiefly impressed the members of the bar as a man having a peculiar aptitude for the judicial office. The people of the Third Circuit may be congratulated upon having been given a judge learned, upright, and impartial."

The Philadelphia *Press*, which takes its Republicanism "straight," is no less hearty. "The appointment of Mr. George M. Dallas," it says, "ought to be, and we believe will be, highly gratifying to the people of Philadelphia regardless of party. His success and eminence at the bar, and his appointment as Professor in the Law Department of the University of Pennsylvania, attest his capacity and learning as a lawyer."

The most important feature of these two selections, however, is not the fact that the Democrats chosen are excellent men, but that they are Democrats at all; that a Republican President gives one-third of these most responsible and distinguished offices to members of the other party. It was eminently the right thing to do. The Philadelphia *Press* tells the exact truth about Mr. Harrison's performance when it says of it:

"The country will approve of his moderation and self-restraint in refusing to take all the partisan advantage which the opportunity offered. That both parties are represented on the Federal bench makes strongly for the public safety and content. It promotes a healthy public opinion and belief in the essential non-partisanship and fairness of the Federal judiciary. The new Court of Appeals will stand stronger in the opinion of the public, and be regarded more generally with favor and respect, because in appointing its Judges the President has broken through the border wall of party politics."

But the more heartily the President is praised for giving the Democrats so large a representation on this important bench, the more severe must be his condemnation for having applied the contrary system of the most rigorous partisanship to the great host of less important offices which he has disposed of during the past three years. If it "makes strongly for the public safety and content" to have both parties represented on the Federal bench, so would it also to have both parties represented in minor departments of the Federal service. If such appointments "promote a belief in the essential non-partisanship and fairness of the Federal judiciary," and if "the new Court of Appeals will stand stronger in the opinion of the public, and be regarded more generally with favor and respect," because of them, so would the Postal Department throughout the country be benefited if in appointments to it the President had also "broken through the border wall of politics."

In fact, the argument for giving a third or a half of the minor offices to the opposite party is infinitely stronger than in the case of these high judgeships. Mr. Putnam and Mr. Dallas hold views diametrically opposed to those of Mr. Harrison on all of the great issues which divide parties, and they are given offices which enable them to enforce those views, and to affect the attitude which the Federal Government shall occupy regarding them; on the other hand, the overwhelming majority of the minor Federal appointees can exert no influence whatever upon the attitude of the Federal Government towards vital issues. Their duties are purely executive, and for the most part mechanical. They stamp letters, sort mail matter, add up columns of figures, manage petty offices—all of them duties with which partisanship properly has nothing in the world to do. The most eminent Democrat in Maine is given the most responsible office within the President's gift at this session, and yet there is not a little post-office in the State where it would be thought proper to retain the most efficient incumbent if he were a Democrat. A year ago the term of Gen. Corse as Postmaster of the metropolis of New England expired. His administration had been so remarkable for efficiency and non-partisanship that the business community of Boston besought his reappointment, and even such bitter Republican partisans as Senators Hoar and Dawes favored his retention. But Mr. Harrison refused to let him remain in this purely executive position, simply and solely on the ground that he was a Democrat, and had not expressed himself in condemnation of the course of his party throughout the nation. Even the cross-roads postmasters throughout the United States—40,000 of them—had to "go" if they were not Republicans, on the ground that it was essential to the successful administration of the Federal Government that every little office should be run by a man "in sympathy with the party in power." And then the President who thus surrendered tens of thousands of minor offices to the spoilsmen, recognizes the fundamental principle of civil-service reform by giving two out of six of the highest judgeships in the land to men who have not one particle of sympathy with the party in power!

The absurdity of the spoils system could not be portrayed more vividly than in this effective contrast. The nation will commend with the utmost heartiness Mr. Harrison's wise appointment of Democratic judges, by which it realizes more forcibly than ever before the folly of his refusal to keep in post-offices and other Federal offices the thousands of efficient men whom he has removed simply for being Democrats. The President has thus, unconsciously no doubt, given a great impetus to the cause of civil-service reform.

A REPUBLICAN BUSINESS MAN.

THERE can be no question that Stephen B. Elkins, whom the President has nominated for Secretary of War, is one of the most representative Republicans of his time. We doubt if there could be found in the country to-day a man who typifies more perfectly than he does the principles and tendencies of the latter-day Republican party. He is, as one of the Republican Boys of this city lately described himself to be, a "Republican from the crown of his head to the soles of his feet." For more than twenty years he has been devoting all his energies to the cultivation of Republicanism as he understands it—that is, has been making his politics and his business work together for the good of Stephen B. Elkins. The skill with which he has directed those energies is shown by the grand results. He is to-day a very rich man and a member of the Cabinet. The different steps by which he has reached these goals are so full of instruction that we shall trace them in their order, as briefly and dispassionately as possible.

He began his political business career in New Mexico when, in 1867, he became a member of the Legislature of that Territory. Two years later President Andrew Johnson appointed him District Attorney of the Territory, and he held the office till 1873, when he was elected a delegate from New Mexico to Congress. He served two terms in this capacity, becoming during his service greatly interested in mining ventures, all of which had special Congressional grants, or Territorial court decisions, or some other political complication which enhanced their value to Mr. Elkins and

other stockholders. One of his most famous ventures at this time was the Maxwell land grant, a Mexican boundary claim with a bill behind it. Mr. Elkins worked so zealously for this bill that it was passed, and the grant was afterwards sold to a Dutch syndicate for several million dollars. Prolonged litigation and ugly charges of irregular conduct followed the sale, but it was said that Mr. Elkins had severed his connection with the business before the scandals appeared.

In 1872 Mr. Elkins may be said to have entered upon his career as a national business Republican by becoming a member of the National Republican Committee, a position which he has held continuously ever since. He had about the same time become the warm personal friend and admirer of James G. Blaine. When the Star-route investigation began in 1881, after Garfield's inauguration, it was charged but not proved that Mr. Elkins, in his capacity as a Territorial Republican business man, had been connected more or less intimately with some of the objectionable contracts. Stephen W. Dorsey, another Republican business man, was shown to have been connected very closely with them, and in a statement which he made in 1884, Mr. Dorsey said :

"S. B. Elkins, United Bank Building, New York, has probably a larger knowledge than any other person of all the Star-route matters and the moneys paid. George E. Spencer demanded of the late J. W. Bosler and myself $12,000 to pay Mr. Elkins for the purpose of avoiding indictment and prosecution, and I replied that I would not pay a penny, and never did."

In 1884 Mr. Elkins took a most active part both in the nomination of Mr. Blaine for the Presidency and in the campaign for his election. After Mr. Cleveland entered upon the Presidency, and Mr. Bayard had become Secretary of State, there was found in the State Department a claim against Brazil for $50,000,000, made by one Jewett for an alleged discovery of guano beds in Brazil. Mr. Evarts, as Secretary of State, twice rejected the claim. The accompanying correspondence showed that Jewett had retained Mr. Elkins as counsel, and that Mr. Blaine, while Garfield's Secretary of State, on August 8, 1881, had written to Mr. Osborne, the United States Minister in Brazil, reversing Mr. Evarts's decisions and instructions in regard to the claims; and that Mr. Blaine had written also to Mr. Jewett saying that he had reopened the claim "at the request of Stephen B. Elkins, Esq., your attorney." In his letter to Mr. Osborne, Mr. Blaine said : "I am not sufficiently informed as to the law of Brazil to know how far its formal requirements as to the mere question of right and title would nullify this action by its Government, but I do know that in justice and in equity a responsibility has been incurred which cannot be escaped."

While the reopened claim was being thus pressed by Secretary Blaine and Mr. Elkins, President Garfield was lingering between life and death. After his death, Mr. Blaine was succeeded in office by Mr. Frelinghuysen. Nothing was done with the claim during the latter's term. When Mr. Bayard had considered it carefully, he said of it: "Such a claim, so stated, shocks the moral sense, and cannot be held to be within the domain of reason or justice. It would be an act of international unfriendliness for the United States to lend themselves in any way or to any degree in urging, much less enforcing, such a demand upon a country with whom we are, or design to remain, on terms of amity. I, therefore, return the protest as enclosed by you, and decline to transmit it to the United States Minister at Brazil, or to instruct him to present it officially or otherwise."

While the Bering Sea negotiations with Great Britain were in progress a few months ago, it was discovered that Mr. Elkins, as a member of the North American Commercial Company, had great financial interests at stake in preventing a settlement, and it was only with the greatest difficulty and after long delay that his interests were compelled to give way. It was intimated at the time that the President's son and other Republican business men were interested with Mr. Elkins in this enterprise, and a Washington correspondent hints that the President's son has been "let into" several other of the many good things which Mr. Elkins has control of, and that this kindness to the son has had some influence in securing the appointment.

We have touched upon only the chief incidents in the busy career of this eminent Republican business man, but enough has been given to show what his claims to the position are, and to foreshadow with sufficient clearness the kind of Secretary of War he will make.

A FURIBUNDAL NAVY.

THERE are times when it seems as if disinterested and faithful service of the country by men of honor, to whom money is by no means the highest good, is to be found only in the ranks of the army and navy. That these two services are the best schools of real patriotism just now, we fear there is no question. But it has to be borne in mind that the officers of both the army and navy are young men, and fighting men by profession, and naturally eager for active service, and, like military men all over the world, very ready to take offence, stand on their dignity, and exact satisfaction. For this reason every government which has an army or navy for real use, and not merely for show, finds itself obliged to keep a tight rein on any portion of either which brings it in contact with foreign nations. The army seldom does bring it in contact with foreign nations, but the navy does so constantly, and therefore a stimulated navy—that is, a navy fed, either by its superiors at home or by the press at home, on highly seasoned food, and urged to assert itself and "stand no nonsense," and make foreigners "stand round"—is one of the most dangerous possessions a nation can have, for it keeps the country constantly on the verge of an expensive quarrel, either with a Power which has to be fought because it is so big, or with a Power which has to be fought because it is so little. What naval officers, when let loose in times of excitement, can do in the way of reckless abuse of force, was well illustrated in the Jamaica troubles twenty years ago, when two young fellows—a lieutenant and a midshipman in the British navy—constituted themselves a drumhead court-martial, and hanged a highly respectable colored man whose sole offence was that he had been prominent in politics before the trouble began.

We are just now passing through a crisis which, we think, makes these observations peculiarly appropriate. After a good many years without a navy, we have begun to get one, and have already the nucleus of a formidable naval force with all the modern improvements. The public is naturally much pleased and very proud, and the naval officers have begun to recover from the humiliation so long inflicted on them by the old wooden ships. This has put the navy and a considerable portion of the public in what may be called a fighting mood. There is abroad a human, but not wholly respectable, desire to find somebody on whom our new armored ships and new guns may be tried without serious doubt as to the result; and Chili just now seems to have been selected for the *corpus vile*. The instructions issued by the Navy Department to the squadron at Valparaiso were in every way creditable, but, what with the influence of the Barrundia case and of the new navy, they were not strictly obeyed. Our officers did show their bias in favor of Balmaceda, with little or no attempt at concealment. Admiral Brown was very indiscreet in his movements; Commander Schley was very indiscreet in his correspondence, and more than indiscreet in sending a large body of sailors ashore at Valparaiso after being warned that the Chilian populace was very much excited. It was, under the circumstances, a real "wha daur meddle wi' me?" manifesto.

The threats that something terrible will happen to the Chilians if they do not submit to some sort of humiliation to which everybody knows we would not ask a first-class Power to submit, continue, and, as usual, a portion of the press is active in keeping the excitement alive. Every movement of our war ships, every launch of a new one, and every repair in the navy-yard is treated as preparation to fight Chili. As usual, the press has done nothing to enlighten or inform public opinion about the law or morality of the situation. It confines itself to stimulating the combativeness of the navy and the public.

Secretary Tracy, as far as we know, is keeping his head cool now, or doing nothing to aggravate the crisis, but a striking illustration of the kind of pressure he has to resist appeared in the columns of an

occasionally esteemed contemporary on Monday. Under the heading "Quite Ready for Chili," we find an interview with Secretary Tracy. Asked whether he had heard of a mob surrounding the American Legation in Santiago, he said he had not, and did not believe it. Asked whether he expected any trouble with Chili, he said he did not. Asked "what American line-of-battle ships are now within easy reach of Chili," he said: "The little *Yorktown* is at Valparaiso, and the *Boston* will be there in a few days. The *Baltimore* is now on her way up to San Francisco." This is all there was in the interview about Chili. It showed that the preparations for war with Chili are mainly being carried on in the newspapers, whose proper function really is, as preachers of morality, to try to keep war feeling down. This function would be discharged but for the extraordinary notion that the journalist's highest duty is to create a large demand for his newspaper. No notice of this is taken, as far as we know, in recent works on political science, but it is a prominent factor in modern politics.

EUROPEAN TARIFF CHANGES.

THE commercial treaties recently negotiated in such a way as to cover a large part of Europe, come as a striking fulfilment of a prediction made more than two years ago by an Italian economist. Writing in the *Giornale degli Economisti* of "Tariff Policy during the Last Thirty Years," he made out roughly a special character for each successive decade: the first, a period of gradually lowering duties, following the initiative of England; the second, the time of commercial treaties, in the negotiation of which France led off; and, third, the protectionist reaction of the last ten years, bringing back the features of the abandoned corn-laws, and reverting to the policy of international hostility and reprisals in trade. This reached its height in the commercial war between France and Italy, precipitated by the tariff laws enacted by the latter in 1887. It also led to the harmful French and German protectionist legislation. Writing when this war of tariffs was at its hottest, the economist we refer to, Signor Stringher, maintained that the condition of things thus brought about would be found intolerable, and predicted a return to the system of commercial treaties securing freer international exchanges.

That the new treaties which have already come stand for an abatement of the protectionist madness, is admitted on all hands. They may be complicated with political motives and questions of general international policy, but no considerations of foreign policy could make so many European statesmen seriously relax the protective system, as they are doing, if they continued to think that system the secret of national prosperity. Even in France, where the protectionists appeared a few months ago to be carrying everything before them, a most decided halt has been called. The first drafts of the new French tariff were enough to delight the heart of McKinley himself, and his French analogue, M. Méline, expounded the protectionist theory of increasing wealth by taxation with a sincerity and earnestness equal to the American's. No pernicious distinctions were to be allowed between raw materials and manufactured articles, and the great exporters were told that they would get along just as well with taxed wool and silk and cotton. But the hammering which the bill has had to take on its way through Chamber and Senate, the unanswerable assaults upon it by men like M. Léon Say, from the economic point of view, and by the protesting manufacturers and workingmen, from the practical standpoint, have knocked a good deal of the mischief out of it. All the proposed duties on raw materials have, we believe, either been abandoned or made up for by drawbacks to be paid to exporters, so that the Minister of Commerce, M. Jules Roche, could lately say in the Senate:

> "But a few months ago many voices were lifted up for the establishment of duties on raw materials. We have succeeded in getting that idea to be abandoned, in the interests of our national industries."

More than that, the immense value to France of her foreign trade has been freshly emphasized in the course of these tariff debates. In denial of the ignorant assertions of M. Dauphin and others that France had been marching straight to ruin through buying from other nations more than she sold them, careful statistics have been compiled which show that there has been a great advance in the value of both real and personal property during those fatal years when foreign commerce was encouraged. Even in the case of the much-pitied agricultural interests, M. Alfred Neymarck has shown that the value of farming lands increased from 61 to 91 milliards of francs between 1852 and 1882, while the value of domestic animals in the same time advanced more than 100 per cent. And as bearing on the future policy of France in the matter of international commerce, it has been too much forgotten that her new tariff system, in one of its features, leaves the door open for a great enlargement of foreign trade. We refer, of course, to the device of a maximum and minimum column, the latter of which, with its low duties, will be declared to be in force in the case of countries offering adequate concessions, on their part, to French exports.

The hope and expectation of the Government in this particular were made entirely clear in the speech of the Minister of Commerce referred to above, which was delivered on November 25. After declaring that it was "an essential condition of the existence of France to seek a foreign market, to make advances to the new countries just entering upon civilization," he proceeded to make the following significant statements:

> "The Government does not hesitate to declare that it will very soon introduce a bill to regulate this question; its object will be to grant the minimum tariff to the countries with which we actually have treaties. We have not wished to proceed with surprises or unexpected strokes, or to leave in uncertainty the nations to which the minimum has been conceded. Still less have we wished it to be supposed that the rules governing our international relations were to be suddenly modified."

A word should be added respecting the influence of these European commercial alliances and proposals on South American trade. Already it has been announced by the *Indépendance Belge* that Brazil and the Argentine Republic have taken steps to secure admission into the German-Austrian-Italian Commercial Union, or at least to obtain some of its benefits, as also to negotiate treaties of reciprocity with England. Such a course was inevitable on their part considering the substantial advantages to be gained in that way, and considering also how strong are the commercial and financial ties which bind them to Europe. It may be doubted, however, if the Brussels paper is right in saying that such measures are advocated as a means of retaliation upon France for her high tariff. It is true that there has been some discontent on this score. On October 27 President Fonseca sent a special message to the Brazilian Congress, calling attention, among other things, to the tax of 100 per cent. levied on Brazilian coffee in France. He thought that very unfair in view of the fact that the Brazilian duties on goods of French production did not exceed 40 per cent., and asked for authority to increase those rates. But France could easily obviate that objection by offering her minimum tariff in return for a proper equivalent, or even by making a special treaty, as Minister Roche said the Government would be ready to do in particular cases. At any rate, it is clear that European nations have not watched our reciprocity negotiations with folded arms, but have put themselves in a way to equal if not surpass any advantages we may have secured thereby in South American trade. The significant remarks of the German Chancellor on Friday leave no doubt that he considers the new commercial treaties a powerful weapon against our "Pan-American policy," as he called it.

THE FINANCIAL CONDITION OF ITALY.

ROME, November 30, 1891.

YOUR Italian correspondent, "J. W. M.," whose profound knowledge of Italian matters and intense sympathy with Italy are so well known to me that I am generally disposed to doubt my own views when they differ from hers, has given in the *Nation* of October 1 an historical summary of the financial condition of the kingdom, from which I have derived not a little instruction, and with which, as history, I am not competent or disposed to find the least fault. But in the examination of the present position I see certain facts which she seems to

have overlooked, and certain consequences which she has not anticipated. In all that she says of the progress of Italy I fully agree; in her eulogiums of the post-office management, as organization, I think she has not said enough, for the theory of the whole department is the most perfect I have ever come across, and the only drawback to the practice is that the operations are unreasonably slow, and the employees, overworked and underpaid, are provokingly tedious in their attendance on the public, and take ten minutes to perform an operation which in England would require but one. But in compensation you never lose a registered letter or object of value intrusted to the post. I have continually to complain of the loss of books coming by post from England, but never when posted in Italy. The officials are courteous and obliging to the last degree, and they give themselves far more useless trouble than they cause the people who make use of the post. The country is still very much behind in sanitation, travelling facilities, comfort and cleanliness in the inns and minor hotels, but it is necessary to have known it thirty years ago, as did "J. W. M." and myself, to understand the real progress made in almost all respects.

In certain details of the financial review, however, your correspondent leaves the statement incomplete rather than incorrect, and as it has been my business lately to investigate the subject at some length, I propose to fill out, rather than correct, her generalization. The *riscontrato* of which she speaks as a success, had hardly been put to the test when she wrote, and was not in any case the binding affair she had supposed. It was a weak and inefficient plan for meeting the weakest point in Italian finances, the condition of legal tender in the notes of banks which have only a local recognition. For instance, there are six banks which have the right of issuing circulating notes, the Banca Nazionale, Banca Romana, Banca di Napoli, Banca di Sicilia, Banca Toscana, and Banca Toscana di Credito; all the notes being legal tender in the province in which each series is issued, but not recognized in the others, the Nazionale alone being universal. These banks are forbidden by law to lend money on real estate or long-date securities; they are allowed to issue notes to three times the amount of their capital, and must have a metallic reserve of the same amount, though, when the enormous over-issue of the building crisis came on a few years ago, they increased their legal circulation from 1,100,000,000 francs to 1,500,000,000, as "J. W. M." says, and to legalize this excess, the present Ministry increased the proportion to four to one of capital, the cash reserve being still one to three.

The relation of the State to these banks is not, as your correspondent assumes, in the least like that of the English Government to the Barings. The Italian Government makes the notes of these six banks legal money, and we have no other currency. If these banks prove rotten, all the circulating medium in Italy is worth just one-third of its face, supposing the metallic reserves are all the law requires, which I should want to have verified before I would trust it. But a note of the Banca Romana, legal tender in Rome, is refused at Naples or Venice, because it can be refused, and because it is known that the Banca Romana has loaned, contrary to the law, 40,000,000 of lire on real estate which is not in all probability worth more than a small fraction of the loan, being houses unfinished or unsalable. Its reserve should be 23,000,000, and its outstanding notes are 70,000,000. If, therefore, the bank were brought to liquidation, it would be bankrupt. The other banks have dipped more or less in the illegal loans, and the amount is variously stated at from 200,000,000 lire to 500,000,000, to a large extent if not entirely in the same condition of immobile capital, *i. e.*, in various forms of real estate which cannot be realized on. The comparison with the Barings is, therefore, not good in point of law or of importance; nobody was obliged to accept the Baring securities, and the Barings had violated no law; they had been unfortunate, and, to avert the consequence of their misfortune, the Government advised their being assisted to liquidate on terms favorable but safe to all concerned.

The Italian Government, having called on the banks to put themselves in a condition of legality, they replied by proposing the *riscontrato*, a sort of clearing-house, but it was only volunteered on trial for a period at the discretion of the banks. The experiment has been tried now for three months, and, as I foresaw and foretold, only strengthens the position of the banks. The Banca Nazionale, which is legal all over the kingdom, pays out the notes of the Banca Romana instead of its own, and avoids responsibility. At the telegraphic office in Palermo, the other day, the officials refused to accept notes of the Banca Romana, and at Catania the branch of the Banca Nazionale refused to change the notes of the Romana which they had paid out over their counter only ten days before, and, even worse, they refused to accept the notes of the Romana, paid out at one wicket, for a draft on a distant city, when offered at another wicket. The *riscontrato* is an absolute mockery and delusion.

The weakness of the financial position in Italy is not in the official finance, because, as "J. W. M." says, if the taxes must be paid they will be paid, and can be. The burden of the present taxation is exaggerated and howled over by the classes who ought to pay and don't, much more than by those who pay their just proportion. I have heard proprietors admit that they do not pay the quarter of the taxes the law imposes; very few incomes or estates pay in the legal rate, and most of them are assessed at the half of their real value, many at a much smaller fraction. The taxpayers howl on principle, as if they were paying the full rates, and the assessors let them alone. It is safe to say that not a single professional income in Italy is stated at much, if any, more than the half of its actuality. The interest on the debt will be paid and the expenses of Government met; the shadow in the prospect is the condition of the banks, and the consequent solidity or the reverse of the circulating medium—we know nothing about these. It is this, and not the possibility of Italian insolvency, which raises the premium on gold and lowers the Italian rentes. There is no debt in Europe safer than the Italian, in my opinion, but no one is sure that the currency is secured against a crash. That gold is at only 3 per cent. premium, under such circumstances, is greatly in favor of the solvency of the country.

One element which all the statistics leave out of the account, and by the omission include a constant element of error, is the gold brought into the country by the visitors. The trade statistics show that the imports exceed the exports by thirteen million pounds sterling, and yet the premium on gold, until the last few months, has never risen above a fraction of one per cent., and the value of property, as shown by the returns of taxation, increases at the rate of a milliard a year. The solution is in the gold of the tourist and foreign resident, which, by a calculation I made two years ago, is not less than twenty millions sterling, and more recent researches by one of the principal embassies here, much interested in trade statistics, show that my estimate is rather below than above the reality. Italy is prospering and improving in almost every respect, and when we consider that she is scarcely thirty years out of foreign bondage, and that everything has had to be done, it must be admitted that she deserves all the praise she is likely to get even from her friends of the temper of "J. W. M."

W. J. S.

THE VICTORIAN EXHIBITION.

LONDON, December 4, 1891.

WHEN a Victorian was announced to follow the Tudor, Stuart, and Guelph Exhibitions, held during the last three winters in the New Gallery, its success—that is, not financially, but as a show of genuine interest—seemed doubtful. The result is even more depressing than one's expectations. The Victorian period in many ways has been as great as those which preceded it, but with its greatness the royal family has had little to do, and unfortunately royalty is given the most conspicuous place in these exhibitions. Besides, it was thought necessary to limit the time illustrated to the first fifty years of Victoria's reign, and the men and women represented, with the exception of the members of the Queen's family, to those who are no longer living. But the chief reason for the failure of the collection now exhibited in the New Gallery to rival its predecessors is the fact that, while its scope is professedly historic, the large proportion of pictures forces one to consider it from the artistic standpoint. The degradation of art in England during the Victorian era scarcely needed this new overpowering proof.

Low as has been the English art standard during the last fifty-odd years, there have been great artists at work in England, and art movements of no little importance have been started. The Pre-Raphaelite Revival, whatever one may think of its real value, was immensely interesting, and produced at least one painter of distinction. Of late years reaction against the conventions of the Royal Academy has led to the formation of the Glasgow School in Scotland, the New English Art Club in London. But, though one can trace the growth of sentimental, infantile story-telling from Landseer to Burton Barker, of what has been done in the actual world of art there is no sign in the Victorian Exhibition, since only the work of the portrait-painter is shown, and only the portraits of people of note—social or political, clerical or scientific, literary or artistic. By far the greater number and the more conspicuous are portraits of the royal family or records of royal events. In the case of Tudors and Stuarts, and even of Guelphs, this fact was no drawback, since Tudors and Stuarts and Guelphs, whether because they really cared (which is doubtful in the case of the latter), or whether they wanted royally the very best to be had in art, as in jewels or wine, succeeded in drawing to their courts some of the most accomplished painters of their day. Holbeins, Vandykes, and Reynoldses and Gainsboroughs were the glory of the last three exhibitions. But the Queen, ever since the beginning of her reign, and all her children in their turn, have shown a preference for the most commonplace and least artistic work. At home they have always patronized the Hayters and Friths; abroad they have found nothing better than a Van Angeli.

The result is that the pictures sent from Windsor and Osborne, from Buckingham Palace and Marlborough House, might be a collection from the Bayswater "Terraces" and Paddington "Gardens" of the city man: they are essentially middle-class, or, to use the Socialist's favorite slang, *bourgeois*. A painter must indeed be strong not to be discountenanced by royalty, and to paint the royal sitter as he really is. Holbein could stand the test: modern naturalists could not ask for bolder naturalism than his Henry VIII. Velasquez could still better, and it is amusing to contrast his Philip with the Philip of other painters of his time, of Rubens, for example, in the portrait at Munich. But lesser men in the royal presence always have fallen below their usual commonplace, and have produced not portraits in the least true to life, but a sort of "touched-up" photographs. When Princess Louise sat to Mr. Richmond, who is certainly better than Van Angeli, Richmond failed to give her portrait even that decorative quality which, with him, sometimes makes up for lack of realism. Caton Woodville is a clever black-and-white man; Sir James D. Linton is not quite so petty and puerile as Frith, and yet both, in painting royal ceremonies, have become as wooden and lifeless and dull as the dullest painter of the early Victorian period. There is not one royal portrait that can lift the royal collection above its middle-class level.

Nor can it be argued that this is the fault, not of the royal family, but of the condition of the art of portrait-painting in the last three-quarters of the nineteenth century. Have not Whistler and Sargent been painting in England? Are not the Holls and Wattses now in the New Gallery infinitely preferable to the inanities of Van Angeli? And abroad, has not every Salon, for the last thirty years or longer, given a far wider choice of good portrait-painters than the whole Continent offered to the Tudors? But the truth is, the reigning family do not like realism in portraiture, do not like good work. Once, as every one knows, the Prince of Wales allowed Bastien-Lepage to paint him, but when the French artist showed him how worthy a descendant in appearance, if in nothing else, he is of Henry VIII., he scorned the portrait, which, needless to say, does not hang on the walls of the New Gallery. The Queen may be remembered by after generations as a good mother—never as a patron of art.

Outside the royal family, matters are just a shade better, though the improvement is not general or great enough to redeem the show from dulness—that is, artistically speaking. Sir Thomas Lawrence painted portraits of many men—the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel, to mention no others—who were prominent during the first half of Victoria's reign; and, mannered and over-inclined to the "pretty business" as he was, he painted with a distinction never found in the canvases of the Hayters and Winterhalters, the Beecheys and Grants, who mark the lowest depths to which art has sunk in England. Coming down to a later period, one finds portraits by contemporary artists, by Holl and Ouless, Millais and Watts, Herkomer and Collier, which have been too recently exhibited in Royal Academies and other picture-shows to call for special criticism, and which certainly are a marked advance upon the earlier abortions. Here and there, on a screen or in a corner, one comes upon a smaller portrait of some little art value, as, for instance, a sketch of his wife by Rossetti, and his small drawing of himself. In the catalogue there is a Degas, a water-color of Pellegrini (the "Ape" of *Vanity Fair*), but as yet I have not been able to find it in the Gallery.

When all is said, however, the fact remains that in the exhibition there is but one great masterpiece which will live for all time, and which will be honored by future generations as we to-day honor the Holbeins and Vandykes, the Reynoldses and Gainsboroughs. This is Whistler's Carlyle, sent by the Glasgow Corporation, who, now that their haggling over its price is at an end, are proud enough of being its owners. The press view in the New Gallery was held the very day that news came of the French Government's purchase for the Luxembourg of the same master's portrait of his mother, together with the report that their offer of £160 was accepted by him just after he had refused one from a private individual for £1,500; and those who know Mr. Whistler can well believe it. It was instructive, just as one of his greatest pictures was thus allowed to go out of the country, to see how the English treat those that remain. The Carlyle is skied in a corner of a gallery where the centres of honor are reserved for Landseer and Millais! One might almost fancy a purpose in this eccentricity of hanging; had the directors wished to characterize an age in which bad work has been the rule and the great exceptions have been uniformly ignored, they could not have been more successful.

From the historical standpoint the exhibition is but slightly more satisfactory. Much of the history of Victoria's reign is contemporary history, and the principal figures in it are still alive, and, therefore, because of the limits set by the directors, excluded from the exhibition. How small a part royalty has had in public affairs of genuine importance is revealed in the royal pictures. The genius of the Victorian period has been domestic, as the British matron will tell you with complacent pride, and the canvases which represent royal events, with but few exceptions, reveal this domesticity. They are pictures of royal weddings and royal baptisms, as if marrying and giving in marriage and the perpetuation of the Hanoverian race had been the sole end and object of the royal house; and how fully these ambitions have been gratified is also commemorated in that awful group of the Queen and the royal family painted during the jubilee year. Otherwise, their only possible interest is as a record of fashions during a long period in which women took pleasure in making themselves hideous.

The introduction to the catalogue reminds the visitor that there have been two large and thirteen small wars during the period illustrated. But of these there is slight trace in the show, whose general character is most pacific, save in the cases full of Gordon relics. It is also strange that, though Victoria is the first Empress of India, and though the Eastern colonies have been extended during her reign, there is little, if anything, to suggest the fact; and this is the more to be regretted since a chance dagger here and a bit of embroidery there remind one that the East could have supplied the art element so sadly missing. The line of statesmen, beginning with Wellington and Peel and Lord Palmerston, and ending with Disraeli and John Bright, tells only half the story of the Victorian period, since Mr. Gladstone is absent and the Irish Home-Rule party without representatives. To attempt to give the political history of Great Britain during Victoria's reign, and to omit the Irishman, is indeed a case of the play of "Hamlet" with *Hamlet* left out. As Mr. Parnell, by his late death, has fulfilled one of the conditions for admission, and as his public life supplies the others, one would think a portrait of him might have been secured.

When it comes to literature, there is less fault to be found, though in this department, too, one is conscious of incompleteness. All the familiar portraits of Thackeray and Dickens are here, and all interesting enough in their way, especially that one of Thackeray as a baby with his father and mother, reproduced three or four years ago in *Scribner's*, and one of Dickens as *Captain Bobadil;* but, strangely enough, none are of any special merit as paintings. Here, too, are Wilkie Collins and Bulwer, in characteristic pointed shoes and long waving locks, and an unexpectedly proper and prim little George Borrow in high stock. Macaulay and Grote, Carlyle and Matthew Arnold, remind one of what has been done in a more serious branch of literature. Jeffrey of the *Edinburgh Review* seems out of his time away from the men whose reputations he made or unmade for a day, and Christopher North, even if he did not die until 1854, belongs practically to an earlier period. To find portraits of these men hanging in the same room with those of Browning and Rossetti is the best reminder of the many years the Queen's reign has lasted, while the presence of the two latter but emphasizes the absence of Tennyson and Swinburne, without whom Victorian poets are as incomplete as Victorian statesmen without Gladstone and Parnell.

One of the greatest surprises the exhibition has in store is a little sentimental, simpering George Eliot, painted by D'Albert Durade (whoever he may be), and startlingly unlike the better-known chalk drawing in the series by the elder Richmond, so much overrated in their day. With a face as strongly marked as George Eliot, Richmond could hardly efface all character, but even his Charlotte Brontë and Mrs. Gaskell have much of the conventional Book-of-Beauty type then fashionable. Many of his celebrated contemporaries are included in the series, which, however, now commands but little interest.

It is useless to go through a list of all the portraits. Hardly any men and women of fame or notoriety have been forgotten; too many nobodys have been remembered. A few call for more attention than others: for example, in the group of artists there are a small sketch of Charles Keene, his clay pipe in his mouth, a water-color of Fred Walker by himself, and three portraits of Turner, the first with his old-fashioned tall hat pulled well down over his eyes, an amusing contrast to that other, his own work, in which he is as beautiful as Sir Thomas Lawrence could have made him, and to the vigorous little sketch, by Linnell, of a middle-aged and not very striking-looking Turner. It is interesting, also, to have the famous Tractarian movement and what might be called the Rugbyite departure in the public schools recalled by portraits of Cardinal Newman and Thomas Arnold; while those of Faraday and Herschel, Darwin and Carpenter, George Stephenson and Lyell, with the models of locomotives and ocean steamers and of the Forth Bridge, explain anew the real reason for the failure of the Victorian exhibition. To have illustrated truly the Victorian age, the show should have been one of machines and scientific instruments and appliances, not of pictures.

By far the most delightful part of the exhibition is the least conspicuous—the collection of autograph letters and manuscripts in the balcony. Many of the letters have been print-

ed and are as well known as the portraits, but this does not detract from one's pleasure in seeing the originals. They have been carefully arranged, most of them showing very characteristic passages. It is quite as it should be that letters from Browning, who was so prominent a figure in London society, should be acceptances or refusals of invitations; that one from Mrs. Gaskell should be a stamped acknowledgment for payment of the copyright of 'Right at Last'; that Thackeray's should be opened at one of his illustrated pages, Calverley's at his admission of a "lurking fondness for absurdity." But it is still more impossible to go through this list without degenerating into a catalogue, since almost every notoriety and famous man and woman of the Victorian era is here again represented—from Disraeli to Gordon, from Capt. Mayne Reid to Dickens, from Charlotte Brontë to Miss Mulock. There are fewer manuscripts, but these are well chosen. Rossetti's "Rose Mary," Disraeli's 'Endymion' (and what a bulky manuscript it is!), Macaulay's big sprawling journal, Dickens's 'Christmas Carol,' Mrs. Browning's 'Aurora Leigh,' and Browning's far neater 'Isolando'—these give at least an idea of the delightful material which directors have been able to secure.

There are relics, of course. Relics have been principal features of these historical exhibitions, and in a great measure account for their popularity with the sentimental British public. There are many good Britons who will prize Disraeli's walking-stick and spectacles and the precocious art efforts of the infant Victoria more than anything else the show can offer them, unless it be the odds and ends in the Gordon cases. Fortunately, however, a large proportion of the relics are of Thackeray and Dickens—not merely their chairs and writing-desks, but their MSS. and notes and sketches; and these one can not only endure, but enjoy. As for the stamps and medals, the decorations and coins, one gladly leaves them to the specialist. Design for official purposes has been as artless as the painting of royalties during the Victorian age.

N. N.

Correspondence.

THE HISTORICAL AMERICAN EXHIBITION AT MADRID.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the most interesting and instructive celebrations proposed for the year 1892 is the Spanish celebration, the chief feature of which will be an exhibition at Madrid, termed the Historical American Exhibition, the special object of which is to illustrate primitive American life and the history of the period of discovery and conquest. In selecting the prehistoric and early historic eras for illustration, the Spaniards will make their own exhibition complete in itself, without in the least competing with the Chicago Exhibition.

The plan of the exhibition is, within its limits, a very broad one, comprising five general divisions, viz.: Prehistoric America, the Historic Period, Indian Industrial Arts, Cartography, Nautical Instruments, etc., and the Fine Arts and kindred subjects. Under the head of prehistoric America, plans, models, reproductions, drawings, etc., are solicited of ancient caves and caverns, and anything that may help to show the use of these primitive places as human dwellings. Similar models, drawings, or photographs are desired of American menhirs, dolmens, and mounds, as well as lacustrine dwellings. All sorts of implements and objects relating to this period are desired, such as stone weapons, articles of bone and horn, pottery, ornaments, utensils of bone, wood, stone, and other materials, with fossil or animal bones throwing light on the archæology of this time. Examples of all the ages and periods of primitive life as they can be traced on the American continent are wanted.

In the historic period the objects desired include models of ancient American buildings, architectural remains, plans, models, and drawings of restored monuments. Examples of sculpture, bas-reliefs, architectural paintings, and other forms of painted decoration form another class. Under industrial art is included clothing and adornment of the aborigines and uncivilized Indians, with implements of war, offensive and defensive. Jewels of gold, silver, bone and ivory, pottery, household utensils, and articles used in transportation by water and land, constitute another division of this branch, while written documents in native tongues, pictures and photographs of Indians and effigies showing native costumes, models of Indian dwellings, and Indian crania, form a third division.

The department of cartography includes maps, plans, charts, and drawings, and all that concerns ancient cartography, with models of vessels anterior to the voyage of Columbus, as well as those he himself used. A section is devoted to nautical instruments, with the idea of illustrating the instruments, charts and maps in use at the period of discovery, while objects in personal use by Columbus and pictures of the same are also desired. The fine-arts department includes ancient architectural monuments, sculpture, paintings, industrial and artistic work following the discovery, American coins, literary and scientific publications, manuscripts, charts, and plans of all kinds from the discovery to the middle of the eighteenth century.

Most liberal inducements are offered to intending exhibitors from America. The exhibition will be held in the new Library and National Museum building in the Park at Madrid, which will be used for the first time for this purpose, the exhibition serving as a sort of inauguration of the structure, which has been a number of years in building. It will be opened on September 12, 1892, and will close on December 31st of the same year, thus preceding the Chicago exhibition, which it is designed, in a measure, to supplement. All objects, if securely and properly packed, will be forwarded gratis to Madrid, and returned to the exhibitor free of all expense, the exhibition not only bearing the cost of transportation, but also, when desired, attending to the arrangement and display of the objects without any charge. Those who desire special cases of their own may provide them, and special buildings may also be erected in the Park if the design is approved by the General Committee. All objects for the exhibition will be admitted duty free into Spain if they are withdrawn at the close of the exhibition, but two months will be allowed after the end of the exhibition before articles need be returned.

An international jury, proportionate to the number of the exhibitors from different countries and the importance of their exhibits, will examine the articles displayed and award the prizes. These will consist of a first prize of honor, a gold medal, a silver medal, a bronze medal, and honorable mention, each medal being accompanied with a diploma.

The exhibition covers, of course, the entire American continent, but to insure its complete success the active coöperation and assistance of citizens of the United States is especially desired. There is every reason why Americans should both be interested in this exhibition and take part in it. The conditions are liberal, the prizes ample, and the time is especially convenient to intending exhibitors at the Chicago exhibition, as objects may be exhibited both at Madrid and at Chicago. Nor is the novelty of the exhibition its least merit. Early American history has always been a favorite topic of study among European scholars, but it is safe to say that if this exhibition is carried out as it is planned, it will offer Europeans the first opportunity they have had to study primitive American life in its completeness. American collections are very rich in the materials most desired at Madrid, and it is most sincerely to be hoped that the gracious invitation of the Spanish people to participate in their Columbian celebration will meet with a generous and hearty support from American scholars and collectors.

Barr Ferree.

New York, December 16, 1891.

MATHEMATICAL STUDY ON THE CONTINENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should like to add a few words of caution to your notice of last week with reference to the admission of an American woman to the mathematical lectures in the University of Berlin. It would, I think, be unfortunate if the impression were to get abroad that a student who had pursued the ordinary college mathematical course—even with the extensions now provided in most colleges of good standing as free electives or optional courses—would do well to continue her studies at a German university. The arrangement of the preparatory studies is so different that it would be a grave mistake for any one to expect to profit by German mathematical lectures unless, after undergoing a sound preliminary training, she had devoted a good deal of time to higher mathematical studies; only then is she qualified to profit by the different presentation of the subject that she will meet with in France or Germany.

Miss Ruth Gentry graduated in 1890 from the University of Michigan, having devoted to mathematics as large a proportion of her time there as possible, availing herself to the fullest extent of the numerous elective courses there offered. She then held the mathematical Fellowship at Bryn Mawr College for the academic year 1890–1891, during which time she pursued extensive courses of lectures and private reading in the Theory of Functions and Higher Analytical Geometry, with auxiliary courses in Elliptic Functions and Modern Algebra. Her reading had thus already interested her deeply in the work of Klein, Fuchs, etc., and it is a source of great gratification to all interested in her work, and in the prospects of advanced study for American women, that she now has the opportunity of hearing Professor Fuchs's theories expounded by himself.

Yours truly,

Charlotte Angas Scott.

Bryn Mawr, December 15, 1891.

WEAK FORMS OF *BEEN*, AND POPE'S RIMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In several recent numbers of the *Na-*

tion (pp. 181, 237, 447), the various pronunciations of the word "been" have been discussed without any scientific statement being given of the genesis and relation of the various forms. Prof. Wheeler ('History of Language,' p. 413) has hinted at the correct explanation.

The ME. pronunciation of the word was (using phonetic spelling) *bēn*. This close *ē* had by 1550 (cf. Palsgrave, 1530, in Sweet's HES. §818; and Löwisch, p. 52) approached very nearly to *ī*, and had generally reached that point by 1700 (cf. HES. §§818–820, 814, 816). We thus have two strong, or stressed, forms, an earlier *bēn* and a later *bīn*. For each of these a weak form arose in unstressed positions, namely *bĕn* for *bēn*, and *bĭn* for *bīn*. When thus phonetically two forms arise that do not find use in distinguishing meaning (as, early ME. *ōn* 'one'—'*ăn*' 'an') or function (as, *off* adv. —*of* prep.), generally one of the two in time supplants the other (for example, of late ME. *ōn* before vowels—*ō* before consonants, only the former, now written *one*, has survived). While both forms are still in use, a poet occasionally allows himself to employ in rime the weak form for the strong—the most innocent poetic license. The weak form *bĕn* early yielded to the strong form *bēn*, which then became *bīn; bĕn* survived and got the upper hand only dialectically, especially in some parts of America. The weak form *bĭn*, that was in time formed from *bīn*, has become general in America, while in Great Britain it would seem that the strong form *bīn* has pretty commonly held its own. I am not at all certain that the distinction of weak and strong forms is not still made by many Englishmen, who suppose they always say *bīn* because that is the sound they hear when they pronounce the word by itself, and so with stress.

I am puzzled by "X.'s" statement that "Pope makes *been* rhyme with *sin* about half the time." I can find only *been–sin* 151–323 (Globe ed.); against *been–seen* 85–149, *been–queen* 142–704, *between–been* 253–289, *seen–been* 395–117. This proves nothing for an *ĭ* pronunciation by Pope; for he has such undoubtedly imperfect rhymes as *seen–within* 287–55, 473–3, *mean, spleen–within* 298–143, *seem–him* 451–4. Lowell's statement, referred to by "F. H.," is: "*Ben* for *been*, of which our dear Whittier is so fond, has the authority of Sackville, 'Gammer Gurton' (the work of a bishop), Chapman, Dryden, and many more, though *bin* seems to have been the common form." This I can only understand on the supposition that when Lowell wrote it, the pronunciation *bīn*, despite his visits to England, had not attracted his attention, and, when he met in literature such rhymes as *seen–been*, he supposed them to be imperfect, just as he knew them to be when he found them in the writings of his neighbors (for example, in Holmes's "The Island Ruin").

We may justly be indignant that the writer of a study of the Rimes of Alexander Pope, which has just appeared in the publications of the Modern Language Association, did not prepare herself for her task by a study of the English of the last century. She would then never have done so absurd a thing as to base her classifications on the "authority" of a dictionary of living English. Though she states that "many of the words that have found their way into the list of false rimes may, in Pope's time, have been true," and that "this obsolete usage has in general been indicated in the lists," she gives us more than a dozen pages of "false rimes," and does not indicate a dozen such words. Poor Pope! He evidently could not rime any better than Chaucer could spell.

GEORGE HEMPL.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., December 12, 1891.

"GOD BLESS THE MARK!"

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Browne's letter in No. 1379, regarding the exclamation, "God bless the mark!" alludes to only two meanings of the word *mark*, namely, what an archer aims at, and the cross as a signature. He probably does not accept either of these meanings for the phrase in question; but he neither rejects them, nor does he propose any other definition.

The true import of *mark*, which it seems of primary importance to ascertain, is plain from the following passage, which I think Mr. Browne would have quoted if it had occurred to him. It countenances his supposition that the exclamation was often accompanied by making the sign of the cross. It also shows Shakspere, like Scripture, to be his own best interpreter:

> "Never mole, hare-lip, nor scar,
> Or *mark* prodigious, such as are
> Despised in nativity,
> Shall upon their children be."
> (*Mid. N. Dream*, v. 2.)

"Prodigious" has here no reference to size, but signifies portentous or of ill-omen. In ages of faith, many such marks were recognized. *Gonzalo*, in a storm at sea, had great comfort from a fellow who had no drowning *mark* upon him, but whose complexion was a perfect gallows. One gallows-mark was a black mole, coffin-shaped, under the right ear. *King John* saw "a fellow by the hand of nature *marked* to do a deed of shame." So in "Lear," iii., 4, a squinting eye is as ill-boding as a hare-lip. Many an abnormal form in physique is chronicled in folk-lore as attesting moral obliquity. One specimen in a thousand of its wise saws we have in the doggerel:

> "Trust not the man whose eyebrows meet,
> For in his heart you'll find deceit."

Mark, then, in the phrase now in hand, originally meant some physical peculiarity believed to be ominous as to one's character or destiny. The divine blessing was invoked against such a mark—that is, it was asked to be poured out just where it was most needed. After the word *mark* came to be used in a wider sense, as it naturally did, embracing all signs of ill-omen, a blessing was begged to avert the evil which those signs boded. It is nothing strange to pray that a blessing may descend on the *mark*—the very place which needs it most. When *Shallow* needed *Falstaff* to speak for him, he cried: "God bless thy *lungs*, good Knight." So *Edgar*, when there was a tempest in *Lear's* mind, exclaimed, "Bless thy *five wits*," and again, he says, when *Gloster's* eyes had been gouged out, "Bless thy sweet *eyes*, they bleed."

This linguistic usage thickens other proofs which do demonstrate thinly the significance of an obscure saying, and may fortify Mr. Browne's notion that it was wont to be emphasized by the sign of the cross.

"God save the *sample!*" is the reading of the phrase as spoken by the *Nurse* to *Juliet* in the quarto of 1597. This word *sample* half disposed Grant White to think that *mark*, as found in other places, may mean such a mark as was made by a little girl's needle upon a sampler. But when so disposed he was strangely oblivious of his own statements that the copy for the sole edition showing the word "sample" was obtained by surreptitious and inadequate means—notes taken at the theatre during representation, etc., and that great corruption is manifest on its face.

JAMES D. BUTLER.

MADISON, WIS., December 16, 1891.

"A GENEALOGIST'S GRIEVANCE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a record-searcher and one well acquainted with Mr. Waters, I beg to demur to that part of Mrs. Vernona Smith's letter to you of the 6th ult. in which she imputes ungentlemanly behavior to him.

I am quite sure Mr. Waters is incapable of any such behavior, and my opinion will be endorsed by all those who have, like myself, been honored by his friendship. If he omitted to acknowledge his indebtedness to Mrs. Smith for any hint she gave him, it was, I am convinced, done inadvertently and without any discourteous intention.

Mrs. Smith's incidental declaration that she is *not* a "professional worker," has been read here with some astonishment.

WILLIAM BRIGG
(B.A. Cantab.).

ST. ALBANS, HERTS, ENGLAND, December 8, 1891.

MORE SPOILING OF THE 'BRITANNICA.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What is to be said of the two latest enterprises to make spoil of the 'Britannica'—always the poor 'Britannica'!—one of which assumes the title of the 'Americanized Encyclopædia Britannica,' while the other boasts that, except the American copyright articles, it is "word for word identical with the expensive Edinburgh edition"? Writing to parties who are putting the former upon the market to learn if it was authorized by the Messrs. Black, I received the reply:

> "The publishers of the original work (which would have cost you [observe the argument!] $150) are not expected to countenance that which is a revision of, and an improvement upon, their own, and which we are enabled [*how?!*] to offer you at such a low price."

And when I put the same inquiry to the other parties, what reply did I receive?

> "Our edition is not authorized by the Blacks of Edinburgh, nor does it need to be. The twenty-five American articles contained in the Edinburgh edition were the only part of that edition subject to copyright in the United States. As we have had those twenty-five articles rewritten by equally eminent American writers and brought up to date, we are able to lawfully [!] publish the entire remainder of the work word for word."

The thought of any court of *honor*, or of any lawfulness not concerned with a question of *fine* or *imprisonment*, seems never to enter into this discussion.

And what is to be said when leading divines, superintendents of schools, presidents of colleges, mayors, and bankers, lend their names in praise of either enterprise? Can we never hope to escape that confusion of ideas which fails to see common dishonesty as such if only it favors education and the poor man?

Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME., December 17, 1891.

Notes.

THE correspondence of the poet Cowper has been collected and arranged, with annotations, by Thomas Wright, of Cowper School, Olney, Bucks, England, and is nearly ready

for publication. Its magnitude may be inferred from the fact that about four hundred of the letters were not included by Southey in his edition, which, for the rest, was necessarily imperfect in respect to those it did contain. Mr. Wright desires to reëxamine every original if possible, and asks for the loan of any in private hands.

'The Platform: Its Rise and Progress,' by Henry Jephson, private secretary to Mr. Forster and Sir G. Trevelyan, beginning with the days when an open meeting for discussion of public affairs was condemned as scarcely less than overt treason, traces the slow growth of political speech-making and analyzes the elements in its development. The work will be published by Macmillan & Co. early in January. They have also nearly ready the 'Browning Cyclopædia,' which has been in preparation by Dr. Edward Berdoe, author of 'Browning's Message to His Time.'

Frederick Warne & Co. announce 'Electricity up to Date for Light, Power, and Traction,' by John B. Verity, and the new volume of 'Barker's Facts and Figures for the Year 1892,' edited by Thomas Whittaker.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will soon issue the first four books of Goethe's 'Dichtung und Wahrheit,' edited by Prof. C. A. Buchheim.

An illustrated 'Handbook of New York City' is in preparation by Moses King, Boston.

Benj. R. Tucker, Boston, will shortly publish 'The Duchess of Powysland,' a new novel by Grant Allen. Mr. Tucker's *Weekly Bulletin of Newspaper and Periodical Literature*, by the way, has just been doubled in size, and will hereafter catalogue 650 articles in each issue.

The three-volume edition of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' just issued by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, is handsomely bound, and calculated to make a good appearance on the shelves. The typography is clear and open, but shows some shortcomings on the part of the proof-reader. The name Sieyès uniformly goes unaccented, even in the index, but on the tissue fly-leaf facing the Abbé's portrait, it is misaccented ("Sièyes"), just as Anacharsis Clootz's name is spelt to his face "Cloatz." The portraits constitute the chief excuse for this edition. There are upwards of fifty of them, with a few plates of famous scenes. No great pains have been taken in selecting them, and they have as a whole very little authenticity. One dozen photogravures from original canvases of repute would have been worth these five dozen haphazard copies of old prints. Still, the sense is gratified by these interspersed plates, and we mean no more than that they enhance but slightly the value of the fair print.

Another holiday reprint, in five volumes, is Mrs. Mary Cowden Clarke's 'Girlhood of Shakspere's Heroines' (A. C. Armstrong & Son). It is forty years since this series began to be published in English, yet the venerable author is still living, and furnishes a cheery preface to the present edition. There have been partial American reprints — in 1857, 1867, 1871—but the present is the fullest of all, and it alone is copyrighted. The books are handy in size, well printed, and bound in simple good taste in blue cloth, and have everything to recommend them as gifts and as possessions. In the last volume is given a bibliography of the works of Mrs. Clarke and her husband.

'Masterpieces of American Literature' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has nothing of the appearance of "a text-book for reading in the first class of the grammar-schools," and properly so, since it is capable of giving pleasure in private reading. Nevertheless, it was ordered and approved by the Boston school authorities, and will very certainly be gladly availed of by school-teachers all over the country. Nine out of the thirteen authors were natives of Massachusetts, while Webster and Longfellow and John Boyle O'Reilly were adopted citizens of the same State, leaving only Irving wholly out of touch with it. The selections in some measure have a like local restriction, but have been determined partly with reference to rhetorical exercise. The volume contains the whole of 'Evangeline,' of 'Snow-Bound,' of the 'Vision of Sir Launfal,' of Lincoln's Gettysburg speech (in connection with Lowell's essay, etc.). There is a biographical sketch and other apparatus for each author.

Another "notion" not limited in its usefulness to "the Hub" is the 'Directory of the Charitable and Beneficent Organizations of Boston, together with Legal Suggestions, etc., prepared by the Associated Charities.' The third edition is before us (Boston: Damrell & Upham). This is a conspectus of organized charitable endeavor in a great city, which cannot fail to profit those who turn to it for suggestion and example.

E. P. Dutton & Co. send us 'Waymarks,' a collection of sermons by Bishop Potter, selected by him from his occasional discourses of the past twenty years, the last being the one delivered at the consecration of Bishop Phillips Brooks.

'Duplicate Whist,' by John T. Mitchell (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), gives an intelligent account of the variant forms of that increasingly popular form of the game, and adds, in an appendix, the code of rules adopted by the First American Whist Congress, together with a summary of the "Leads and Inferences of Modern Whist."

The composite character of Hadrian's wall, which bounded the Roman dominion in England, has long been a crux exciting no little controversy among antiquarians. The wall itself stands with a fosse to the north; immediately south of it is a military road, and south of this again there are successively a rampart of earth, another fosse with a mound on its southern side, and then another rampart. Various theories have from time to time been framed to explain this complex structure, and now, in a little volume entitled 'Per Lineam Valli,' Mr. George Neilson of Glasgow has proposed a new solution. He holds that the southern rampart and fosse were a temporary work to guard the laborers engaged in quarrying and building the wall, while the northern rampart was a subsequent device to serve as a defence against any roving or rebellious bands of Britons and to guard the military road. Mr. Neilson argues his case ably and clearly, showing abundant familiarity not only with the details of the ground traversed, but with the Roman writers on the military art. He writes brightly and pleasantly, moreover, and invests his somewhat technical subject with interest even to the uninstructed.

W. Ostwald's 'Solutions,' translated by M. M. Pattison Muir (Longmans), comprises a portion of Ostwald's well-known treatise on General Chemistry, and embraces the whole subject of solution in its various aspects. The translation has been made with the approval and even supervision of the author. The work, like the parent treatise, is in all respects admirable; in fact, it would be difficult to point out a more suggestive treatment of any subject in the whole domain of chemistry. Chemists who do not read German will certainly urge the translation of the entire work.

The 'Embryology of the Sea Bass (*Serranus atrarius*),' by Henry V. Wilson, is a good piece of work from volume ix. of the Bulletin of the United States Fish Commission. It includes 68 pages of text and 19 plates, the 151 figures of which illustrate the development from segmentation up to within a few hours of hatching. From his drawings Mr. Wilson would appear to have been very fortunate in handling his material. One thing may be noticed in passing: Mr. Wilson agrees with Balfour in discrediting the homology instituted by Eisig and adopted by Whitman and others, between the lateral line organs of fishes and the "Seiten Organe" of certain annelids. The discredited homology is an important one to advocates of a theory of vertebrate derivation from the worm.

The Mosquitos, or, as they style themselves, the Mísskitos, are an Indian people inhabiting the coast of eastern Nicaragua and of northeastern Honduras. They are largely mixed with negro and other foreign elements, and only upon the rivers and creeks of the interior do they show a purer blood. Many travellers have regarded the idiom of these people as a jargon or mixed language, but the missionaries of Herrenhut, who made their country, with its impenetrable woods and swamps, a permanent home, succeeded in acquiring the language of the natives in its fulness, and it proved incontestably to form a linguistic family by itself. Judge L. Adam of Rennes has gathered the literature of this language, and the result of his linguistic study is the publication, just issued, 'Langue Mosquito: Grammaire, Vocabulaire, Textes' (Paris: J. Maisonneuve), forming vol. xiv. of the American Linguistic Library. The texts are largely taken from the Bible stories of the Herrenhut missionaries, and are accompanied by a French translation, as are also the two love songs which Mr. Adam has been able to secure. The vocabulary is rich and fills nearly thirty pages, and the grammar contains full paradigms of several active verbs, which are inflected by personal suffixes, and show a large number of tense-forms.

M. Ernest Havet published three editions of the 'Pensées' of Pascal (1852, 1866, 1881), as well as an abridgment for the use of schools, taken from the first complete edition. M. Louis Havet has just brought out a new classical edition of this abridgment, conformed to the last complete edition, and published by Delagrave. The text he has taken directly from the edition of 1881, with all its improved readings. The notes are Ernest Havet's condensed, with some of the less important ones omitted. The text of the Life of Pascal by Mme. Périer is taken, with some critical changes, from the edition of 1684, and the Port Royal preface is now added from the 1669 edition.

To the slowly growing list of books about puppet-shows, M. Lemercier de Neuville, the inventor of the *Pupazzi*, has now added another, 'Histoire Anecdotique des Marionnettes Modernes' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern). M. Jules Claretie, the director of the Comédie-Française, contributes a pleasantly written preface, the most interesting anecdote in which is to the effect that when M. Claretie was in Spain last autumn, he went to a puppet-show, a *guignol*, a Punch-and-Judy—that is to say, an entertainment the performers of which were animated by the human thumb and finger, and not set in motion by wires from above; and here he was able to recognize the play these manual laborers performed as a modification of Molière's "Monsieur de Pourceaugnac." M. de Neuville gives

a list of the hundred and more plays he has written for his own *Pupazzi* in the past thirty years; and two pages of diagrams enable us to understand the modifications and improvements he has introduced one after another.

M. D. Jouaust, to whom credit is due as the publisher of many fine and some charming editions of books both old and new, has just retired from business in Paris. His publications have been, one may say, invariably in good taste, and it may be expected that, now they are going out of print, they will increase in value. The *Figaro* takes leave of him with the high compliment that he has known that "to illustrate a book is not to make an album of it." This is high praise; but if every publisher strove for it, what would become of the Christmas books?

R. Kukula and K. Trübner publish through the Trübner house of Strassburg a "Jahrbuch der Universitäten der Welt," under the title of *Minerva*, costing about a dollar. This yearbook contains a list of the personnel of all the universities and university libraries of the whole world, and will doubtless be found convenient and useful by many.

No. cv. of the excellent "Manuali Hoepli" (Milan) is Dr. Antonio Restori's brief history of Provençal literature ('Letteratura provenzale'). To the many who, without being specialists, are interested in the history of European literatures, this little book will be welcome. Scarcely any literature is so elusive as that of Provence. Experts have written on it in German, French, and English, but Diez is labored, Bartsch curt, Fauriel antiquated, and Meyer's well-known article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' scarcely more than a list of names. Dr. Restori, without attempting to give the result of original investigation, presents an orderly and accurate survey of the whole field, with an index and good bibliographical notes.

The committee appointed by the Government of Barbados to report upon the Records of that old English colony have adopted a suggestion made by Mr. Hawtayne, C.M.G., of British Guiana, that the Record Office in London should be asked to undertake the sorting, calendaring, etc., of the old papers which have been put away higgledy-piggledy, into some twenty tin boxes, in hopeless confusion. The Colonial Secretary of the Island, Mr. Knollys, C.M.G., who is chairman of the committee, has accordingly written to the Secretary of the Public Record Office, asking whether the skilled staff of that Department could be employed upon the proposed work. This cannot but be good news to the numerous persons in the United States and in Great Britain whose families have in past times been settled in Little England, as the islanders sometimes affectionately call Barbados.

Among the English officials whose connection with the public service will probably terminate on the last day of this year, in consequence of the operation of the age clauses of the Order in Council, there are some whose names are familiar on this side of the Atlantic. Sir Edward Hertslet, the Librarian of the Foreign Office, whose volumes of Treaties are known the world over, will, after more than fifty years' service, take repose at his home at Richmond, Surrey. It is also probable that Mr. Noel Sainsbury of the Public Record Office will sever his official connection. As the editor of those admirable *Calendars* of the Colonial Series of State Papers, Mr. Sainsbury has raised his own monument. Literary workers will miss him sadly, for he will take with him stores of information that have been gathered through years of loving work upon his special subject.

"F. M." writes to us from Hartford, apropos of a correspondent's recent statement, in these columns, that Rossetti's translation of Dante's Francesca passage is not included in his collected poems, that it is included in at least two cheap "pirated" editions, "one imprinted 'Hurst & Co., New York,' which I have owned for several years, and the other issued by the John W. Lovell Co., more recently. As both these are manifestly reprints of costlier foreign editions, the fragment must be included in at least one of those."

The sensitiveness of the Russian Government respecting the appearance of needing outside aid in its terrible famine crisis—its suspiciousness, too, and unfriendliness to organized relief on a large scale—combined with the distrust which foreigners must naturally feel of Russian officials into whose hands their contributions must fall, suggest Count L. N. Tolstoi as the proper recipient of such contributions from the benevolent. He is already busy in the work, he knows the peasants and their ways, and has their love and confidence. There is probably no man in Russia with whom the Government is less likely to interfere. His wife has written to the newspapers to suggest this way, and says that every kopeck so received will be used directly to feed the poor in the kitchens which her husband is setting up. His address is: Khamovniki 15, Moscow.

A reader of the *Nation* obligingly points out an obvious error on p. 431 (col. ii., line 15 from bottom), where "1893" stands for "1794." The sentence in which it occurs was a mere repetition of one above, but the proof-reader nodded.

—Mr. Jonathan Scott Hartley, N.A., S.A.A., who was for many years the instructor in anatomy of the Art Students' League, has prepared from his lectures a small handbook for art-students, called 'Anatomy in Art,' which may be had of the author, at No. 145 West Fifty-fifth Street. Such treatises on this subject as have hitherto been published have very generally had two faults: they have been written by surgeons rather than artists, and have been burdened by a mass of detail which is practically useless to the artist and only confusing to the student; and they have been too costly for the proverbially slim purses of art-students. This book is written by a professional sculptor of standing, who has omitted much useless and cumbering information, and confined himself to the description of those bones and muscles which affect the surface appearance and are, therefore, necessary to be known, and it is published at a reasonable price. We do not think the ideal book on anatomy for art-students has yet been written. In that book not only the descriptions but the plates should be confined to the few great fundamental truths of the figure. The plates should be rather diagrams than detailed drawings. Such a book is to be desired, but, in the meantime, Mr. Hartley's book is a step in the right direction, and we know of nothing better at present existing. The plates are reproduced from Fau's costly work, and are supplemented with drawings from Schadow's work on 'Proportion,' and with reproductions from photographs of the living model in action. Mr. Hartley has added a short treatise on "The Art of Modelling," which his great practical knowledge should make very useful to beginners.

—The little tract by Mr. E. C. Clark, Regius Professor of Civil Law, entitled 'Greek and Other Studies at Cambridge' (Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes), reminds us that Oxford and Cambridge are definitely confronted with the Greek problem, that is to say, the question whether students shall be admitted and take their degree without Greek, substituting some equivalent in the modern languages. The question was formally raised about a year ago by the teachers of the preparatory schools; and it was to come before the University of Cambridge in the month of October. A great hue and cry was started at once in the *Times* and the magazines. The *Saturday Review* may be taken to represent the irreconcilables who will not yield an inch to the Philistines. It is true the "Philistines" are, in this case, a large number of University graduates who, if they know anything, ought to know their classics; and this fact has been pointed out in a sober and moderate article in the October *Contemporary Review*, written by Mr. J. E. C. Welldon, Headmaster of Harrow. Mr. Welldon himself, if his initials do not mislead us, is a translator of Aristotle's 'Politics'; and if that is the case, he must be a peculiarly hardened Philistine, who has resisted abundant means of grace. Mr. Welldon unfolds the necessities which lay at the bottom of the teachers' appeal—the multiplicity of subjects created by modern methods and discoveries, and the pressure which these bring to bear on both schools and universities; and again the significant fact that of all the boys attending the public schools in England, only one-half at present study Greek at all. The other half are turned away from the doors of the universities, though many desire to enter, but cannot spare the time for the "open sesame" of Greek. To this class the *Saturday Review* answers, "If you don't like the terms of the universities, stay away; but don't try to corrupt and debase their methods."

—This stanch position, too, is the one Mr. Freeman takes in a reply to Mr. Welldon just published in the *Contemporary Review*. Mr. Freeman has made as good use of his Greek as any man alive; and his words are very weighty. He is, in fact, the Achilles of the conflict; and the boys of Harrow must feel that no merely mortal schoolmaster can stand before him. For Mr. Freeman insists "not that Greek shall be thrown aside, but that it shall be better taught." With that frankness which is his peculiar gift, if not his grace, he even goes so far as to say that the headmasters in the public schools teach Greek very badly. He wants them to teach it "scientifically, that is, rationally and easily." His specific for this is to make the boys acquainted as early as possible with Grimm's law, and to show them from the very beginning of their study the relations and identities of kindred words in the Greek and in modern languages. He thinks that this method will brighten the path even of "Passmen," and will ease their painful career. Every one who has a word to say admits that the "Passmen" are in a very bad way; that their taste of the Pierian Spring is the merest bubble. It may be the "symbol and badge of an educated man," but it is far from being the "roof and crown of a liberal education." It is this fact, admitted by every one, which induces Prof. Clark to take a middle position in the controversy. He, too, is an "old classical man," a lover of Greek, who would not part with his Greek for any modern language. He is disposed to smile at the holy zeal of those who would save the "pass" course as a bulwark of sound learning. He would prefer to make it a real bulwark if

possible; and, in default of that, to substitute some genuine subject in modern languages. Like Prof. Goodwin, he believes heartily in the collegiate functions of the University. But he has more faith than Prof. Goodwin in the possibilities of the "Cottagers"—that large class who think that "the *raison d'être* of the University is to have a good time and plenty of athletics, under a certain amount of moral restraint." He has even a good word to say for the outcome of their taste for sports. He has a humane faith that, if the University will only bestir itself, it will find the means of awakening and appealing to the dormant talents of these Bounderbys of the educational world.

—Last comes an eloquent pamphlet of fifty-two pages, by Mr. J. K. Stephen, M.A. (Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes), which defends compulsory Greek from all points of view, and which is chiefly valuable because Mr. Stephen offers himself as an example of a class of men who, if alternatives had been permitted in his day, would never have tasted Greek, and would therefore, by his own account, have lost a great boon and blessing. How thoroughgoing is his sense of this blessing may be seen from the following confession:

"I have said that I am not, and never was, never shall be, and never should have been a Greek scholar. But I began Greek before I was ten, and did not leave off studying it daily during term time until I was nearly twenty. I am afraid to reckon up the time which I must have devoted to reading Greek, and endeavoring to master the rudiments of Greek grammar. I think it highly probable that I have forgotten more Greek than I remember. I cannot point to any practical or pecuniary advantage derived by me directly from the study of Greek. But I can honestly say that I do not regret a single hour of those which I spent in the study of the language, nor is there any sort of knowledge which I would rather have imbibed than even that part of my boyish knowledge of Greek which I have forgotten."

It is evident that Mr. Stephen is under the spell and cannot be argued with. But his enthusiasm, which Mr. Charles Francis Adams would call fetishism, must be shared by a large number of University men who are not professional scholars. This is proved by the decisive vote which was taken October 29. The assemblage was the largest ever known in the Senate Hall of Cambridge, and the majority against considering an alternative for Greek was 525 to 185. This "latest Marathon" was a triumph beyond the dreams of the classical men. It declares emphatically that, for some time to come, those who covet the luxury of a degree from Cambridge (or Oxford) must get some tincture of Greek, and must put up with the occasional inconveniences of acquiring it. Mr. Freeman's complaint of badly taught Greek is probably true of England, and is much more true of the larger part of the United States. But the minor Greek course in English universities is indefensibly weak, and would probably be strengthened by being forced to compete with any solid alternative in modern subjects. There is nothing to be said for a subject which is superficially acquired and thoroughly forgotten. The movement was, therefore, not an assault on Greek culture; it was in the hands of the friends of the humanities. In our own country the corresponding movement was in the hands of the Goths and Vandals—the class who never knew the language and its historical position, or the class of whom it might be said, ἔκφυγον φίδάν.

—A correspondent writes to us from London: "The exhibitions of the New English Art Club are always the best worth going to in London, and this year its members have decided to give a winter as well as a summer show. The result, as one sees it now in the Dudley Gallery in Piccadilly, justifies their decision. However, it must be acknowledged that the great value of the present collection depends upon two large studies by Sargent, who belongs to the Club, and three canvases which come from outside—by Degas and Monet, who have been accepted as masters by the group of men calling themselves London Impressionists. Not another show in London just now can produce anything to rival these fine pictures. That which makes Mr. Sargent's contributions of special interest is the contrast they present one to the other, being striking revelations of the scope of his power, which his critics as a rule declare limited. He has been told again and again that he could not finish a picture if he wanted to, and now, by way of giving the lie to all these critics, he has sent to the Dudley Gallery a study of the nude dangerously academic in its finish, but showing a knowledge of drawing and modelling seldom surpassed. This finish, though his admirers do not care for too many examples of it, is appropriate enough in the painting of still life. But when it comes to an impression of movement, as in the 'Javanese Dancer,' then Mr. Sargent returns to the methods which he has long since made familiar, and his dancer has all the vitality and vigor, the actuality and go, of his 'Carmencita.' It is a very powerful impression and very fine in color, and, unfortunately for the other members of the Club, their work cannot well stand comparison with it. It is so rare to see a Degas in London that his study of ballet-girls is an event in the London art world. That which gives it a special interest is that it was begun as a black-and-white drawing for the *Illustrated News*, but the editor, heedful of the morals of his readers, would have none of it, and then Degas worked it over in oils and pastels, caring everything for the artistic effect produced, nothing for the means employed. Monet has been oftener seen and more successfully copied. But the fact that these two canvases are lent by Mr. Sargent will explain at once that they are not among his least distinguished. If the other exhibitors cannot yet rival the work of Sargent, Degas, and Monet, that they take it as a model is at least a hopeful sign in a country which believes in the Royal Academy and accepts the colored supplement of the 'Christmas Annual' for its standard of art."

NEW ENGLAND COLONIAL FURNITURE.

The Colonial Furniture of New England: A Study of the Domestic Furniture in Use in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries. By Irving Whitall Lyon, M.D., member of the Connecticut Historical Society. Fully illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. 285.

Dr. Lyon has, both modestly and wisely, entitled this large and beautiful volume a "study," because, while it is a most important contribution to our knowledge of the topics discussed, it is not exhaustive. As he intimates in his preface, first came the desire of collecting old furniture, then the wish to know more of the history and value of his specimens, lastly a willingness to assist others by placing his knowledge in a permanent form. He has certainly done admirable work, has pursued the best method, and will remain a pioneer in the field, whoever else may come forward to treat more fully of some portions which he has passed over lightly.

To acquire any thorough acquaintance with the origin, age, or merit of the older furniture of New England is a very difficult thing. In the first place, such furniture rarely bears upon it any exact date; secondly, the material is largely the same as that employed in Europe; thirdly, the patterns are necessarily European; and lastly, for the past ten years the fashionable demand for genuine old furniture has been largely met by direct importations from foreign countries. The result is, that the collector must still be mainly guided by the appearance of the article, and especially by the place where it is found, in order to decide when and where it was manufactured in colonial New England. Dr. Lyon has had the great advantage of being an early collector in the productive region of Connecticut. He has consulted and compared the acquisitions of a kindred collector in Massachusetts, and he is thus able to classify specimens and to assign an approximate age to many of the more prominent styles. He has also made a most careful investigation into the inventories on record in Boston and Hartford, and into the advertisements of dealers in furniture during the eighteenth century, with results of which we shall speak later.

As to extraneous evidence as to the age of certain pieces of furniture, little can be found. Family tradition is very unreliable, or at best can hardly extend beyond a century with much precision. Mention in wills and inventories, though of the highest value in showing the amount and kind of furniture in use in each generation since the settlement of the country, rarely serves to identify the existing relics. Dr. Lyon cites a chest dated in 1698, and has seen a few others of about the same period. A few desks and bureaus may be so inscribed; the one at which we write has a secret drawer, on the side of which is written, "Wm. Patten his Desk. Made by Wm. Danforth In the year 1760." Then, in another hand and ink, "Josa. Patten His Desk. Given to him by his Father in the Year 1800." But chairs, tables, and side-boards afford few temptations to the pen of the scribbler.

Secondly, as to material: it is evident that pine, black-walnut, and possibly hickory, are the only woods likely to be distinctive in New England. The English oak, as Dr. Lyon states, is naturally several shades darker than the American, but age or accident may render this no certain test. Again, the most common wood for expensive furniture has been, for more than a century, mahogany, which, being foreign to both Englands, gives no clue to the mechanic. Dr. Lyon has conferred a great favor on collectors by establishing the fact that black walnut was in use by cabinet-makers in Boston in 1668, and that from 1700 to 1760 it was in extensive use. In England, "Virginia walnut" was advertised in 1731. When, a few years ago, the old table long used by the Governor and Council of Massachusetts was deposited in the Old State House, it was found that its frame was made of black walnut. Although the tradition was strong that this table was in use before the Revolution, the cabinet-maker was in doubt because the frame was made of black walnut. He thought that this was a modern use of the wood, until research showed the fact, which Dr. Lyon emphasizes, that, between 1740 and 1760, black walnut was the wood most in vogue. As to mahogany, our author shows that it was in use in London in 1724, but it was for sale in Philadelphia in 1708, and in use for furniture in Boston in 1732.

Thirdly, as to patterns and designs: it seems to be past doubt that no distinctive style has ever originated in New England, at least during the colonial period. The first emigrants brought with them more or less furniture of English make. During the period of our dependence upon England she furnished the fashions and a certain amount of the articles, and our workmen naturally copied their English models. Dr. Lyon points out that the English designer, Chippendale, whose name is so often taken in vain by the dealer of to-day, published 'The Gentleman's and Cabinet-maker's Di-

rector' in 1754, and that his plates were doubtless used by our joiners. Yet his name does not occur in connection with any furniture here, and the attribution of this style to him is very, very modern. In 1787 Heppelwhite published in London designs for 'Secretaries and Bookcases'; in 1794 Sheraton published 'The Cabinet-maker and Upholsterer's Drawing-Book.' These guides are, therefore, comparatively modern, leaving a century and a half preceding, during which American joiners were producing furniture.

One thing is certain: our ancestors brought with them the tools and the knowledge for duplicating any work which they had seen at home. They found here at their very doors an unlimited supply of all kinds of wood free to all. They developed the art of working in wood in all its main branches, and "whittling" became a Yankee specialty. The stone cottages of England were here superseded by houses of wood, and ship-building became one of the main industries of New England. We cannot doubt that cabinet-making took root here early, and the wonder is not that so much remains, but that so much has disappeared. Only two explanations are possible: one, that pine was largely used and supplied all temporary wants; the other, that the ever-varying moods of fashion have caused the destruction of things no longer in vogue. We know that our principal houses, churches, and public buildings were designed from the best published authorities, and we may be sure that English fashions in furniture were rapidly transmitted hither. But much must have been left to the individual taste of the workman, and the variations, within certain limits, seem to have been endless. In fact, the one disappointment which the reader will have in Dr. Lyon's book is, that his numerous and excellent illustrations will rarely give exactly the same form of desk, bureau, side-board, or chair which may be under examination.

To return to the details of the volume: Dr. Lyon treats specifically of chests, cupboards, chests of drawers, desks, chairs, tables, and clocks. Receptacles are naturally divided into these classes, according to use, viz.: for holding clothing, for table utensils and ornaments, and for books or writing. The simplest piece of furniture is the chest, an article of great antiquity, and many such boxes doubtless were brought over by the first colonists. Then chests were made with one or two drawers, *e. g.*, "the chest with a drawer" mentioned in the inventory of the Rev. Nathaniel Rogers of Ipswich, in 1655, cited by Dr. Lyon as the earliest date known to him. The citations and illustrations of chests in this volume leave nothing to be desired.

To cupboards much attention is given, and our author has traced out the varieties with much patience and ingenuity. The examples figured are very interesting, and do full justice to what was the main pride of the halls of our richer citizens. Chests of drawers, bureaus, and dressing-tables are described in detail, and due note is made of the varieties. Chests of drawers with short legs were superseded by those with long legs, and these again become indistinguishable from tables with drawers. Desks in the same way begin with a mere chest with a sloping lid, a portable appliance to be placed on a table. Then legs were added, drawers appended, and the interior arranged with pigeonholes and drawers either obvious or secret. Then the bookcase was placed on top, and the secretary became a well-known piece of furniture.

The department of chairs would require a book to itself, if every variety should be recorded. Dr. Lyon gives some beautiful specimens and notices many interesting facts. The earliest chairs seem to be of simple, massive forms. The legs are square, or simply ornamented by round portions, the backs moderately high, the seats of leather, cloth, or rushes. High-backed and elaborately carved chairs of course occur more rarely, and bandy-legs seem to have been taken from Holland to England by William of Orange. The well-known claw-foot holding a ball is said to be primarily Chinese. Dr. Lyon finds "6 crow-foot chairs" in the inventory of Benjamin Ivory of Boston in 1737.

His illustrations and citations rather point to the conclusion that from 1650 to 1750 the form of chairs was simple, whether in square frames or round, but that the so-called "Chippendale" style reached us by the middle of the last century, and thenceforward the open-backed, airy, and elegant forms which characterize this mode were adopted by our artisans. Cane chairs, we are surprised to notice, are mentioned in Boston in 1689, while the earliest mention in England is only 1679. Windsor chairs appear in New York in 1758 and in Philadelphia in 1736. In figure 74 we have a specimen of a rocking-chair, the only one shown. In view of the fact that rocking-chairs are now called "American chairs" abroad, we wish the author had given more facts in regard to the invention of this form. Certainly rocking-chairs exist which date from colonial times as to the main portion, but rockers could of course be added at any time. Little is said about sofas or settees, though figure 81 displays a charming "double chair" which deserves to be copied.

Tables are discussed at full length, but beds not at all. We hardly understand the omission of beds, since these were articles of large size and cost, constructed in many styles, and are now indispensable in fitting out a "colonial" chamber. We hope that Dr. Lyon intends to write a special book on that subject, or a special chapter in his next edition.

Finally, much information is given about clocks. The earliest were hung from the wall and were moved by a chain and weight, and possibly a few spring clocks were brought here. But about 1690 the tall pendulum clocks were produced, costing much more than the others, and these are found on our inventories. So many persons are specially interested in old clocks that this chapter of Dr. Lyon's work will be widely appreciated.

We have purposely refrained from making many extracts from this book, holding it to be unfair to the author to give in a brief statement facts which have cost him so much time and labor. It is a storehouse for the antiquary, and, like Weeden's 'Economic and Social History of New England,' it shows what valuable information can be gleaned from the volumes of inventories in our older probate courts. Dr. Lyon's success suggests that some central historical society might well undertake the collection of photographs of articles of furniture of established antiquity, to be fortified by the evidence in each case. The glorious army of "Kodak fiends" might here be of great service, and a collection thus made would be of immense service in settling points which no one observer can fully reach. As it is, we do not doubt that the hearty welcome already given to Dr. Lyon's book will renew the popular interest in the study of the domestic architecture of colonial times.

GUSTAVE DORÉ.

Life of Gustave Doré. With 138 illustrations from original drawings by Doré. By the late Blanchard Jerrold. London: W. H. Allen & Co. Large 8vo, pp. viii, 415.

It is now nine years since Gustave Doré died. He was an officer of the Legion of Honor, had attained considerable wealth, and was probably more widely known than any other artist of his day. His name was a household word in two continents. Yet he died a disappointed and embittered man, and is proclaimed by his friends as a neglected and misunderstood genius. He was known the world over as the most astonishingly prolific illustrator of books that has ever lived; he wished to be known in France as a great painter and a great sculptor, and because the artists and critics of France never seriously recognized his claims to this glory, he seems to have become a victim of the mania of persecution, and his naturally sunny nature was over-clouded with moroseness and suspicion. No man has been more extravagantly lauded or more extravagantly condemned. Hailed by some as the emulator and equal of the great names of the Italian Renaissance, and considered a great moral force—a "preacher painter"—by others he has been denounced as "designer in chief to the devil," and described as a man wallowing in all foulness and horror, a sort of demon of frightful power. Both these extreme judgments are English. The late Blanchard Jerrold, an intimate friend and collaborator of the artist, takes, in the volume before us, the first view. Mr. Ruskin and Mr. Hamerton have taken the second. Doré's own countrymen have never accepted either. Just where, between them, the truth lies, as we see it, we shall endeavor to show in this article.

The main facts of Doré's life may be dismissed very briefly. He was born with a caul on the 6th of January, 1832, in the Rue Bleue at Strasbourg, near the Cathedral. About 1841 his father removed to Bourg, in the Department of Ain, where he was Chief Government Engineer of the Department. These two residences of the young artist are supposed to account for the mastery of Gothic architecture and of mountain scenery which his admirers find in his mature work. He showed very early in life a passion for drawing, and, as a small child, had always a pencil in his hand, which he begged to have "sharpened at both ends," that he might work longer without interruption. His father intended him for an engineer, but he was determined from the first to be an artist. He was of a gay and jovial disposition, given to pranks and practical jokes, and of an athletic temperament. Théophile Gautier afterwards called him a "gamin de génie." In 1847, when he was fifteen years old, being in Paris with his parents, he called upon Philippon, the publisher, and showed him some of his sketches. M. Philippon looked at them and sent a letter to Doré's parents persuading them to allow the boy to remain in Paris, and promising them to begin using his work at once and to pay for it. Thus, without any study of art whatever, be began his career, and in a few years had produced a prodigious quantity of work, and was a celebrated man before he was twenty. No one knows how many drawings he made. He "lived like an Arab," worked early and late, and with astonishing rapidity made thousands of drawings for the comic papers, besides early beginning the publication of independent books. One estimate, which Mr. Jerrold thinks excessive, credits him with having published 40,000 draw-

ings before he was forty! Mr. Jerrold himself reckons 266 drawings done in one year. His 'Labors of Hercules' was brought out in 1848, when he was sixteen, and before he was twenty-seven he had published his 'Holy Russia,' his 'Wandering Jew,' his illustrations to Balzac's 'Contes Drolatiques,' to Rabelais, and many other authors. His best work was done at an age when most artists are painfully acquiring the rudiments of their art. We all know the books that followed.

Meanwhile, he was determined to be known as a great painter, and, while flooding the market with his countless illustrations, was working at great canvases of Biblical subjects, which, though the French would not accept them, were hugely admired in the Doré Gallery in London. Later he tried sculpture also, and his last work was a monument to Alexandre Dumas, which he made at his own expense and presented to the city of Paris. He died in the beginning of the year 1883, worn out with excessive production—a great name, but an unsatisfied man.

Mr. Jerrold has divided his book into two parts, dealing first with Doré the illustrator, and then with Doré the painter and sculptor. It is an eminently natural arrangement, and, in our effort to arrive at Doré's true position in art, we cannot do better than to follow it.

Doré's earliest work was frankly that of a caricaturist. He had a quick eye, no training, and a certain extravagant imagination, and caricature was his inevitable field. He was, however, as Mr. Jerrold himself remarks, "a caricaturist who seldom raises a laugh." Not hearty fun, still less delicate humor, was his. In the higher qualities of caricature his contemporaries Daumier and Gavarni were vastly his superiors. An exuberance of grotesque fancy and a recklessness of exaggeration were his dominant notes. His earlier work, up to and including the Rabelais, is not really funny—to many minds it is even painful—but it is unmistakably caricature of a dashing, savage sort. To our mind it remains his best work and that by which he is most likely to live. At least it is the work that formed him and fixed his characteristics, and an understanding of it is essential to any judgment of him. The qualities and the defects of his later work—that which is most praised and most blamed in his production—are inherent in the work of this period, and are best explained by a reference to the latter.

Take, for instance, what has been denounced as his love of horrors and of foulness, his delight in blood and massacre. He is scored for this as if he were one of that modern French school, beginning, perhaps, with Regnault, who have revelled in the realistic presentation of executions and battles, and have sought to effect by sheer sensationalism what they could not by gentler means. It is surprising that his critics have not seen that Doré's battles are always, even to the end, the battles of a caricaturist. His decapitated trunks, cloven heads, smoking hearts, arms still fighting though severed from their bodies, are simply a debauch of grim humor. There is never the slightest attempt to *realize* carnage—only to convey, by the caricaturist's exaggeration, an *idea* of colossally impossible bloodthirstiness. One may not enjoy this kind of fun, but to take it seriously, as the emanation of a gloomy and diabolic genius, is absurd.

The same test is equally destructive of much of the praise Doré has received. He is constantly spoken of, even by severe critics of his painting, as a great illustrator who identified himself with the mind of one great writer after another. But Doré identified himself with no one: he was always Doré. Even in these early drawings he cannot keep to the spirit of the text, though the subjects suited him much better than many he tried later. There is a great deal of broad gayety and "Gallic wit" in the 'Contes Drolatiques,' but it was not broad enough for Doré, and he has converted its most human characters into impossible grotesques.

Another thing for which Doré is praised is his wonderful memory. Mr. Jerrold repeats more than once Doré's phrase, "I have lots of collodion in my head," and recounts how he could scarcely be induced to make sketches from nature, but relied upon his memory. He also speaks of Doré's system of dividing and subdividing a subject, and noting the details in their places, so that he could reproduce the whole afterwards. This question of work from memory is one of the most vital for an understanding of Doré, and one of general interest in all matters of art, and is worth attention. Of course a man who made hundreds of drawings every year could not work much from nature, and came to rely upon his memory. But what is the nature of artistic memory, and how does it perform its task? We think the truth is, that the artist who habitually works from memory fills in his details, *not from memory of the object, but from memory of the way he has formerly drawn similar objects*. He reverts to a series of formulæ that he has gradually accumulated. This man must have a cloak? This is the way a cloak is done. A hand? Nothing can be easier; the hand formula is ready. The stock in trade of the professional illustrator and caricaturist is made up of a thousand such formulæ—methods of expression that convey the idea readily enough to the spectator, but have little relation to fact. So it is that Doré never learned, in the true sense, *to draw*. He had made for himself a sort of artistic shorthand which enabled him to convey his superabundant ideas quickly and certainly to his public, but his drawing is what is called *mannered* in the extreme. It is not representation of nature at all, but pure formula and *chic*. He is said to be a master of drapery, but he never drew a single fold correctly. He is said to show great knowledge of Gothic architecture, but he never drew well a single column or finial. In his later years he studied anatomy with great perseverance, and advocated the necessity of dissection, saying, "Il faut fourrer le main dedans" (You must stick your hand in it); but the manner was formed, and he never drew a leg with a bone in it.

With this equipment he illustrated Don Quixote, Dante, the Bible. Is it strange that he shows no sympathy with the grand simplicity of Dante, or the subtle humor of Cervantes, and that we can only be thankful that he never completed his projected illustrations to Shakspere? Doré the illustrator was fecund beyond precedent, possessed a certain strange drollery, had a wonderful flow of ideas, but was superficial, theatrical, and mannered, and as far from expressing real horror as from expressing real fun. What shall we say of Doré the painter and sculptor?

Mr. Jerrold reports a discussion between Doré and Théophile Gautier in which the rôles of artist and man of letters are strangely reversed. "Gautier and Doré," he says, "disagreed fundamentally on the aims and methods of art. Gautier loved correctness, perfect form—the technique, in short, of art; whereas Doré contended that art which said nothing, which conveyed no idea, albeit perfect in form and color, missed the highest quality and *raison d'être* of art." What is plain from this is that Gautier was an artist and cared first of all for art, while Doré was never an artist, properly speaking, at all, and never understood the artist's passion for perfection. To Doré, what was necessary was to express himself anyhow—who cared if the style was defective, the drawing bad, the color crude? The idea was the thing. His admirers can defend him only on this ground, and they adopt of necessity the Philistine point of view. The artists of Doré's time and country were very clear in their opinion. "The painters," says Mr. Jerrold, "said he could not paint. . . . The sculptors admitted that he had ideas in his groups, but he was not sculpturesque." His friends protest against this judgment, and attribute it, *ad nauseam*, to "malevolence" and "envy." What if his technique was less brilliant than that of Hals, they say; what if his shadows are less transparent than those of Rembrandt (and they will make no meaner comparisons)? He is "teeming with noble thoughts," and these will put his work "on a level with the masterpieces of the Italian masters of the sixteenth century." "It is the conception, the creation—not the perfect painting of legs and arms and heads, the harmonious grouping, the happy and delicate combination of color—by which the observer is held spellbound." All these qualities, which his admirers grudgingly admit that Doré had not, are classed as "mere dexterity," and are not considered worth a second thought.

This is the true literary gospel of art, but it is one that no artist, and no critic who has any true feeling for art, has ever accepted or will ever accept. Thoughts, ideas, conceptions, may enhance the value of a work of art, *provided it is first of all a piece of beautiful art in itself*, but they have never preserved, and never will preserve, from oblivion bad painting or bad sculpture. The style is the artist if not the man; and of the two, beautiful painting with no idea at all (granting, for the sake of argument, that it exists), will ever be infinitely more valuable to the world than the lame expression of the noblest thoughts. What may be the real value of Doré's thoughts is therefore a question with which we have no concern. Whether they are truly sublime, as his worshippers declare, or merely theatrically effective, as we believe, is really of no importance whatever. The standard by which he must be judged is the standard of technical achievement, and by this standard he is condemned, without stay of judgment on the plea of grandeur of conception. As painter and sculptor, his lack of education and his great technical imperfections—his bad drawing, false light and shade, and crude color—relegate him for ever to a rank far below mediocrity. Such reputation as he has is the result of the admiration of those altogether ignorant of art, but possessed of enough literary ability to trumpet abroad their praises of "great conceptions," and will as surely fade away to nothing as the reputation of such simple painters as Van der Meer or Chardin will continue to grow while painting as an art is loved and understood.

DOBSON'S HOGARTH.

William Hogarth. By Austin Dobson. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

THE name of Hogarth stands alone among those of artists; he cannot be classed with any school, English or foreign, in method, style or subject; he created his own field, as he chose his own fashion of education. As he followed

no one, so no one has followed him. Isolated, sharply defined, of exceptionally original vigor, it is not strange that both the man and his works have always formed an attractive subject for critics. No less than 108 titles are given in the Bibliography which fills thirty-nine pages and forms Part II. of the present work, covering a period of 160 years, from 1731 to the current year. They are of works of all degrees of magnitude, from the single sheet of a newspaper (as that of the issue of the *North Briton* of September 25, 1762, which contained the memorable attack of John Wilkes upon Hogarth) to the monumental folio containing the engraved plates from his works, or the fourteen volumes in German by Leichtenberg. Able critics—Horace Walpole, Lamb, Hazlitt, Hartley Coleridge, and Leigh Hunt, to say nothing of Thackeray, Dickens, and Dr. Brown—have left their records of the impressions made upon them by the works of this artist. Such an array of literary comment is certainly a proof of the strength of the man; but there was yet ample room and more, a crying necessity, for a book which should accomplish that which Mr. Dobson's does, namely: the presentation in a concise form of both the story of the artist's life and a complete history of his work in connected sequence, while also giving competent criticism both of the works themselves and of the previous accumulated criticism. Such a task can only be performed after the lapse of sufficient time, and the period had certainly been reached for this subject. The book is an amplification of that written by the author ten years ago for the "Great Artists Series," but, with the exception of the same admirable and interesting introductory chapter, has been entirely rewritten. The complete bibliography, lists of prints and paintings, and the excellent index, are all virtually new, and occupy nearly one-half of the volume.

Hogarth can never become hackneyed any more than can the great moral truths and phases of life which formed the almost exclusive subject of his pencil; and although the story of his life is meagre and contains no striking episodes, the man himself will always be interesting, and will command respect from his strongly marked character and the valiant earnestness with which he championed his ideas and prejudices. The autographic "Brief Sketch," left by the artist and inherited from his widow by her cousin, Mary Lewis, from whom it was received by John Ireland, the enthusiastic and sympathetic collector of Hogarth's works, in 1796, forms the basis of all that is known of the artist's life. He was born in London in 1697, and died there in 1764. He served an apprenticeship to a silver-plate engraver, but deserted this trade for engraving on copper plate, working mainly from his own inspiration, although he attended later the school of Sir James Thornhill, where he might draw from the life when he chose other assistance than came from his own unaided powers of observation. It is interesting to note that upon the death of Sir James Thornhill in 1734, Hogarth, who had made a runaway match with his handsome daughter, inherited his academy in Covent Garden, and, associating with himself a number of artists, opened a "Life School" in "Peter's Court, against Tom's Coffee House in S. Martin's Lane." "In this institution most of the artists of the reign of George II. and the early part of the reign of George III. were trained; and its usefulness only ceased with the establishment of the Royal Academy, to which 'its anatomical figures, busts, statues, etc.,' were transferred in 1768."

In 1735 Hogarth was mainly instrumental in obtaining an act of Parliament against piratical print publishers: the "act" is usually spoken of as Hogarth's, and the engravings of "The Rake's Progress," which appeared in June, 1735, are probably the first which bear the words "According to Act of Parliament," now so common upon engravings. In 1739 the Foundling Hospital, in which Hogarth took a warm interest, and for which he painted the portrait of Capt. Coram, the originator of the scheme, was established. This picture the artist considered his best single portrait, and posterity agrees with him. The Hospital contains other paintings by Hogarth, and he was a "Governor and Guardian" of the institution. Thus he initiated the practice of decorating the Foundling Hospital with paintings, and, other artists following in his footsteps, this place ultimately became possessed of a remarkable collection, "which made a visit to the Foundling the most fashionable lounge of the reign of George II., and, by a succession of circumstances, indirectly, but not less surely, brought about the establishment of the Royal Academy."

In 1748 he made a journey to France, and was arrested while sketching the "Calais Gate," but was shortly released. In 1753 he published his 'Analysis of Beauty'—a book which brought him but little credit and much animadversion, and which, although it contains a good deal of sound sense and shrewd observation, is poorly constructed and incoherent in idea as well as form. Its origin as given by the artist is piquant. In the portrait of himself, now in the National Gallery, he had represented upon his palette a serpentine line, with the words under it, "The Line of Beauty and Grace." "No Egyptian hieroglyphic," he says, "ever amused more than it did for a time"; and, adds Mr. Dobson, "so numerous were the requests which he received for a solution of the enigma that, after applying to several of his friends to take up the pen in his behalf, he finally made shift to explain his symbol in print himself." In 1749 he bought a "villakin" at Chiswick, on the banks of the Thames, and there he spent more or less of his summer time. His home still stands, as does also his formerly majestic mulberry tree. And in the churchyard at Chiswick he is buried.

This is the skeleton of what would be called his life; but his real existence must be read in the prolific work he left behind as the result of a long and constantly occupied career. Mr. Dobson gives a list of about two hundred prints engraved by Hogarth himself after his own works, and about as many more by other engravers after his designs—some of these possibly also in part by him. Besides these about two hundred and sixty paintings are enumerated. The record of this voluminous work is all set down in the most orderly manner in the present book, and, without going into tedious detail, Mr. Dobson gives the main facts relating to the creation and history of all the more important series as well as individual works, with such original criticism as is needful, and also very full citation in the text (but more especially in the admirable foot-notes, which abound) from earlier criticism. The treatment of the subject could scarcely be better, for here is gathered together and placed in simple, systematic form all that it is necessary to know of the artist and his work. The student will find here either what he seeks, or trustworthy indication of where to seek it. A large number of full-page illustrations adorn the book, among them twelve photogravures most admirably executed: one of these, the well-known portrait of the artist with his dog, in the National Gallery, forms the frontispiece. The book is a most attractive one with its heavy uncut leaves, faultless type and wide margins—all a fitting framework for the interesting story, charmingly told, which it contains.

We cannot follow Mr. Dobson in his particulars, but we may be pardoned for quoting the following passages from his introduction, which present, in a forcible and condensed form, a vivid picture of the nature of Hogarth's genius and the character of his work:

"He gives us," says the author, "unromanced and unidealized, 'the form and pressure,' the absolute details and accessories, the actual *mise-en-scène*, of the time in which he lived. But he has done much more than this. He has peopled his canvas with its dramatis personæ, with vivid portraits of the more strongly marked actors in that cynical and sensual, brave and boastful, corrupt and patriotic age. . . . He was a moralist after the manner of eighteenth-century morality, not savage like Swift, not ironical like Fielding, not tender-hearted at times like Johnson and Goldsmith; but unrelenting, uncompromising, uncompassionate. He drew vice and its consequences in a thoroughly literal and business-like way, neither sparing nor extenuating its details, wholly insensible to its seductions, incapable of flattering it even for a moment, preoccupied simply with catching its precise contortion of pleasure or pain. In all his delineations . . . we see Justice and Vengeance following hard upon the criminal. He knew, no doubt, as well as we, that not seldom (humanly speaking) the innocent are punished and the guilty go at large. What matter! that message should not be preached by him, at any rate. So he drew his 'Bogey' bigger, if possible, and drove his graver deeper in the copper. . . . What antecedents, what progress of circumstance, what special conditions produced this unique and individual artist in an era of mediocrities? . . . When all is said and done, the reader will probably find no more satisfactory reply to the question than this: that he was a great and exceptional genius, not to be entirely accounted for by any preconceived theory respecting his race, his epoch, or his environment."

The satiric and comic elements are those which first attract in the prints of Hogarth, and superficially he is probably considered a humorist pure and simple; but so closely interwoven are "bliss and woe" in the "thread of human life" that, under all, we may see, perhaps, "the bitter smile beneath the painted grin he wore." The little print called "Finis, or The Bathos," the last work he did, but a few months before his death, is a startling commentary on the facetious element in all his works. What could be more pathetic than this representation of chaos as the end of all effort? Both the "sublime" in art, which he had ridiculed without ceasing, and the naturalistic, which he had practised—virtue and vice—all things come alike to the same goal! One can scarcely lay down this book without the strongest feelings of respect and admiration for this valiant preacher against vice and shams, for his clear and strong intellectual quality, and for the untiring energy with which he occupied the years of a long life.

MILLER ON THE CONSTITUTION.

Lectures on the Constitution of the United States. By Samuel Freeman Miller, LL.D., late an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. New York and Albany: Banks & Brothers. 1891.

In receiving this legacy of a great judge, the people of the United States may congratulate themselves on their parsimony in the compensation of their higher officials. It is well known that Mr. Justice Miller, like his col-

league in the Supreme Court, the late Chief-Justice Waite, died poor. At any time during his distinguished judicial career he could have gained a fortune by resigning his office and accepting employment from the numerous and eager litigants who would have hastened to retain him on his own terms. But, with a spirit of independence and of patriotic duty which characterized him through life, he preferred to continue in the discharge of his high functions at the sacrifice of his private interests. Too much engrossed in his public duties, and of too broad and generous a disposition to practise an economy not compatible with the dignity due to his station, he undertook, in order to increase his income, the task of delivering lectures to law students. Of the twelve lectures embraced in this volume, all but two were written for that purpose, and were read by him before a law school in the city of Washington in the winter of 1889 and the early spring of 1890.

The career of Mr. Justice Miller was one of the most remarkable in judicial annals. He was not educated for the law, but for medicine; and it was at an age when most men have not only made a definitive choice of a profession, but have also fairly got a start in the vocation of life, that he studied law and came to the bar. But he had found the true sphere of his activity. At the time when he abandoned medicine for the law, he was a citizen of the State of Kentucky, and, with his positiveness of conviction and frankness of expression, he was inevitably drawn into the agitation, then daily becoming more acute, on the subject of slavery. Like most men of the time and place who possessed the means, he was an owner of slaves. With him, however, opposition to the extension of slavery soon grew into a confirmed repugnance to slavery itself, and, taking his slaves with him, he went to Iowa and set them free. With this change of residence and of political and social conditions, we may regard his career as actually begun. His progress at the bar was sure and rapid. While he could scarcely have been widely read and learned in the law, he possessed a strong common sense, a force of character, and a firm grasp of principles, which could not fail to secure for him an influence over the courts, as well as over his brethren at the bar.

His elevation to the bench, after what must be considered as a comparatively brief period in the study and pursuit of his profession, took place when sectional feeling was intense and bitter, and when those who, in the political and legal controversies raised by the attempt at secession, had ranged themselves on the side of the Union, might have found a ready excuse, as many of them did, for exalting the restored national authority above previously accepted constitutional restrictions, and bearing down the opposition of those who contended for the right of local self-government. It can hardly be pretended that Mr. Justice Miller was lacking in a disposition to assert the supremacy of the national Government, or that he would have been compelled to yield to any man in the ardor or constancy of his desire for the establishment of that supremacy. Some of his earlier opinions contain vehement and passionate expressions of his feelings on that subject. At the same time, he had the wisdom to look to the end. While he abhorred the attempt to destroy the Federal Government by force of arms, he was equally opposed to the tendency to revolutionize it through the forms of law. Like Lincoln, he desired to restore "the Union as it was," and, after remedying the defects that made the attempt at disunion possible, he wished to inaugurate again the reign of the Constitution.

It was not long before he had occasion to assert and maintain these views. For the purpose of extirpating the causes of the war and safeguarding the future, the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments were adopted, to secure freedom and political enfranchisement to those who had formerly been oppressed, and equal rights to all. The Supreme Court was soon called upon to determine the scope and effect of these amendments in the "Slaughter-house cases," which grew out of an act passed by the Legislature of Louisiana for the purpose of regulating the business of slaughtering animals for food within the limits of the city of New Orleans. As this end was sought to be accomplished in the act by the granting of an exclusive right of killing animals within those limits to a corporation, the butchers of the city brought suit to enjoin the corporation from exercising the right, on the ground that the Legislature of the State had, by the creation of a monopoly, invaded their rights, and thus infringed the new amendments. When the case came up for decision, the court was found to be divided. Four of the judges held that the act was violative of the amendments, and therefore invalid. Five of the judges, however, held otherwise, and among them was Mr. Justice Miller, who delivered the opinion of the court. The question on which the court was sharply divided was whether the amendments should be construed broadly, so as to curtail the general powers of the States under the Constitution as affecting rights of person and property, or whether they should be confined in their application by the consideration of the special purposes which they were designed to accomplish. Mr. Justice Miller held that they should be so confined ; and, after adverting to the fact that the real danger to the perpetuity of the Union disclosed by the civil war was in the capacity of the States alone, or in combination, to organize resistance to the general Government, he said:

"Unquestionably this has given great force to the argument, and added largely to the number of those who believe in the necessity of a strong national Government. But, however pervading this sentiment, and however it may have contributed to the adoption of the amendments we have been considering, we do not see in those amendments any purpose to destroy the main features of the system. Under the pressure of all the excited feeling growing out of the war, our statesmen have still believed that the existence of the States with powers for domestic and local government, including the regulation of civil rights—the rights of person and property—was essential to the perfect working of our complex system of government, though they have thought proper to impose additional limitations on the governments of the States, and to confer additional power on that of the United States. But whatever fluctuations may be seen in the history of public opinion on this subject during the period of our national existence, we think it will be found that this court, so far as its functions required, has always held with a steady and an even hand the balance between State and Federal power, and we trust that such may continue to be the history of its relation to that subject so long as it shall have duties to perform which demand of it a construction of the Constitution, or of any of its parts."

There is reason to believe that Mr. Justice Miller regarded the delivery of this opinion as one of the most important acts, if not, indeed, as probably it was, the most important act, of his judicial life. In his lecture delivered in June, 1887, before the alumni of the law department of the University of Michigan, on the subject of the Supreme Court, he gives an interesting exposition of the decision in the "Slaughter-house cases," and says:

"Although this decision did not meet the approval of four out of nine of the judges on some points on which it rested, yet public sentiment, as found in the press and in the universal acquiescence which it received, accepted it with great unanimity. . . . And while the question of the construction of these amendments, and particularly the Fourteenth, has often been before the Supreme Court of the United States, no attempt to overrule or disregard this elementary decision of the effect of the three new Constitutional Amendments upon the relations of the State governments to the Federal Government has been made; and it may be considered now as settled that, with the exception of the specific provisions in them for the protection of the personal rights of the citizens and people of the United States, and the necessary restrictions upon the power of the States for that purpose, with the additions to the powers of the general Government to enforce those provisions, no substantial change has been made. The necessity of the great powers conceded by the Constitution originally to the Federal Government, and the equal necessity of the autonomy of the States and their power to regulate their domestic affairs, remain as the great features of our complex form of government."

The lecture in which the passage just quoted is found forms the eighth in the series of twelve printed in the present volume. It is one of the two not read before the law class in Washington, the other being the discourse delivered by Mr. Justice Miller on the 17th of September, 1887, at Philadelphia, on "the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the framing and promulgation of the Constitution." This oration is so widely and favorably known that it would be superfluous to comment upon it here. It is sufficient to indicate the estimation in which its author was held by the bar as an expounder of the Constitution, that he was chosen to pronounce the oration on that occasion. But it may be said that it peculiarly evinces that spirit of respect for the law which was a controlling influence in Mr. Justice Miller's career:

"I but repeat," he said, "the language of the Supreme Court of the United States when I say that in this country the law is supreme. No man is so high as to be above the law. No officer of the Government may disregard it with impunity. To this inborn and native regard for law, as a governing power, we are indebted largely for the wonderful success and prosperity of our people, for the security of our rights. . . . Let me urge upon my fellow-countrymen, and especially upon the rising generation of them, to examine with careful scrutiny all new theories of government and of social life, and if they do not rest upon a foundation of veneration and respect for law as the bond of social existence, let them be distrusted as inimical to human happiness."

The ten lectures delivered before the law school in Washington respectively relate to "The Principles of Construction of the Constitution," "The Executive Branch of the Government," "The Separate Powers of the Senate and the House of Representatives," "The Power of Taxation," "Naturalization and Citizenship," "The Judicial Power of the United States," the "Regulation of Commerce among the States," "The Right of Trial by Jury," the "Impairment of the Obligation of Contracts," and the "Limitations upon the Powers of the States." It would be impossible within the compass of a review to attempt a critical discussion of these lectures, but it may be said that they present in clear and bold outline the great fundamental principles governing our constitutional system. The style is direct, energetic, and lucid, such as becomes one who speaks with authority.

But we should do injustice to this publication if we failed to notice the work of its

editor, Mr. J. C. Bancroft Davis, the accomplished reporter of the Supreme Court. The spirit in which he has performed his task cannot better be described than by quoting from his preface the following passage: "I have endeavored to present this work to the profession and the public in a manner worthy of the great judge who has passed away, so far as the limited time given me and my duties to the court would allow. . . . It has been to me a labor of love to follow in the footsteps of one whose great intellect, probity, manliness, and directness of purpose were recognized by the whole nation; whose amiable character was admired by all who knew him; and whose friendship I was permitted to enjoy for nearly a quarter of a century." To each lecture Mr. Davis has added an explanatory note, and, in order to make the work complete as at once a treatise and a text-book, he has also written a supplemental chapter containing references to minor provisions of the Constitution not discussed in the lectures. He has also embodied in an appendix a collated copy of the Constitution, with full references to the cases in which it has been construed or discussed, as well as collated copies of the Articles of Confederation and of Randolph's and Pinckney's drafts for a constitution. The presswork of the book is a credit to the publishers, and leaves nothing to be desired. We cannot doubt that this important work will receive, as it deserves, a warm and generous reception at the hands not only of statesmen and lawyers, but also of teachers and students of Constitutional history.

The Hours of Raphael in Outline. By Mary E. Williams. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

WHERE are, or where were, the famous "Hours" of Raphael? is a question which has very often been asked; and the answer has generally been, No one knows; or, They say they were somewhere in the Vatican, but no one knows where. Miss Mary E. Williams, for many years a resident in Rome, undertakes to answer this question in the beautiful volume just published by Little, Brown & Co. Certainly all persons interested in the painting of the Renaissance, and more particularly in that of Raphael, would be devoutly thankful for any light thrown upon the origin of these well-known figures, and would welcome any convincing arguments which should finally dissipate the mist of uncertainty which has always enveloped them. Probably few of the minor works of art of this class have received more attention from the general art-loving public than these "Hours." Their grace and simplicity attract at once. The numerous reproductions, gotten up in the most inexpensive form, are bought in large numbers by travellers, and not a few sojourners in Rome have carried away these simple mementoes, thereby laying the train for long researches in a vain attempt to discover the whereabouts and authorship of the originals. Students of a higher class have always known them from the folio volume of engravings, published in Paris in 1804–6, which contains prints of the twelve "Hours" finished by the burin by ten different engravers, but without text and with no clue to the original designer.

This enshrouding mystery has added not a little to the fame and interest of the compositions. Has our author finally answered the question—or rather the questions, for there are two—Where were the "Hours"? and, Who painted them? Her volume contains sixteen folio plates, comprising the twelve figures of the "Hours," two repetitions with variations after Piranesi, and two plates of the ceiling which they are said to have originally adorned. The accompanying text is clear and remarkably interesting; it gives an account of all the known facts, as well as the author's deductions therefrom.

In the Royal Stamperia in Rome is a rare and highly prized engraving of the ceiling of the Sala del Camino, one of the suite of six rooms in the Vatican called the "Sale Borgia," from Alexander VI., a Borgia, who occupied them during his pontificate (1492-1503). This engraving was photographed for the first time for the reproduction which forms Plate 1 of the book now published. Neither the name of the engraver nor a date appears upon the engraving, but it was published by Montagnani, the well-known publisher of prints, who flourished in Rome about the middle of the eighteenth century, and it bears an inscription in Italian, translated by our author as follows: "Ceiling of the Sala Borgia in the Vatican Palace, where are expressed the Planets, the Hours of the Day, and the Signs of the Zodiac by the immortal Raphael Sanzio of Urbino." In this print the "Hours" as we know them appear, six on each side of the central panel. This would seem to prove with sufficient certainty the original position of the designs, and so to answer the first question, "Where were the 'Hours'?"

But to accept the attribution of them to Raphael upon the sole authority of this anonymous print, executed two hundred and fifty years after his death, is quite another matter. Neither does the author undertake to do this; she adduces other, at least circumstantial evidence. In 1500 the ceiling of the Sala del Camino was blown down and destroyed by a violent storm, the Pope being overwhelmed by the débris. Julius II. succeeded Alexander VI., and in 1508 summoned Raphael to Rome to decorate the stanze of the Vatican. This occupied him nine years, and after the death of Bramante in 1514 he continued the latter's work upon the loggie. Just at the angle of the arcades which form this feature of the palace, and directly under one of the stanze, is the Sala del Camino, the frescoes and ceiling of which had been destroyed by the storm of the year 1500. Leo X., who followed Julius II., began at least the decoration of this room, as is shown by the insertion of his name in each of its corners. This Pope never employed another master than Raphael.

From these facts alone it seems highly probable, if not quite certain, that the designs at least of the floating figures on the ceiling were by the great master. Moreover, in 1516, Leo X. had made Raphael superintendent of antiquities and excavations at Rome. The Baths of Titus were discovered with their rich treasures, among which are especially mentioned "the most beautiful mural paintings that had ever been seen." Did some of these inspire the artist in his Vatican decoration? It is known that he employed many of his pupils, and notably Giulio Romano and Pierino del Vaga, to superintend the execution of his designs for numerous frescoes, and that Giovanni da Udine, who showed a special aptitude for this work, was made director of the grotesques and stucco ornament of the Sala del Camino. Pierino del Vaga was employed upon the ceiling, and continued to work upon it from the master's designs till after his death in 1520.

The form in which the designs have come down to us seems to indicate that they were not originally intended for the position which they eventually occupied, and the author suggests that Raphael intended them for the thirteen (*sic*) spaces opposite the windows in the loggia. This was uncompleted at the time of Raphael's death, and its completion was postponed till long afterwards. Miss Williams suggests that the pupils appropriated the existing designs for the work more immediately in hand, to wit, the ceiling of the Sala del Camino. This, of course, is purely conjectural and of secondary importance. Apart from the proofs advanced, the author maintains that the internal evidence of the figures plainly shows them to have been by the hand of the master whose "autograph is clearly visible to those who are thoroughly familiar with his work." We cannot decide so confidently from the evidence of this volume, which consists of reproductions of tracings made by the author from outline prints engraved, we know not exactly when, but certainly about 250 years after the artist's death. These outlines, which are evidently most faithfully copied, are contained in a rare, if not unique, folio in the Romani Sarti library in Rome, and are by three engravers, two of them of unknown dates; the third, Ferdinando Mori, was born in 1775.

As was said in the beginning, the medium through which the "Hours" have been known of late years is the volume published in Paris in 1804–6. The story goes that Canova caused these engravings to be made, but from what originals? An article in the London *Notes and Queries* (title, author, and date not given) states that in the seventeenth century "appeared certain engravings in the style of Marc Antonio, the only artist who was allowed by Raphael to engrave his designs as soon as they were drawn and before he had begun to paint them, and in whose engravings some of the best works of Raphael (as his "Lucretia") still survive. These seventeenth-century engravings were universally called "Raphael's 'Hours.'" They thus (concludes Miss Williams) "form the connecting link between Canova and Raphael." These are all the known facts, and it seems to us that the conclusion may fairly be drawn, in view of the persistent tradition that Raphael was the artist, that the designs were by him.

The book is a very beautiful one. Every portion—cover, text, and plates—has been prepared with the greatest care and with the happiest result. The reproductions are admirable, especially those of the whole ceiling, in which occurs an endless variety of the most minute Renaissance detail, rendered with striking clearness and excellent tone. If any adverse criticism is to be made, it would be that some of the faces in the floating figures are a trifle heavy in touch; but this applies only to a part of them. We should have been glad, also, if the author had been able to give us some account of the present condition of the ceiling, and whether any vestiges of the figures remain. In point of fact, we believe that the whole ceiling has been whitewashed or stuccoed over, and that nothing of the original decoration is visible. Altogether, this folio volume will form, not only a valuable addition to the literature of art for students, but a charming possession for all lovers of graceful and interesting designs.

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Aubert, Prof. E. Colloquial French Drill. Part II. Henry Holt & Co.
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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1890		1,357,821 14
Total Marine Premiums		$5,187,152 33
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1890, to 31st December, 1890		$3,792,974 46
Losses paid during the same period	$1,423,467 21	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$753,158 86	

The Company has the following assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$7,599,315 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	2,266,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	1,118,562 11
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	1,345,029 39
Cash in Bank	198,428 18
Amount	$12,527,334 68

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By order of the Board,
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Assets	14,074,813 56

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 31, 1891.

The Week.

In view of the sweeping and emphatic contradictions given by Assistant Secretary Soley on Saturday to the recent newspaper reports about the imminence of war with Chili, and the preparations of our Government for such a war, what are we to say to the persistent and wilful lying of our own press on this subject? And can there be more mischievous lying by the conductor of a newspaper than lying intended to spread abroad the impression that we were on the verge of justifiable hostilities with a friendly State, and that we should be entirely right in the eyes of God and man in bombarding its ports, slaughtering its people, and destroying its ships? Can a nearer approach than this to devil's work be made by an irresponsible blatherskite? One of the very worst offenders in this matter has been the New York *Times*. It has for many weeks permitted a very foolish and mendacious young man to send it despatches from Washington predicting war with Chili as all but certain, and describing in detail the vigorous preparations for it that our Government was making. On Wednesday of last week it made war almost certain under the heading, "Blaine's Bluster Ahead —The Chilian Controversy Begins to Look Warlike." On Monday we were told on one page that we were "Preparing to Meet Chili," and on another that we were "Quite Ready for Chili." On Saturday we were told about the "Ill-Will of Chili," and that "naval officials" were calling for "a display of our power." On Friday last we had a "Secret Naval Movement" on foot against Chili—and so on in wearisome iteration. Assistant Secretary Soley disposed of all this malignant rubbish in a word.

We believe there is now only one question pending between Chili and the United States which can cause any trouble. The case of the attack on the sailors of the *Baltimore* is pursuing its usual course in the courts. The "juge d'instruction," as the French call him, has done the work done here by our Grand Jury by making a preliminary examination of the case. His report is laid before the Public Prosecutor, answering to our District Attorney. He on this report and evidence draws the indictment, which is tried by four judges. Trial by jury does not exist in Chili. We believe, also, that an expression of regret over the occurrence was made by the Chilian Government long ago. We hope President Harrison has not been kept as much in the dark on this point as he was touching the proceedings in the *Itata* case. The one question which now contains any seeds of international trouble is the status of the refugees whom Egan is sheltering in the United States Legation. There is a considerable number of them, and probably two have committed ordinary crimes against person or property. The others are, in the strict sense of the term, political offenders—that is, men who took part in Balmaceda's attempt to overthrow the Government, or who, being at the time officers of the Government, aided him in his venture. The continuing shelter afforded to all these by our Legation is, we believe, a very doubtful use of a bad precedent, which our State Department has always condemned. This right of asylum in foreign legations has been allowed, as we said some time ago, in Spain and Spanish-American countries, at a period when revolutions were frequent and party passions very violent, and when the lives of the defeated were always in danger immediately after their defeat. Foreign legations took them in for a brief period, until the crisis was over and this danger to life had passed by. But this state of things exists no longer in Spain, and in only a few of the smaller South American States. Even if it did exist in Chili, it would furnish no excuse for converting a foreign legation into a *permanent* refuge for offenders against the laws of the country. Chili has not lost her rank as a sovereign and independent State through Balmaceda's attempt, any more than the United States lost theirs through the attempt of Jefferson Davis, and we should certainly have taken in very bad part the continued use, for months after the conflict was over, of the British Legation at Washington to shelter him and other leading Confederates from the pursuit of our constituted authorities.

What is making the trouble now about these refugees is Egan's contention, in which we believe he is backed at Washington, that he must have a safe conduct for them, to enable them to leave the country, before he can turn them out of the Legation. This is probably the most curious of all the demands we have made on "the sister Republic." It might be a perfectly proper demand to make on the Chinese, or Turks, or Moroccans, but it is a very odd condition for one civilized, law-governed Republic to seek to impose upon another. The Chilian answer is perfectly simple and impregnable. They are willing, for the sake of peace and quiet, to put up with the slightly veiled insult of making the American Legation an asylum for fugitives from their justice, but they cannot grant a safe conduct to these fugitives, because there is no officer of the Chilian Government, any more than of the American Government, authorized to grant it, under the Chilian Constitution, to citizens charged with indictable offences. Fancy President Harrison or Governor Hill giving such persons a license to run away from the Union or the State of New York, so as to avoid trial. What the Chilian Government can promise to these refugees, and does promise, is a fair trial according to the law of the land. Some of them are charged with simply impeachable offences, committed as officers of the Government. These the Chilians wish to try before the Senate, according to the Constitution. Others are charged with ordinary criminal offences. These they wish to try before the ordinary courts. The use of our greatly superior force to compel the Chilian authorities to nullify their own Constitution, would be a very queer enterprise for a republic. It would be made all the odder and more scandalous by the fact that our Minister, who is boarding these refugees, lies under the suspicion of having been their confederate or sympathizer in their late attempt against the Government of their own country.

Some of the Washington correspondents have constructed elaborate tables showing the number of committee chairmanships given by Speaker Crisp to "the North" and "the South" respectively. The Democratic membership is divided almost equally between the two sections, the North having a bare majority. On the basis of numbers, therefore, the North should get 29 and the South 27. In point of fact, Northern representatives have received 25 and Southern 31. Two things, however, are to be borne in mind. One is that most of the Southern Democrats are old members, while the larger part of those from the North are new men, and that precedent strongly favors those with a record of long service. The other is that the North gets the two most important chairmanships—those of the Ways and Means and Appropriations Committees—and that these are fully the equivalent of half-a-dozen committees near the foot of the list. So far as this aspect of his work is concerned, Mr. Crisp has done his work as fairly as could be expected, and the result is not open to criticism.

Fortunately, the time is past when it is a matter of consequence to the people whether North or South gets the larger share of the committee chairmanships. There is no longer any sectional issue which renders it important whether the one part of the country or the other has control of legislation. Even the "rebel brigadier" clap-trap has ceased to be effective. Indeed, the severest critics of Speaker Crisp's policy regarding the Ways and Means Committee will be found among Northern men. He has made a Northern Representative its chairman, but the fact

that Mr. Springer comes from the North is rightly regarded as unimportant. These critics consider Mr. Mills the man who should have been given the place by virtue of his past prominence as the tariff-reform leader, and they do not attach the slightest weight to the fact that he lives in Texas and fought in the Confederate army. It is really a striking proof of the decline of sectional feeling that many Northern men should condemn a Georgia Speaker because he has made an Illinois man, rather than a Texan, "leader of the House."

Speaker Crisp has made an excellent Committee on the Civil Service. Mr. Andrew of Massachusetts, the Chairman, is a firm believer in the merit system, and Mr. Coombs of Brooklyn, one of the new members, is an earnest advocate of reform. We do not recognize among the others a single one of those politicians who ridicule and denounce reform, and the Committee as a whole is undoubtedly favorable to the maintenance and extension of the system. The fact is not without significance that Mr. Crisp thought it wise to frame such a committee. He may not be enamoured of civil-service reform, but he is a shrewd enough politician to see that it would not be good policy to show it disfavor. The time has gone by both for sneers about "snivel-service reform," and for the appointment of a man like Gen. Butler as Chairman of the Committee on the subject. Even the worst spoilsmen now see that the movement cannot be stopped, and is already too powerful to be opposed safely. No less significant than Speaker Crisp's action in this committee matter is Secretary Foster's course in promulgating a set of rules which puts the whole system of promotions in the Treasury Department on the most advanced ground of civil-service reform.

Gov. Hill has clearly come to the conclusion that he does not need the support of the law-abiding portion of the people of this State in order to advance his political ambition. He has supplemented his conduct in refusing to surrender Connecticut fugitives from justice, and in inducing canvassing boards to disregard the election laws, by pardoning, immediately after sentence, the Onondaga Supervisor who was fined $250 and sentenced to the penitentiary for thirty days for contempt of court in refusing to obey the court's order to send back election returns to the inspectors for correction. The audacity of this last performance by the Governor is surprising even in him. The Supervisor was guilty of a very grave offence, and was justly punished for it by the court. This punishment would have been a most valuable warning to supervisors hereafter who should be tempted to repeat his offence—that is, to defeat the will of the people, as expressed in an election, by disregarding the requirements of the laws in canvassing the vote. From the beginning to the end of the post-election controversy in this State, Gov. Hill has openly defied the law. He has denounced one Supreme Court justice for declaring that the law must be enforced, and has attempted unsuccessfully to use another justice to undo the work of the first. He has removed from office two county clerks for refusing to do what Democratic justices of the Supreme Court have declared would have been an illegal action. And now he caps the climax by pardoning a lawbreaker before he can enter upon the punishment which was imposed upon him for his crime.

Mr. Matthew Hale's careful and moderate review of Gov. Hill's conduct in this matter will leave no doubt in any impartial mind that the Governor's course is both unprecedented and indefensible. Mr. Hale shows that no Governor has ever claimed before that the provision of the Constitution which vests the Executive with power to grant pardons after conviction, can be construed as authorizing him to give release from punishment inflicted by order of a court for disobedience of its own order. As to the question of the Governor's power to pardon a contempt for which, as a crime, the offender has been tried and convicted, there is no doubt whatever; but Mr. Hale shows that the question of pardoning a man who has not been tried, but who has been sentenced to punishment, under the Civil code, by the court, as a means of enforcing its own authority, is quite another matter. He quotes many authorities on this point, showing that the highest courts of the State have upheld the right of the courts to inflict summary punishment for contempt.

Mr. Hale calls attention, at the close of his review, to the extraordinary position which the Governor took when he published his reasons for pardoning Welch. In the memorandum which he filed, the Governor declared that Welch, or any other member of the Canvassing Board, was "entitled to commendation and not to punishment" for resisting the order of the court, since he (the Governor) believed that order to have been issued by a partisan judge. The Governor also admitted in the same memorandum that Welch had been acting under his guidance, or, as Mr. Hale puts it, that he himself, the Chief Executive of the State, had "instigated, aided, and abetted the contempt of court of which Welch was guilty," thus confessing himself guilty of a misdemeanor under the Penal Code. Mr. Hale thus sums up the case, adding to his summary his belief that the question will be carried to the Court of Appeals for final decision:

> "The claim of the Governor amounts therefore to this: a Governor who advises a party to a judicial proceeding to disobey the lawful mandate of a court may, under the pretence of an exercise of the pardoning power, prevent the court from enforcing its decree or order by the punishment of the person who has committed the act of disobedience in pursuance of the Governor's direction. It is hardly necessary to say that if this construction of the pardoning power is correct, the independence of the judiciary is at an end. Its orders can be enforced only by the forbearance of the Governor. If the Governor chooses (as the present Governor of New York has chosen) to set himself in opposition to the law, and in opposition to the courts, he can, by the exercise of the pardoning power, paralyze the arm of justice."

We regret to observe that the *Tribune* has a Democratic fabricator in its Washington bureau. He telegraphs to his paper that "the total annual appropriations for the current year, including deficiencies and miscellaneous, amounted to $402,537,-864." This is only a few thousand dollars higher than Senator Allison's statement of last March. Add in the $122,486,808 of the "permanent annual appropriations," the amount "submitted to Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury as estimated to be necessary under permanent specific and indefinite appropriations," and we easily pass the $525,000,000 mark. But the *Tribune*, having that sum in mind, has editorially assured us that "the fact had been many times made known by Republican journals that the appropriations to be actually expended within the coming year were not as large by many millions as Democratic fabricators had asserted." So much depends upon the point of view. When it is a question of Republican extravagance, our contemporary declares that it was no such thing, and that Senator Allison was a Democratic fabricator in giving the figures to prove it. But when Mr. Holman begins to talk about cutting down the appropriations by $118,000,000 at this session, the *Tribune* points admiringly to the Republican grand total, all of which it asserts to have been necessary. In either case, poor Mr. Foster's estimate of expenses for the current year—$409,000,000—looks small enough. He is acting as a sort of Chairman of the Appropriations Committee himself, and cutting down $116,000,-000 on his own responsibility. His method differs from Mr. Holman's in that the latter proposes to prevent the enactment of extravagant laws, while Mr. Foster is preventing their execution. But then, if he only had the money, he would gladly pay out all that the laws call for. He is merely straitened by circumstances, and not at all a niggardly man by nature, so we understand he assures the people whom he keeps waiting for their Government dues.

The Tin-Plate Consumers' Association now numbers 256 business firms and corporations, representing probably five hundred times as much capital as all the tin-plate makers in the United States. The first name in the list is Armour & Co., Chicago. It would be safe to say that this firm alone could buy out all the tin-plate establishments in the country without being seriously discommoded. It is safe to say, also, that the number of hands employed by the 256 members of the Association is as largely in excess of those

employed in the tin-plate industry as their capital is larger. These men say that they desire to treat the tin-plate question as a question of business, and not of politics. They say also that, as a matter of business, they have paid ten million dollars *more* than was necessary for tin plates used in their trades since the McKinley Bill was passed. They add that not one sheet of coke tin, which comprises over one-half of this country's requirements, has yet been made here, and that the present output of all kinds of tin plate does not constitute one per cent. of our entire consumption. We trust that the new Committee on Ways and Means will likewise treat the tin-plate question as a question of business and not of politics, and to this end will promptly send to the Senate a bill putting back the duty where it was before it was McKinleyed. Then let the Senate treat it as a matter of business also, and concur with the House. Then the Tin-Plate Consumers' Association will quietly disband, and its members can resume their disturbed relations with the Republican party. There is nothing like taking a business view of it.

An effort is making to secure better pay for the men employed in the life-saving service. They now receive but $40 per month, and that only for the eight months they are employed, while they are, of course, at a disadvantage in securing remunerative work for the other four months. They are obliged to provide their uniforms, as well as their underclothing, heavy coats, rubber boots, and tarpaulins, which must be of good quality and therefore must cost not a small sum. They are exposed to all sorts of weather when on shore duty, and to the peril of their lives in case their assistance is needed by vessels in distress. The record of the service is in every way most creditable—an almost unbroken story of the faithful performance of routine duty, interspersed at frequent intervals with displays of wonderful heroism. A bill has been introduced increasing the rate of pay to $75 per month, and there ought to be no question of its passage. The country favors economical appropriations, but it does not want to stint a class of its employees which includes so many heroes.

The London *Times* of December 14 gives the particulars of the embarrassment of the Portsea (Eng.) Building Society, briefly reported by cable. This Society was a coöperative concern, whose principal supporters were naval officers, pensioners, and the most thrifty class of workingmen. It was established as long ago as 1846, and had loaned to its members about $6,250,000. By the November statement the liabilities were £717,834 and the assets £738,444. The trouble was caused by rumors of bad management, followed by a "run" of members who wanted to withdraw their deposits. As an association of this kind keeps the largest part of its deposits loaned out to members, the directors decided to announce a suspension of business in order to see where they stood. Now it comes out that the failure is the old story again of directors who do not direct. These officers had allowed the Secretary, who had held the office for a long term of years, to manage the Society practically by himself, and when they looked into his accounts they discovered that £31,399 had been loaned by him without mortgage securities, and a large part of this to persons who were not members of the Society. This could not have been done had not the officers of the Society allowed it to branch out into a deposit and banking business. The building-and-loan-association form of coöperation is doubtless the safest coöperative scheme that has been devised. But when it is allowed to depart from its proper field of operations, it is certain to come to grief. In this country the State laws on the subject do not, we think, permit mismanagement of this sort, but they cannot guarantee security where, as in a recent Brooklyn case, the directors place the certain control of an association in one man's hands.

A great sensation has been produced in Germany by an article of Prof. Delbrück, in his monthly, the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, which criticises very sharply the inscription made by the Emperor in the Munich 'Golden Book'—"Suprema Lex, Regis Voluntas." The Professor is a Conservative, and was at one time tutor to the Emperor's brother, Prince Waldemar, so his words have great weight when he says:

> "The press points to the Constitution, asking, Where are the Constitutional Ministers? and storms at Byzantinism. The officials whisper to one another, with gloomy looks and sharp remarks. The professors weave into their lectures observations relating to public law, such as that the Germans had always a monarchy, but not an unlimited one. The clergy took the opportunity of preaching last Sunday on the text that the highest law was God's will. Even the semi-official papers are at a loss for excuses, which proves that at the bottom of their hearts they think the same. But why this storm—as it only has to do with a word, with nothing concrete, no intention, no plan, no symptom which might let us expect something new? We won't hesitate to say straight out that the excitement is so great because of an already existing feeling waiting for expression. This chance word is regarded only as an exposition of a subjective monarchical will which people are prepared to meet with resistance. In this lies a danger for the future which cannot be regarded too seriously."

This is extremely strong talk, but even stronger will probably be heard if there should be many more imperial vagaries. The Emperor's speech to the recruits informing them that they belonged to him "body and soul," and that he might have to call on them to kill their parents, was in the same vein, and, of course, hurts German pride, and raises the question in many minds whether anybody holding such views of kingly prerogative is fit to reign in a constitutional monarchy.

The Emperor, however, is probably safe in displaying his absolutism as long as the Franco-Russian cloud is on the horizon. In their present condition between France and Russia, the Germans cannot afford any contention with the commander of the army; and unless he loses his head altogether, William will probably be allowed to play a great many pranks in civil life as long as he keeps the military forces in a good state of preparation. The German correspondent of an occasionally esteemed contemporary, writing from Heidelberg, says this phrase, "Suprema lex, regis voluntas," is "a disfigurement of the old Roman phrase, 'Suprema lex, salus republicæ'"; but it is much more likely to be a slight adaptation to modern ideas by the Emperor himself of that maxim of the later Roman lawyers which runs: "Quod principi placuit legis habet vigorem"—"The Emperor's will has the force of law."

The refusal of the Queensland Parliament to vote a grant of money to the Nordenskjöld expedition to the south polar regions probably puts an end to another of the several Antarctic enterprises which have been projected during the last few years. Half a century has now passed since Sir James Ross, the last as he was the greatest of Antarctic explorers, unfolded some of the mysteries of the south polar ice-cap, discovered the volcanoes Erebus and Terror, and skirted for several hundred miles the shores of the great glacial continent. To the Arctic region, on the contrary, during the half-century, there have been probably not fewer than a score of expeditions, several of them attended by terrible loss of life and suffering; and at the present time Peary is wintering on the Greenland west coast, and Nansen is preparing for his perilous and rash "drift voyage" from the north coast of Siberia across the Arctic Sea. In the north polar regions, about the only realms now left for new discovery are the north points of Greenland, the scientific investigation of the Humboldt glacier, the outlining of the upper Greenland coasts, and a few facts relating to the ice-cap supplementary to those of Nansen during his transit of that country; while at the south the great polar continent yet remains to be delimited, its ice barrier possibly scaled, and its internal features sketched out. The proposal, at one or two commercial centres of Europe, to send whaling ships to the Antarctic Sea has also its flavor of utility and of profit in the exploration of that still mystic region. Assuming, what we are very far from asserting, that these dangerous polar voyages of exploration are justified, the reason why the Arctic region has still such superior magnetism for explorers remains a deep enigma, whether the subject is regarded from its common point of view of "pure science," or from that of its much more hypothetical utilities.

THE MORAL OF ELKINS.

No enemy of the spoils system—meaning by that the system of paying political debts by the bestowal of offices, without regard to the fitness of the payee—could desire a better illustration of the disadvantages and dangers of the system than the sending of Egan to represent us in Chili. We have never been able to extract from any organ of the Administration a single proper reason for his selection for this post. These organs maintain dead silence on that point. Of course, it was to Chili something in the nature of an insult to impose on her as American Minister a foreign fugitive. She might very properly have resented this by refusing to receive him. But she was naturally anxious not to get into unpleasant relations with a powerful neighbor, so she did receive him without a murmur. What made her action all the more conciliatory was that Egan was the second Irish politician she had been made to endure as American Envoy. Mr. Cleveland sent a Mr. Roberts, who was known here only as a Fenian, or some species of Irish malcontent, for, we suppose, the same reason—a desire to pay for Irish support; and Balmaceda, when he heard Egan was coming, is said to have asked, with some pathos, why Chili was specially selected to clear off the Irish debts of both American political parties.

The case of Roberts, however, excited little or no notice, because there was no trouble in Chili during his residence there. President Harrison was doubtless encouraged by this precedent when he sent Egan. If there has been no complaint about Roberts, said he to himself, so there will be none about Egan. And there would have been none but for the outbreak of the civil war. This at once called for the presence at Santiago of an American of high character, and of long experience in law and diplomacy, and thus immediately laid bare the rottenness of our present system of appointments in the diplomatic service. All such appointments, or all except that to London, are made on the assumption that our representatives abroad will have nothing to do; but whenever the assumption fails, it is apt to fail terribly, and we become objects of ridicule to the civilized world. The diplomatic agent of a great nation is very like the Texan's pistol, which, he said, he did not want once in six months, but when he wanted it he wanted it "mighty bad."

The truth is, that, with our rapidly extending foreign trade and our rapidly multiplying points of contact with foreign nations, the diplomatic service ought to be put on precisely the same footing, as regards efficiency, as the army and navy. We may not need the services of either once in half a century, but they are both organized and maintained on the theory that we may need their services at any moment. Every regiment and every ship is and has to be armed, drilled and disciplined, and officered as if war might break out next week. So, also, every one of our leading foreign Ministers ought to be selected on the assumption that serious crises may occur at any moment in the capital to which he is to be accredited.

All this admits of easy application to Elkins's induction into the War Department. This appointment has probably been made, like Wanamaker's, either for money had and received, or for money *in transitu*—that is, for some kind of service capable of being estimated in dollars and cents. The question of his fitness has probably not entered into consideration in selecting him, in the smallest degree. Moreover, he may stay in the office until the close of President Harrison's term without the smallest scandal or disturbance. The temptations which will assail him may be, from first to last, far below his figure—to use an arithmetical illustration—but one may come any day high enough to carry him off his feet, and we shall then have a scandal.

Places like the War Department have, in fact, to be filled on precisely the same theory of probabilities as places in business houses. All private business is managed on the assumption that any man may forge or steal, but that in selecting a particular man for a place of responsibility this probability must be reduced to its lowest terms by his character as proved and illustrated by his previous life. A notorious burglar *might* act as the president of a bank with complete probity for many years, but the probabilities, as ascertained by his antecedents, that he would not do so, would be so strong that stockholders or directors who put him in any such place would be looked on as insane.

The War Department is not a great place for a man like Mr. Endicott or Mr. Proctor, who desires nothing but to see that the small military affairs of the nation are honestly and efficiently managed. It does not present temptations of any kind which such men find the smallest difficulty in resisting; and even such men as Mr. Elkins may administer it for two years without calling forth either notice or censure. But anybody who *expects* a man of his tastes, tendencies, and antecedents to treat the place as a humdrum routine of commonplace duties, is guilty of the same disregard of probabilities that would be shown by a business man who hired a cashier without a reference. A man of Elkins's restless temperament and great energy and activity, in all of which he resembles closely his friend—quondam friend, it is now said—Mr. Blaine, is very likely to see numerous channels in which he can be useful, and to chafe under the position of a deadhead in any attractive enterprise. The casting of "anchors to windward" is not a military figure, but a soldier can always "hold the fort" till the siege is raised, mine the enemy's works, or communicate with friends outside by signal lights on the battlements, or by carrier pigeons.

A BEGINNING FOR TARIFF REFORM.

THE *Dry Goods Economist* considers that the time has come for the removal of all duties on wool, or, at all events, for the reduction of them to a nominal rate. "When such domestic consumers," it says, "as Glover Sanford & Sons of Bridgeport, the largest exclusive wool-hat manufacturers in the country, shut down and discharge four hundred hands because they can no longer obtain the foreign wools necessary for mixing with the native staple, and when hundreds of other manufacturers using blends of wool find themselves crippled and restricted to a greater or less extent by the same cause, the most inveterate advocate of high wool duties has to stop and think whether the policy successfully embodied in the McKinley Bill is, after all, best for American wool. And the more such men think, and the more the farmers think and investigate for themselves, the more clearly will they see that their true course is to remove all embargo from the coöperative, not competitive, foreign wools."

The article in the *Economist* probably reflects the mature opinion of the dealers in woollen goods, both foreign and domestic, unbiassed by political considerations. The agitation that has been going on in New England for four or five years points to the same conclusion. The magnitude of the interests involved gives to the wool problem a unique and special interest, and singles it out for special and early treatment by the new Committee of Ways and Means. If the policy of dealing with the tariff by special groups of articles instead of by the general bill is adopted, then it would seem best to begin with a measure of really commanding interest and importance, such as the clothing of the whole people. A bill dealing with the duties on wool and woollens could not be considered a trifling matter. It could not be "whistled down the wind." Nor could the Republican politicians say that it is impolitic to take up one branch of the tariff question alone to the exclusion of others, since they set the example with the very same article of wool in the famous act of 1867.

It should be borne in mind that by the tariff of 1857 all wools costing twenty cents or less per pound at the port of shipment were admitted free of duty. These were nearly all the wools in existence. We had practically free wool until the war tariff was adopted in 1861. Then a moderate revenue duty of 5 per cent. was put on those wools and a little higher rate on washed wools. These were purely revenue duties. In 1864 they were slightly increased with the duties on other articles, but still for revenue purposes only. It was not until 1867, the war having been ended two years, that high duties were put on wool for the express purpose of protection, and in this case the subject was taken up separate and apart from everything else. By this bill the duties on wool of the kind most largely

used were raised from 6 cents per pound to 10 cents per pound *and* 11 per cent. ad valorem. This was an increase of about 100 per cent. in the rate of duty. The duties on woollen goods were increased correspondingly on the principle of "compensation." It was assumed that four pounds of wool were required to make one pound of cloth. So the specific duty on wool was multiplied by four, and this, together with the new ad-valorem duty on wool, was added to the duty on woollens, the whole making one of the most disgraceful and disastrous chapters in American fiscal history.

The consequence of the new departure in wool tariffs is well known. Both wool-growers and woollen manufacturers entered upon one of the most gloomy periods that their respective industries ever saw in this country. The price of domestic wool declined to such an extent that millions of sheep were slaughtered. Mr. Allison of Iowa made a speech in the House in which he gave statistics to show that wool-growing had been practically brought to an end in his State by the tariff of 1867. After five years' experience of this tariff, the Bulletin of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers said: "There is one thing that all who are interested in the manufacture will agree to, that for the last five years the business in the aggregate has been depressed, that the profits made during the war have been exhausted mainly, and that it has been extremely difficult during all this time to buy wool and manufacture it into goods and get a new dollar for an old one." The policy which dictated the disastrous tariff of 1867 is still in force, somewhat intensified by the McKinley Bill of 1890, and now the crazy men who carried that measure through Congress are clamoring for a bill to exclude all foreign wools from the United States, of every name and description. We hope that the fighting will be forced upon them by a bill making all wools free of duty at an early day. There is no better place for tariff reform to begin.

LOTTERY EVILS AND METHODS.

A VERY clear insight into the questions at issue in the lottery struggle which is in progress in Louisiana is furnished by two articles in the January *Forum*. The writers in both instances are men of high character, residents of the State, and early leaders in the organized movement against the lottery. They speak with an authority and from a fulness of knowledge which makes their utterances of great value to all persons who wish to obtain a clear conception of the struggle which is to be decided at the polls in April next. The writer of the first article is Judge Frank McGloin of the Louisiana Court of Appeals, and the writer of the second is John C. Wickliffe, the editor of the *New Delta* newspaper, which was established a year ago in New Orleans to furnish the anti-lottery movement with an organ in the press, all the existing journals being completely in the lottery's interest.

Judge McGloin recalls the fact that the State owes the existence of the lottery evil at the present time to the carpet-bag régime, which, with H. C. Warmoth in the Governor's chair, had possession of the State in 1868, when the new charter was passed. Warmoth did not sign the charter, but neither did he veto it, allowing it to become a law without his signature. He is now opposing the proposed constitutional amendment rechartering it for twenty-five years, and, in his capacity as Collector of the Port of New Orleans, to which place President Harrison appointed him, is leading the anti-lottery wing of the Republican party, while some of his old carpet-bag associates are leading the other wing, and P. B. S. Pinchback, of Returning-Board fame, is one of the lottery magnates. Warmoth's present course is not looked upon without suspicion, for he is the natural ally of the lottery, and, while making the most vehement protests of hostility to it, may be working secretly in its interest.

The most interesting portion of Judge McGloin's article is the estimate which he makes of the lottery's profits. He declares that the terms of the company's advertisements show that "its dealings with its patrons have all along been conducted upon lines of absolute robbery." He says that the ordinary gambler is content with 15 per cent. of the stakes won by players in his establishment, but that the lottery gamblers take at least 47 per cent. He shows that the face value of the tickets which the company sells for its twelve monthly drawings is $28,000,000, and that the total of all its prizes is less than $15,000,000, leaving the company a profit of $13,000,000. He makes a very strong point on the fiscal policy of the State in allowing the company to conduct the lottery business in the State's name at such a profit, declaring that if the State is going into the gambling business, with all the odium attached, it ought to insist upon the lion's share of the profits for itself. He shows that the State does not even invite rival bids for so valuable a charter, and that when a gambler in Europe telegraphed voluntarily a bid for the new charter which was a quarter of a million dollars greater than the company's bid, the company at once raised its bid by that amount, and hurried the charter through the Legislature before other rivals could appear.

Concerning the effect of the lottery upon the morals of the people, the Judge speaks with great earnestness. "What sort of political economy is it," he asks, "which boldly counteracts the teaching of our firesides, that gambling is a vice to be abominated and shunned? How shall the rising generations be induced to contemn and fear this most insidious of temptations, when the State holds it constantly before them as the one great benefactor of the Commonwealth? How shall our children despise the gambler who is providing for their education, rearing the levees which keep out the floods, and supporting hospitals and asylums for orphans and the insane?" He adds that visible evidences of the demoralization already accomplished are plentiful:

> "Already our servant girls are becoming in considerable numbers practised and habitual thieves, putting our market-baskets under daily toll for lottery money. The number of defalcations large and petty is multiplying. The number of lottery offices has multiplied, and the roll of their habitual customers is growing steadily. Saddest of all, this roll numbers a multitude of women and of children, the latter including those of tender years. Your lottery-vender has no compunctions, nothing in the shape of commiseration. He will hand out the ticket to the poor starved woman, though he must guess that the twenty-five cents handed to him in return is taken from the scanty table of herself and children. He will write out the combination for the servant girl, though he be aware that the nickels she hands him are filched from the money intrusted to her for the purchase of food for her employer."

That the company has carried its points almost or quite uniformly by means of bribery, nobody who has watched the progress of legislation in its interest can have any doubt. The difficulty has been to obtain proof. Mr. Wickliffe gives two instances in which circumstantial evidence of indubitable character came to light in a somewhat dramatic manner:

> "Just after the adjournment of the Legislature which passed the Lottery Bill in July, 1890, one of the Senators, who had been an anti-lottery man, and who was the last man converted to the lottery side, died at the Hôtel Dieu in this city. He was a man who never had a dollar in his life. He was one of those men whom you have sometimes met that were born about $1,000 behindhand and who never caught up. He was deeply in debt, and had been so ever since he was a man. From his dead body was taken a money-belt which contained $18,000 in one-thousand-dollar bills, all new. Another, also, a member of the House, who was the same sort of a man, died very soon after the adjournment, and a large sum of money was found in his possession also."

Whenever a case gets into court, the assailants of the company are either induced to settle out of court, or the officers of the company refuse to obey the subpœna of the court, and flee beyond the court's jurisdiction until the case has been dismissed on a *nolle prosequi*. The company "has dozens of men who have been and are in public life upon its pay-roll, giving them stipulated sums per annum for services heretofore rendered. Those it can buy it buys; and those it cannot buy it seeks to destroy. It has no politics and knows no party. It numbers among its servants Democrats and Republicans. It has traded with all parties and has supported all parties." It is not difficult to understand, in view of these statements, why it is that all parties are so split up upon the lottery issue, for the greater the general confusion, and the larger the number of opposing candidates in the election, the greater will be the chances for lottery corruption to win in the end.

TALLEYRAND'S MEMOIRS.—VI.*

PARIS, December 10, 1891.

THE fourth volume of the Memoirs of Talleyrand is a collection of diplomatic documents, tied together by commentaries which have lost much of their interest at this distance from the events. They relate wholly to the London Conference which followed the Revolution of 1830, and which had for its object the settlement of the affairs of Belgium.

In the month of January, 1831, when the volume begins, the King of the Netherlands had accepted the principle of the independence of Belgium, but his conditions as to the delimitation of the new kingdom and the partition of the debt were found unacceptable. The Conference had, besides, a great problem to solve in the choice of a sovereign for the new kingdom. Hostilities were only suspended between Belgium and the Netherlands: Antwerp was blockaded, and the commerce of the Scheldt was interrupted; the Belgians, in their turn, blockaded Maestricht. Talleyrand had a very happy inspiration: at a moment when all seemed still uncertain, and when the various Powers represented at the Conference had very different hopes and aspirations, he contrived to unite them in a declaration of the neutrality of the future kingdom of Belgium. Article 5 of the protocol of the 20th of January, which he proposed, and which was unanimously accepted, declared that "Belgium, in the limits which will be traced in conformity with the basis of articles 1, 2, and 4 of the present protocol, shall form a State perpetually neutral. The five Powers guarantee it this neutrality, as well as the integrity and inviolability of the limits above mentioned."

This was a great diplomatic victory, and Europe still profits by it. During the war of 1870, Belgium remained neutral and inviolate. She is now building powerful forts in the valley of the Meuse, but these are merely the defence of her neutrality. King Leopold changed Antwerp into an entrenched camp; he thought that Belgium was not able to defend her territory against a large invading army, but she could shut up her own army in the entrenched camp of Antwerp, where it could wait for an English army of succor arriving by the Scheldt. Leopold always considered that England was bound to help Belgium without a moment's hesitation. The entrenched camp of Antwerp has lost much of its value, as it was built at a time when artillery had made little progress; it would now have to be armed with new forts, with cupolas; but the attention of the Belgian military authorities is directed at present more to the Meuse than to the Scheldt, for reasons which will be easily understood.

Let us return to the London Conference. Talleyrand was proud, and justly proud, of his achievements in this question of Belgian neutrality. He wrote to Gen. Sebastiani: "The recognized neutrality of Belgium places that country in the same position with Switzerland, and upsets, in consequence, the political system adopted in 1815 by the Powers—a system inspired by hatred of France. The thirteen fortresses of Belgium which constantly threatened our northern frontier, fall, so to speak, in consequence of this resolution." Talleyrand was very desirous that the Duchy of Luxembourg should enter the neutral zone; he fought on this point "like a lion" (despatch of Lord Palmerston to Lord Granville), but he could not carry it, as the Duchy belonged to an independent sovereign and to the German Confederation.

Talleyrand had the habit of forming for himself a diplomatic plan which he followed through the fluctuations of the negotiations without ever losing sight of certain main points. He never told all at once whither he was tending, but he knew whither. He had a sort of curious pliability as to forms, and great resolution as to the end. In the Belgian affair, which was for two years a sort of Gordian knot and the centre of the whole European policy, he made up his mind from the beginning, with his great foresight and good sense, on a certain number of points. He understood at once that, if France annexed Belgium to its own territory, or even if France gave to Belgium as its sovereign a son of Louis Philippe, there would be a general war, and such a war in 1831 or 1832, with the hostility of the great Powers to the new King of France, whom they considered as an usurper, could end only in the invasion of France and in great disasters. He was convinced that all the efforts of the Powers could never bring the Belgians to accept as their new King a Prince of Orange; he therefore chose from the beginning in his own mind as his candidate Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, and he saw in this choice many advantages: he knew the Prince to be an able man, he knew that he would be the English candidate, and he needed the support of England in the Conference. He was very favorable to an *entente cordiale* between the new Constitutional Government of France and England. He was determined, at the same time, not to allow England to gain a footing in the Low Countries, not to have a sort of *tête de pont* on the Continent. "History," says he in one of his letters, "shows the difficulties which followed the occupation of Calais by the English, and also what favor was bestowed on Guise after he had delivered France from this shame. The lessons ought not to be lost upon us." This was written at a moment when it had been suggested that Antwerp might be declared a free town, like the Hanseatic towns; Talleyrand always insisted that Antwerp should be a Belgian town, and should belong to the new kingdom.

There was so much wisdom in his views, and Talleyrand understood so well the sentiments of the great Powers—how to set one over against another, how to use their jealousies and their apprehensions—that he soon became a sort of arbiter at the Conference. He had become a lion in society; all society was at the feet of the old statesman, who had seen so many men and things. We see him as he was then in a portrait which forms the frontispiece of the present volume—how different from the young Abbé de Périgord of the first volume; how grave and solemn now, with a long wig falling on his neck, his chin supported by and almost concealed in a necktie; his eyelid drooping over the inquisitive eye; his lips compressed. Talleyrand had to sit many times for his portrait. Lord Holland would have one, which was long to be seen at Holland House, and which was painted by Ary Scheffer. This is now in the collection of the Duc d'Aumale, Lord Holland having left it to the Duke in his will. It resembles very much the engraving which is in the fourth volume of the Memoirs.

Talleyrand had special difficulties during his mission to Brussels. Officially he had to deal only with the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, but the Parliamentary position was very unstable: there was no strong Cabinet, and the Ministers had no *lendemain*. He really could speak his inner thoughts only to the King, and Louis Philippe was in perfect harmony with him. Talleyrand was afraid of being accused of being in direct communication with him over the heads of the Ministers; he found an intelligent and safe go-between in Mme. Adelaide, the King's sister, who had a manly character and a manly intellect—a little too ardent at times—absolutely devoted to her brother, his best adviser and counsellor to the end; a princess imbued with the ideas of modern France, whose life has still to be written. The letters of Talleyrand to Mme. Adelaide are among the best in the volume; they are evidently Talleyrand's personal work, and have not been prepared or written by secretaries. He always calls her Mademoiselle, the name given under the old régime to the unmarried sister of the sovereign. They are written in the style which was current before the great Revolution, with all the delicacies of language of a gentleman and a little touch of personal sentiment. The Duc de Dalberg, a personal friend of Talleyrand's, kept him well informed on all the events in Paris; his letters are sensational and amusing, but do not show much political wisdom. He belonged to the class of *nouvellistes* whom La Bruyère had already painted—men who begin every conversation with the words, "Is there anything new?" and who make news when there is none. He was also a political Cassandra, for ever predicting catastrophes, and complaining of everything and everybody.

Though Talleyrand contributed powerfully to the creation of the kingdom of Belgium, assured its neutrality, and helped to choose its dynasty, he never really believed much in his own creation. In a confidential letter to Mme. Adelaide he says: "There is no good *point d'appui* to be found in people as light-headed and turbulent as the Belgians. Belgium will perhaps come to us, but that will be later; to-day it is a secondary interest. The *force des choses* draws her to France, but we must first make France, and France can be made well and surely only by mingling with the great Powers which to-day claim her society, for this is what I have done in London. Do not let us abandon this position." I have seen other letters still unpublished, in which the same idea is visible, the feeling that there was no such thing as a Belgian nation, no such country as Belgium, and that the provinces which called themselves Belgium would sooner or later, by the law of gravitation, fall into the sphere of influence of France, and finally be annexed to it. Sixty years have now passed since Talleyrand entertained these views, which, of course, he never produced officially, and Belgium has not justified his prophecy. The Belgians have really developed into a nation; they have made no revolution; they have remained faithful to the Coburg dynasty. During the same period the French have changed their government four times. What would have happened if they had not, can only be conjectured.

There are interesting details in this fourth volume on the parliamentary incidents which accompanied the introduction of the Reform Bill in England. Talleyrand was thoroughly acquainted with English society, and though he speaks of English affairs only in connection with his own objects, he enters here and there into details which have a general interest. The volume ends with the marriage of Prince Leopold to a daughter of Louis Philippe, Princess Louise. Thus all the conflicting interests seemed to be reconciled, and for a moment (but only for a moment) the famous words of Voltaire's 'Candide' might have been repeated: "Tout

*Memoirs of the Prince du Talleyrand. Edited by the Duc de Broglie. Translated by Mrs. Angus Hall. Vol. iv. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

est pour le mieux dans le meilleur des mondes possible."

ITALIAN WINE-MAKING.

MARSALA, December 6, 1891.

AMERICANS visiting Palermo for the Exposition cannot do better, if interested in vine-culture and wine-manufacturing, than take a train for Marsala and spend a few days in the province of Trapani in order to understand the entire history of the bright, clear, topaz-colored "Marsala" from its birth to its consumption on their own tables. It is a curious fact that in this province, where wine abounds, where every peasant and laborer drinks one or two glasses twice per day, you never meet a drunken person. All the prefects who come from other parts of Italy, the syndics, the employers of labor, bear testimony to the total absence of drunkenness; nor do the statistics which register but too many "crimes of bloodshed" show that any of these crimes have been committed under the influence of drink. Once this was the proud boast of all Italian provinces, and is recorded by T. A. Trollope, who spent more than forty years in Italy; but since the failure of the vintages, one year after another, and the substitution, by speculators, unchecked by Government, of villanous compounds of spirit distilled from maize, potatoes, etc., to which sugar and coloring matter, often poisonous, are added, and which are sold for wine, northern villages and towns are sadly deteriorated in this respect, and from Saturday night to Monday morning the streets resound with drunken cries and songs; while *there* most of the crimes on record are committed "under the influence of drink."

Sicily, once the granary of the Romans, has been for many years unable to compete with America and Russia in wheat. Once the largest cultivator of tobacco, the Sicilians have ploughed up their plantations since the Italian Government, extending its monopoly to the island, rendered its culture unprofitable and irksome, owing to the fiscal regulations introduced. Then, with the vine disease in France, came large demands for Sicilian wines, less for actual consumption than for the manufacture of French wines made from the juice of the Italian grape. Hence, wheat fields, sumach plantations, and, alas, olive, lemon, and orange groves, were ploughed up, and in five years the amount of land laid out in vineyards was nearly doubled. One-tenth of the entire island is vineland; of the Province of Palermo, one-sixth; probably one-fourth of the Commune of Marsala is devoted to the culture of vines. Indeed, the whole of the flat, stony country is honeycombed with vineyards, the vines being planted about a metre and a half apart, at right angles, each vine being in the centre of the hollow; the soil hoed four or five times a year, so as to keep the roots free of weeds, and so placed as to catch all the moisture of dew and rainfalls, exposed at the same time to the scorching sun rays of the summer months preceding the vintage. Here peasant proprietors are very numerous, as the capital required is not large. A peasant can build his own house cheap with the sandstone of the country—square stone buildings of one story, with slanting roofs, one, two, or three rooms sufficing, according to the size of the family. In the same room you see the *palmento*, or wine-press, one or two metres high, paved with brick or stone, with a clay pipe inserted in a hole for the must to run into the vats; on the opposite side of the room, the *torchio*, or squeezer, where the husks, put into rough rush baskets, are piled and squeezed; then the remainder are dried and sold for the extraction of cream of tartar. This is the home of the poorest peasantry; the men sleep in one room, the women in another; all live exclusively on the produce of the vineyard, so that the price of the must is the great question of the year.

In larger vine-farms the *palmento* is in the courtyard, and the pipe leads off the must into the cellars. The process is still very primitive. The wine-maker steps into the press with thick, heavy, hobnailed boots, holding a stick wherewith to balance himself, and treads out the juice till no more can be expressed. This first must is kept separate from the remainder obtained by the crusher, as the latter is not approved of by the tasters and purchasers, who detect it at once. It is while the grape-treading goes on that the peasant adds the *gesso*, or sulphate of lime, about which there is such a hue and cry just now, and which is forbidden by law save to the extent of two per thousand. It has been used from time immemorial to prevent the wine from turning acid in the fermentation. *Falstaff* in "Henry IV." exclaims: "You rogue, there is lime in this sack, too." The manufacturers of Marsala say that some difference ought to be allowed for their strong wines in comparison with the weaker wines of continental Italy, and are already complaining that the enforced absence of *gesso* detracts from the preservation of the must. It is certainly the only extraneous matter introduced into Sicilian wines, as the abundance is such that the country people never make the second wine, as in the north, by the addition of water and sugar. Indeed, since the decreased exportation, owing partly to the rupture of commercial relations with France, and partly, nay, chiefly, to the fact that the French have conquered the vine diseases and replanted their vineyards, there is often more wine than receptacles to hold it. As a rule, the small producers sell their wine when it is a few days old to the large wine-manufacturers, of which the chief in Marsala are the well-known firms of Whitehouse, Ingham Whitaker, and Florio, who, according to their own special receipts, make the wine known as Marsala under different names.

To John Woodhouse, the son of a Liverpool merchant, belongs the merit of the first *baglio*, or wine factory, at Marsala, which he established in 1773, sending to England in the following year sixty barrels of wine. During Nelson's command of the fleet, Woodhouse was his wine-purveyor, supplying the fleet in 1800 with 2,000 hectolitres of Marsala at one time. All the documents are carefully preserved in the archives of the house, and there is posted up the original contract between the Right Hon. Rear-Admiral Horatio Lord Nelson, K.B., Duke of Bronte in Sicily, with John and William Woodhouse, merchants of Marsala, 19th March, 1800, to furnish his Majesty's ships off Malta with five hundred pipes of the best Marsala wine. To this there is a postscript in Nelson's own hand: "The wine shall be delivered as expeditiously as possible, and also to be delivered within the space of five weeks from this date; a convoy will be wanted for the vessel from Marsala, but all risks are to be run by Messrs. Woodhouse. *Bronte Nelson.*"

The success of the Woodhouses soon attracted another Englishman to Marsala, and Benjamin Ingham of York soon vied with his rival, devoting the greatest attention to the amelioration of the manufacture of wine. Reading his rules to-day, we can only wish that they were applied rigorously to all wine-manufactories throughout Italy. They are strictly adhered to by all the great manufacturers of Marsala wine, but, alas, too much neglected by the small producers, who do not take any care about the cleanliness of their vessels, nor attend to the very necessary caution of propping up the branches of the vines when the grapes are ripening, so as to avoid the earthy taste of the wine.

Benjamin Ingham was the first to initiate the wine trade with the United States, Brazil, and transatlantic regions in general. He it was, also, who first noted the praiseworthy efforts of Vincenzo Florio, now a name of world-wide renown, and here called the "Father of Sicilian commerce." So far from showing any jealousy, Ingham joined with him in the attempt to create a navigation company, now the hope and pride of Sicily. Vincenzo Florio, nothing daunted by the old-established manufactories or *baglios* flourishing at Marsala, pitched his tent in the midst, *i. e.*, built his *baglio* precisely between those of Woodhouse and Ingham. And to-day, as I write from the terrace of the *baglio* Ingham Whitaker, side by side with that of Florio, now the property of the grandson millionaire, and can see the Woodhouse establishment beyond, a fresh proof of the affinity between the Italian and Anglo-Saxon natures is afforded. These three houses are rivals; each desires that his special Marsala shall supply native and foreign markets; yet there are no petty squabbles, no tricky manœuvres to undersell each other, and in all that relates to the workmen, who are well paid and cared for, to the fixing of the price of must, to the benefit of Marsala, the three firms work hand in hand. Not long since they spent 50,000 lire in paving the chief street of Marsala, subscribing in equal portions. Many foreigners who come to Marsala to buy the "virgin wine" complain that these big *baglios* put the prices too high, and that, but for the three managers of Ingham Whitaker, Florio, and Woodhouse, they would be able to purchase from the vine growers at far lower prices. This is one of the beneficial effects of the harmony reigning between the English and Italian houses. The price of "natural" wine has fallen off fearfully since 1884. At times it has been as high as 130 lire; last year it fell to 50 lire per butt of four hectolitres; this year it is fixed at 55 lire. The three managers meet and agree to what will be a fair price, and below that no one is able to go. If these big purchasers undersold or rather underbought each other, the poor vine-growers would be reduced to the pitiful state of the proprietors of the wine district of the Puglie, who, with some fifty millions of new wine in their vats, have to sell it at 20 and 30 lire per butt, and think themselves lucky if they find a market at that price.

These big *baglios*, with Giacone Anselmi and a few other smaller ones, have more or less the same system of making their wine. It is a far more difficult and delicate process than is generally imagined. That cleanliness is next to godliness is the rule of all, though in northern Italy the idea has taken root that fermentation removes all impurities, and that you may trust to the pouring must into a barrel to remove all foulness. All the cooperage is done in the establishments, the American white oak being now used exclusively. It is imported in staves, while the iron hoops are imported from Liverpool. The chestnut from the forests of the Apennines is the only Italian wood that can compete with it for tastelessness and durability.

Some of the grapes are grown on the estates of the three firms; many more purchased. The chief object of this is to obtain the first must, which, as soon as it is expressed from the grapes, is carried to immense copper cauldrons, well tinned, and there heated artificially till the must in three cauldrons is reduced to the capacity of one, and becomes a thick, clear syrup, sweet and bright. The Marsala as we know it is a composition of old wine, of which the *baglios* have each a separate store kept in enormous casks, never full to the brim lest the wine should lose its bouquet. Some of these wines are fifty-five years old, and as this is taken out for use the casks are replenished with wine never less than six years old. With the old wine is mixed the newer growths, and, according to the tastes of the various markets, more or less of the sweet liquor is added, more or less alcohol, which is entirely distilled from wine on the premises. In olden times much of the spirit was purchased from abroad, but since the imposition of enormous duties to the amount of three times the value of the spirit, the manufacturers find it safer and cheaper to distil their own. This also is heavily taxed, but not in so high a proportion. For the wine exported the tax is refunded, and here the English houses have the advantage, as most of their wines go abroad, whereas that of Florio, which is most popular in Italy, gets a drawback of only 20 or 30 per cent. on home-manufactured alcohol. The manufacture of Italian brandy is now begun by this enterprising Florio firm, so that pure brandy will soon be obtainable in Italy in place of the poisonous stuff now sold as French brandy. This will be made exclusively from wine distilled on the premises. It is not yet on sale, as the firm determined not to put any in the market under three years old, but it will doubtless oust French productions from the Italian markets.

The Ingham Whitaker firm is now composed of the three grandnephews of old Benjamin Ingham, and they may almost be considered Italians, as they reside in Palermo, where they have done much for the country of their adoption by setting on foot infant schools, and the *Educatorio Whitaker* for the training of Sicilian school-mistresses for infant and elementary schools. The present manager is Mr. Charles Forsyth Gray, British Vice-Consul, from whom I obtained a real insight into the system of manufacture. Perhaps one of the greatest arts of the trade is the faculty of tasting the wines at the various country vineyards. This once done by the manager in person, the firm sends its own casks to receive the wine, the firms often advance money to wine-growers in order to help them, and buyers and sellers are on most excellent terms. Apart from this Marsala manufacture, a new attempt is being made by small Italian firms to sell the natural wines of the year—the *vin di taglio*, as they are called. The French say that they no longer need Italian wine, but that they buy it under the rose is pretty well ascertained. A number of Swiss came over with the intention of setting up an establishment, but found it easier and cheaper to purchase from a firm which hitherto had dealt only in *vin di concio*. Lipari & Co. agreed to furnish pure Sicilian wine of the year at moderate prices, and they have already shipped thirty thousand hectolitres to Marseilles, whence it is *supposed* to pass to Switzerland. If this traffic increases, it will be of immense importance to the vine-growers who have abandoned, as was said, their old crops for this almost too exclusive culture of the vine. I am speaking now exclusively of Marsala, where these *baglios* form a distinctive feature in the landscape. All are huge edifices, situated on the sea with quays and wharfs in front; they are well secured by walls and gates, the outside walls loopholed, with towers at the corners well able to defend the enormous amount of wine in the magazines, valued in each at from $2,500,000 to $3,000,000. Until the last fifteen years the defence was sorely needed.

I have just had a last look at the Woodhouse stores to see the big round balls flung in by the Bourbons from their steamers *after* the landing of Garibaldi and his thousand from Piedmont and Lombardy on May 11, 1860, and am concluding my letter at the table where the two English captains were dining when the bombardment commenced. They, from the stone terrace running at the top of the buildings, signalled to the Bourbon commanders that they must cease their firing until they had gained their respective ships, the *Argos* and the *Intrepid!* Meanwhile, some old "wounded" and other comrades of various Garibaldian campaigns are preparing carriages for a thorough Garibaldian expedition, as, instead of taking the railroad, we are to go by highways and byways from Marsala to Salemi, from thence to Calatafimi, Alcemo, Partenico, passing through Monreale, to alight by the Admiral's bridge in Palermo.

To Marsala belongs the distinction of declaring the downfall of the Bourbon dynasty, and the proclamation of Garibaldi Dictator, while at Salemi was proclaimed the unity of Sicily with Italy under the constitutional government of Victor Emmanuel. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If any of your readers want an object-lesson as to the meaning of the word "anarchy," they have only to turn their eyes to wards Washington. Taking the holidays into account, one month of the session has been consumed in making preparations to get ready to go to work. Not till after the New Year will the standing committees be even ready to receive business, which will then pour in upon them in a flood like the Atlantic Ocean, and with almost as little distinction of its component parts—"rari nantes in gurgite vasto." The simile will bear carrying out, except as to the word "rari" as applied to the participants.

The contest for the Speakership was not a question of the national parties of Republicans and Democrats. The Democrats had it all in their own hands, and they turned it into a faction fight among themselves. If I read the papers correctly, the man who won (and most significant it is) is not he who had the most of national reputation or might have been looked to to guard best the national interests, but the man to whom the private interests rallied most strongly. And how completely he is the slave of the private interests which elected him, to judge again by the comments of all the papers which are not wholly given up to party, is shown by the make-up of the standing committees. If one thing can be predicted with confidence of this Congress, it is that the country is about to receive a sharp lesson that it makes very little difference whether the majority in Congress is called Democratic or Republican, inasmuch as both alike are as wax in the hands of the lobby.

Whether the country, or any considerable part of it, will thereby be led to see that the real enemy to be encountered is the lobby, and that the conflict will require not only the whole strength of the popular will, but the organization of that will under national and official leaders, the first step towards which is to place on the floor of Congress national representatives in the shape of the officers of the Cabinet, is, of course, by no means so clear. G. B.

Boston, December 26, 1891.

PROF. MARSHALL'S DRAWINGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to thank you for the *Nation* of December 3, just received.

The paragraph in it relating to the art anatomy drawings belonging to my late husband, Prof. John Marshall, is, however, misleading, and I must ask you to have the kindness to correct it. It is inferred that I am obliged to part with these diagrams for pecuniary reasons, which is very far from being the case. They are really too valuable for instructive purposes to be allowed to lie idle, and this was the sole reason for my wishing to dispose of them.

If you will kindly insert this letter at your earliest convenience, you will much oblige

Yours truly, Ellen E. Marshall.

Belle Vue House, Cheyne Walk, London, S. W., December 14, 1891.

A TYPOGRAPHICAL ERROR IN 'CRANFORD.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: *De minimis lex non curat*—but the principle does not hold of the lovers of 'Cranford'; and who that knows it is not a lover of that delightful book? I opened the new edition of Messrs. Macmillan, so sympathetically and intelligently illustrated, and there (alas!) met my eye the old exasperating misprint, probably originally the emendation of some over-shrewd proof-reader. We all remember the *lion* with black currant eyes which witnessed to the sympathy and devotion of Martha, and we feel the gratification it was to her to see it appreciated when it reappeared "sliced and fried" the day after; but what sentimental interest is there in cold "loin" (page 264)?

Perhaps the good-natured publishers will revise their plates and give us this English classic without blemish.—I am yours, etc.,

A. B. N.

Harvard University, December 21, 1891.

BOBBIN AND LATCH-STRING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice that in Perrault's original version of "Little Red Riding Hood" the grandmother says to the wolf, "Tire la chevillette, la bobinette cherra." This, I understand, means, "Pull the pin and the bobbin will fall." The English translation, "from the seventh edition," New York, 1797, reads, "Pull the bobbin and the latch will fly up." Of course two different modes of closing the door are indicated. In the first, there is a pin pushed or twirled, and the bobbin inside falls. What mechanism was this? In the second, evidently, a string is pulled from the outside, and the latch is lifted. I am desirous of knowing, since dictionaries avail not, the time when this form of latch went into use, and when the string was superseded by the lever-movement of a thumb-piece now in vogue. I am told that this string arrangement was in use during the present century, and a bobbin or bob or ball would naturally be tied

on the exterior end. Yet I seem to remember some reference to the custom of drawing in the string as a protection, and a button on the end would be inconvenient. On the other hand, surely the phrase of having the latch-string out is synonymous with hospitality.

I should like some information as to the use, *in print*, of the word "bobbin," as applied to the string or appendant to it, or of the phrases "to draw in the latch-string" and "to leave the latch-string out." In *Notes and Queries*, 3d S., iii., 46, a writer says that a young lady declared in his presence that she would never marry; but her grandmother replied: "It is no use holding the latch when nobody pulls at the string." This is a variation of the phrase, but clearly refers to the custom.

Yours respectfully, W. H. W.

Notes.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, invite subscriptions to 'The Norman Monuments of Palermo and Environs,' by Arne Delhi and G. H. Chamberlain, architects, in four parts, with fifty measured drawings, several cuts in the text, and many photographic views. The edition will be limited.

Thomas Hardy's new story, 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles,' which has been running in *Harper's Bazar*, will be published early next month by the Messrs. Harper.

'Abraham Lincoln' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is Mr. Carl Schurz's striking *Atlantic* essay recast, and judiciously divested of the appearance of a review of Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's biography. As it now stands, it ranks, in matter and in style, among the very best short appreciations of the career and character of the great President. Within a little more than a hundred pages of open print, nearly everything essential is touched upon of historic incident or controversy in Lincoln's life, by one, too, who knew him and was an actor with him in the great drama of the civil war. Were there need to comment on this essay afresh, we should perhaps desiderate a brief list of Lincoln's abortive measures for avoiding the simple duty of emancipation, and we should object to the running justification of them along with his tardy progress to the inevitable step by reference to the necessity of his not outstripping the "plain people." This is really the excuse of a politician, not of a statesman, and how dangerous it is may be judged from our unhappy experience with greenbacks, silver, and pensions, and from the universal annals of demagogy. At the end of line 13, page 52, an intrusive *not* demands the attention of the publishers, who, we will remark in closing, would do a good service if they would also make a book, to be bracketed with Mr. Schurz's, of Horace Greeley's not less remarkable posthumous estimate of Lincoln in a late number of the *Century*.

Macmillan & Co. bring out Archibald Forbes's 'Barracks, Bivouacs, and Battles,' a reprint of a series of his most taking stories and experiences as a war correspondent which originally appeared in various English periodicals. His world-wide journeyings have taken him from the Himalayas to Zulu-land, and from the Balkans to the American Desert. Perfectly at home in camp-life of an English dragoon regiment or at the Czar's headquarters in Bulgaria, he gives real life to every incident and truest color to every experience. His imaginary tales have all the *verve* of the actual and the personal, and his veritable journeys are as exciting as any fiction. His chapters range from grave to gay, and abound in local instruction and information as to the most diverse lands and peoples.

Mr. Geo. Edward Mannering has given the form of a diary to his volume, 'With Axe and Rope in the New Zealand Alps' (Longmans), a very vivid account of five unsuccessful attempts to ascend Mt. Aorangi (ordinarily known as Mt. McCook), the highest point in New Zealand. The last attempt carried him very near the summit, but left just enough unaccomplished to whet the appetite of other explorers. No new light is shed by the author upon the general subject of glaciers, but the reader will receive from the perusal of the volume a new impression of their marvellous flexibility and power; while the illustrations (of which there are nineteen excellent full-page reproductions of photographs) are in themselves amply worth the price of the book.

Though not intimated in the book, 'A Summer in Alaska,' by Frederick Schwatka, published by John Y. Huber Company of Philadelphia, is a new issue of 'Along Alaska's Great River,' by F. Schwatka, published in 1885. Three new chapters are added, but the index is the old one, and does not contain any reference to the new matter. The date of the expedition, 1883, has been removed from the title-page and preface, and two maps left out.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, publish the seventh edition of 'The Microscope and its Revelations,' by the late Dr. Wm. B. Carpenter, F.R.S. The editor is the Rev. W. H. Dallinger, LL.D., recently President of the Royal Microscopical Society of London, well known for his important investigations of flagellate monads in connection with Dr. Drysdale. It would be impossible to find an Englishman better fitted to carry on the work of his deceased compatriot and friend. His delicate investigations called for the expert use of widest-angled lenses, aided by every resource which ingeniously devised accessory apparatus could lend. On every question of the construction of the microscope, whether of the stand, of the lenses, or of the accessories, he is an acknowledged authority. The first half of Carpenter's standard treatise has been rewritten, so as to include full exposition of the great improvements in the instrument which have marked the last twenty years, and a most interesting history of its earliest forms. In the second part, which gives the "Revelations of the Microscope," there was not room for so great change, though here too the additions by the editor are neither few nor small. The illustrations draw freely upon the resources of photo-micrography and are wonderfully abundant and excellent. The book is more than ever a standard, unrivalled in its kind, and is a necessity to every one who pretends to any scientific use of the microscope. It has grown to a stout octavo of over a thousand pages.

Some three years ago we commended warmly to our readers an article by H. Zimmer in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for January, 1887, on the part played by Irish monks in early mediæval culture, and expressed the wish that it might be translated. Our wish has been gratified. We have before us 'The Irish Element in Mediæval Culture,' translated from Zimmer by Jane Loring Edmands (Putnams). This dainty little volume of 140 pages we commend no less warmly than we did the German original. In some features it is an improvement on the original. Mrs. Edmands has supplied an index, which will greatly facilitate ready reference; also, some additional notes, one or two of which are of considerable length, and illustrate Zimmer's position happily. So far as we have had occasion to compare original and translation, we have found the rendering at once faithful and easy. We congratulate Mrs. Edmands on her good work. We also hope that our non-German readers will avail themselves of the opportunity. The story of Irish missionary labors here told has the charm of romance.

We have been remiss in not mentioning sooner the 'Bibliographical Catalogue of Macmillan & Co.'s Publications from 1843 to 1889,' prepared for this eminent firm by their assistant, Mr. James Foster. It forms an octavo volume of 714 pages, and, in a chronological arrangement, displays the extraordinary product of this one firm with the most scrupulous detail as to title, edition, reprint, etc. An author-index provides a key to the treasure-house. We are not aware that another such bibliography exists; we are quite sure that the general level of the publications here recorded would with difficulty be matched by any publishing house in any part of the world. The 'Catalogue' has been as carefully and beautifully manufactured as any work on the list, and contains two portrait of Daniel and Alexander Macmillan.

The first volume of a supplement to Bartsch's 'Peintre-Graveur' has just appeared (Berlin: Albert Cohn; New York: Christern). It is by W. L. Schreiber, and is entitled 'Manuel de l'amateur de la Gravure sur bois et sur métal au xv. siècle.' No attention is paid to playing-cards or to book illustrations, but the author has found ten years none too long a time for his task. What is to come is a list of block-books and an historical essay on the origin and progress of relief engraving, completing five volumes, with a sixth of reproductions, at 15 francs per volume.

Although the Americans are now a good second to the French, there is still no city where the "posters," the pictorial advertisements displayed on the walls, are as artistic or as brilliant as they are in Paris; and this is chiefly because the chief Parisian designer of these lithographed placards is M. Jules Cheret, an artist of indisputable originality, taste, and *verve*. Several years ago M. Maindron published a book about pictorial posters, and since then the number has increased of those who collect these most perishable of all artistic productions. Where there are collectors, dealers to supply them are rarely wanting. The chief dealer in "posters" is M. Ed. Sagot, 18 Rue Guénégaud, Paris, who has just published a priced catalogue of 'Affiches Illustrées,' which is also annotated and illustrated with fifteen inserted illustrations by M. Cheret, by "Willette," and by M. Grasset. Subscribers to the catalogue receive also a superb two-sheet poster by M. Cheret, one of his most effective compositions. To M. Cheret is due also the cover of M. Sagot's catalogue, as *chic* a composition as the most ultra-Parisian could wish for.

'Ares Isländerbuch,' edited by Wolfgang Golter (Halle: Niemeyer), is the first number of the "Altnordische Saga-Bibliothek" which is to appear under the joint editorship of Gustaf Cederschiöld of Lund, Hugo Gering of Kiel, and Eugen Mogk of Leipzig. In an introduction of twenty-eight pages Dr. Golter gives an account of Are's life and works, his literary character and significance, and all available information concerning the manuscripts and editions of the 'Íslendingabóc.' This is followed by the Icelandic text, with critical and historical footnotes, and remarks on its transmission, extracts referring to Are from the 'Heimskringla,' frag-

ments from the older 'Íslendingabóc,' supplements to the manuscript from various sources, and a chronological table of the history of Iceland from its discovery by the Vikings in 860 till Are's death in 1148. There is also a list of the *lögsögomenn*, with their terms of office, from 930 to 1138, and a complete index of proper, geographical, and genealogical names. This library is to contain historical sagas, mythical sagas, and romantic sagas, such as the Mágus saga and the Parzevals saga, which are especially important for the comparative history of literature. An admirable beginning has been made with the 'Íslendingabóc,' which ranks high as an early specimen of historical composition, and is really remarkable for a period when such records consisted almost exclusively of dreary monkish chronicles.

Natura ed Arte is the title of a new fortnightly review just launched at Milan by Francesco Villardi, the editorship being at Rome.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December contains a suggestive paper on Acclimatization by Dr. R. W. Felkin, in which the conclusion is reached that it is possible for any European race to become acclimatized in any tropical region. This cannot be done at once, however; but the same procedure must be adopted which has proved successful with animals and plants, of transporting picked adults to certain intermediate stations. In this way northern Europeans might, step by step, generation by generation, become acclimatized in 100 years in tropical India or Africa. There follows an interesting account of the Machinga, one of the tribes inhabiting the Shiré Highlands in British Central Africa, by Mr. R. S. Hynde, a resident Scotch missionary. The system under which they live he describes as a transition stage between the matriarchal and the patriarchal. "Each person belongs to a clan and is not allowed to marry into his own clan." The children belong to the mother's clan, and a man's property and position descend not to his own son, but to the son of his eldest sister. A man when he marries settles in his wife's village, so that daughters, not sons, are a source of strength. Their language, which has some affinities with the Swahili or coast language, has been reduced to writing, and a grammar and vocabulary have been published, together with translations of portions of the New Testament and several school-books containing many of their folk-lore stories.

Lord Lamington's account of his adventurous journey through the northern Shan States to Tong-king is the only paper in the December Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. In much of the country traversed, the sparse population is apparently decreasing through the prevalence of dacoity, and a vast and almost impenetrable jungle is fast encroaching upon the once cultivated valleys. The most noteworthy result of the journey, however, was the evidence obtained of the advance of the French towards the Burmese frontier. Their posts were found even in territory long claimed by Siam, but are evidently difficult to maintain against the dacoits, or "pirates," as the French term them. Whether these "pirates" are really robbers, or simply patriots striving to throw off a hated foreign yoke, Lord Lamington diplomatically declines to say.

In the November number of the *Green Bag*, the Supreme Court of New Jersey being under consideration historically, it is stated that "every chief justice since the Revolution, with one exception (the present incumbent), has been a Presbyterian. The very great majority of the associate justices have also been Presbyterians, and many of them elders in their churches. Nearly all who were educated at colleges, graduated at Princeton."

L. Prang & Co. send us a 'Mother Goose Calendar,' with a background gracefully composed by Miss Laura C. Hills. But they ought not to ask, as they do in an accompanying "Art Note," "How many children know that Mother Goose was a real American grandmother, one Mrs. Goose, who lived at Boston at the beginning of the eighteenth century?" Nor to add the equally exploded fiction that "her son-in-law, who was a printer, collected her ballads in a book and sold it for two coppers."

The next meeting of the American Economic Association will be held at Chautauqua, probably on August 23-26.

The sixth International Art Exhibition will be held at Munich, Bavaria, in 1892, opening on the 1st of June and closing on the 31st of October. Works of art intended for exhibition must be announced on or before the middle of March, and sent in between the 1st and 15th of April. Applications must be made to the central committee of the Künstlergenossenschaft, Briennerstrasse, Munich, Bavaria, from whom all further information can be obtained. This exhibition occurs quadrennially, and should not be confounded with the recently organized annual exhibition, or so-called "Salon," to which it is vastly superior both in arrangement and in importance. We may add that the second annual exhibition, which closed on October 25, realized about 600,000 marks ($150,000) on the sale of works of art, and may, therefore, be regarded as fairly successful from a financial point of view.

—The ghost story has, for reasons lost in the night of time, been a standard and classic accompaniment of the celebration of the merry Christmas season by our race. The tendency of all editorial, "reportorial," "authorial" (as Mr. Wanamaker would say), and, as we may add, "publisherial," enterprises to-day is towards a certain enormousness. And Mr. Stead, as editor of his peculiarly enormous *Review of Reviews*, has fairly outdone himself in the character of his extra Christmas number. "Real Ghost Stories" is its title; and the number of apparitions which figure in the hundred pages of which it consists is something without a precedent. Not Gothic ghosts, either, half visible in the shadow of "haunted chambers"; no sheeted forms, no clanking chains, no accompaniment of terror-stricken dogs, no suggestion of unexpiated crimes and souls in torture, are here. The procession of supernatural visitants moves, on the contrary, at a rattling pace, in a bright, brisk, modern light, subdivided by head-lines, and escorted by corroborative documents and facsimiles of photographs of the seers, of the persons whose ghosts appeared, of the localities affected, and the like. The atmosphere of the daily newspaper, in short, is substituted for that of the feudal castle. It is always a lively day for a subject when Mr. Stead takes it in hand—*something* has got to happen. These ghosts are a case in point. Not content with drawing on the published literature, he has made himself a sort of Society for Psychical Research on his own account, and a very large proportion of the cases he presents are those of his own collecting. They make, on the whole, a striking array—all the more so for the portraits. Portraits are a great feature in Mr. Stead's intensely personal way of handling questions. It should be said to his credit that he usually takes pains to get good ones to copy. Prof. Sidgwick's, in this number, is very good, but Edmund Gurney's, by an exception, is from an abominable drawing, not from a photograph. Mr. Stead gives us, among others, striking pictures of the famous Léonie, M. Janet's somnambulist, in both her trance and waking states. This number of the *Review of Reviews* is well calculated to shake the settled incredulity of many about apparitions, and it will increase that willingness to reëxamine the evidence for "the supernatural" which is beginning to be so marked a feature in all countries to-day. The pamphlet is particularly strong in stories of the appearance of the "double"—a "superstition" which the theosophists have taken under their special protection, and for which, sooth to say, the evidence offered appears on the face of it to be far from contemptible.

—The latest volume in the series of *classiques populaires* published by Lecène & Oudin, is Édouard Rod's account of Dante. M. Rod has lectured at Geneva on modern Italian literature, and, like the late Edmond Scherer, has won his laurels as a trained scholar and critic in several modern literatures, but this is one of his first excursions into regions where he competes with the philologian and the historical specialist. The result is in the main satisfactory. In two hundred pages he tells us what is known about Dante's life, and summarizes briefly his minor works and the 'Divine Comedy,' without important error or omission, without entering into the discussion of mooted questions, and with a clear idea of what the general reader wants most to know. Indeed, the only rival of M. Rod's little book, from this point of view, is Mr. Symonds's 'Dante,' and even here, in spite of Mr. Symonds's larger knowledge, M. Rod's simplicity and self-control in the carrying of his plan often turn the balance in his favor. Dante may have been a mystic, he seems to say, but let us not write of him mystically. But neither Rod's sketch nor Symonds's is final, any more than Scartazzini's or Gaspary's. The modern man of letters, with all his trained skill of hand and suppleness of mind, must fail in the attempt, involving enormous powers both of sympathy and of application, to reproduce in miniature Dante and the century of which he was bone and flesh, and apart from which he is inconceivable. The specialists—Scartazzini, for instance—are too often devoid of general knowledge and of sympathy. They annotate authoritatively, but they cannot be brought to feel what from their stores of knowledge the student of general literature needs to know. Between the two stools the ordinary reader must still fall. Homer he may learn to understand, and Virgil and Shakspere, but not Dante. The road to him—in French, German, English, or even Italian—is still anything but a royal highway. In make-up M. Rod's essay is deficient, for it lacks an index, or even a detailed table of contents.

—The new edition of 'Lessing's Werke,' in twelve volumes, prepared by Prof. Franz Muncker of the University of Munich, and published by Goeschen (Stuttgart), is a model of elegance and a marvel of cheapness. It is printed on good paper with ample margins and large clean-cut type, and costs unbound only eighteen marks, or about thirty-seven cents a volume. It contains all of Lessing's writings that are of any interest or value to scholars of to-day. The text has been thoroughly revised

and corrected by a collation of the best manuscripts and original imprints, and will satisfy in this respect the demands of the severest criticism. In a biographical sketch of some thirty pages Prof. Muncker gives an admirable survey of Lessing's life, with a fair estimate of his character and influence, and assigns him his proper and doubtless permanent place in German literature. His treatment of the subject shows excellent taste and fine discernment, and never lets appreciation, however earnest and ardent, degenerate into fulsome and undiscriminating panegyric. Equally concise and commendable are the introductions by Karl Goedeke, which precede each volume or section of the work, and in which Lessing's point of view in relation to the several topics is clearly stated. These brief discussions of Lessing's attitude to literature, art, theology, poetry, and criticism serve to orient the reader and help him to a fuller understanding of what follows. Lessing, as Lowell has well said, "is no exclusive property of Germany," but "an ennobling possession of mankind," and "every year since he was laid prematurely in the earth has seen his power for good increase, and made him more precious to the hearts and intellects of men." The first volume has a well-executed portrait.

—We have had frequent occasion of late years to chronicle the labors of G. H. Balg in promoting the study of Gothic in this country. First came his translation of Braune's Grammar; next, his Glossary, begun in 1887 and finished in 1889; and now we are presented with Wulfila's Bible and the other remains of the language. The work may be procured of the author, Milwaukee, Wis., or of B. Westermann & Co., New York. It contains the Gothic texts entire, a glossary of 174 pages, and 72 pages of syntax. The present glossary is an abridgment of the previous one, but although smaller and therefore less rich in citations, it is much superior in certain features. The author has not only rectified his slips in the larger work, but he has given to it a more practical arrangement. The words, including the compound verbs, are in strict alphabetical order. The student will not have to hunt for each compound under its simplex. At the same time we think that the editor would have done well to append to each simplex a list of its compounds. This would not have cost him much space nor much effort. The Syntax is by far the best treatment of this subject that we possess. Our only general criticism of it would be that it fails to separate what is genuine Germanic syntax from what may be mere slavish following of the Greek. But perhaps the time has not yet come for the final separation. Evidently the author's chief concern has been to give the student the *facts* of the syntax with great fulness and precision. The interesting nominative absolute introduced in § 121 should have been mentioned also in § 13.

—Balg's text is based, of course, upon Bernhardt's, differing only for good reasons. Occasionally we miss a needed explanation. For instance, what are the mysterious marginal lg=33, ld=34, etc., beginning with Matt. v., 17? We conjecture that they designate the Ammonian sections mentioned by Bernhardt, p. xli. In at least one instance the editor's language is misleading. The note to John ix., 7, reads: "Swumfsl; swumsl *in C A for original* swumslf." The "original" might suggest to the student that "swumslf" was the primitive and etymological form of the word, which is, of course, impossible. Bernhardt's language on the point is not much happier, but it suggests at least a correcter meaning, viz., that the scribe wrote blunderingly "swumslf" and corrected to "swumsl." At any rate neither Bernhardt nor Balg is justified in "restoring" the *f*. Whether the student, at any stage of his study, can dispense altogether with the Greek-Itala text, is a moot point. We admit the force of the editor's personal justification (p. vi. of his preface). Yet we also believe that a practical compromise would have been possible—that is, the editor might have cited the Greek-Itala, either in foot-notes or in his glossary, in passages of more than ordinary difficulty. Those who know anything of the editor's private circumstances will read between the lines of his preface with a feeling of shame. It is not to the credit of our so-called higher learning that any one evincing such steadfastness of aim and generous self-devotion should be suffered to linger in unrewarded and chilling obscurity. A suitable position and adequate facilities in some one of our leading universities ought to be his portion. His plea for a more extensive knowledge of Gothic in this country has been anticipated in at least one institution, where Gothic is insisted on as a prerequisite to the study of English.

FROUDE'S 'DIVORCE OF CATHERINE OF ARAGON.'

The Divorce of Catherine of Aragon: the Story as told by the Imperial Ambassadors resident at the Court of Henry VIII. By J. A. Froude (being a supplementary volume to the author's 'History of England.') Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

ONCE more Mr. Froude calls upon us, in the fascinating language of which he is a master, to thread with him the labyrinth of intrigue connected with the divorce of Catherine of Aragon. The intrigue is of the very meanest, dirtiest, and in some parts of the obscurest kind, important only in its results, about which there can be no question. The investigation, therefore, which Mr. Froude invites us to renew, though it may have its attractions for lovers of historical scandal, promises little profit otherwise than as it may afford illustrations of character for the period, about the vilest in history (so far, at least, as courts and cabinets were concerned), which intervened between the fall of the Catholic morality and the rise of the Protestant morality in its place.

The divorce of Catherine of Aragon this episode is always called. But it should be remembered that what Henry sought, and the Pope refused, was not a divorce in the present sense of the term, but a declaration that the marriage of Henry with his brother's widow had been *ab initio* null and void. Supposing the marriage to have been good, the Pope had not, nor did anybody imagine that he had, power to dissolve it. Marriage in the Roman Church is a sacrament. The Pope could no more unmarry than he could unbaptize. It was not by open divorce, but by releasing parties from their marriages on the ground of alleged precontracts or fanciful affinities, that the Papacy, in its age of corruption, had practically introduced, for the classes wealthy enough to have recourse to its tribunals, a state of license. From the language held in Mr. Froude's History (vol i., p. 121), it appears that, strange as it may seem, he is under a complete misconception on this point, and imagines that the Pope was invested with a power of dissolving marriages which he was morally bound to exercise in cases where it was required by the supreme interest of nations, and which he ought to have exercised in the case of England, where, Catherine having ceased to bear children, there was no hope of a direct male heir to the Crown.

We cannot see that Mr. Froude supplies us with any fresh clue to the maze. Most of the new matter is derived from the despatches of Eustace Chapuys, the Imperialist Ambassador at the English Court. Chapuys being an Imperialist, and therefore an adverse witness, has been always discredited by Mr. Froude, who in his History set his evidence aside as that of "a bitter Catholic," and now quotes as decisive some words of Paget to the effect that the Ambassador is wanting in genuine wisdom, a vain babbler, and regardless of honesty and truth. That an envoy chosen by Charles V. for an important and difficult mission should not be strictly upright or veracious is likely enough; but it seems not so likely that he should be wanting in sagacity or reticence, nor is it probable that he lied to his master. We have pleasure in introducing to Mr. Froude's notice the recent work of Mr. Paul Friedmann on Anne Boleyn. Mr. Friedmann is not endowed with any particular grace of literary style; but he appears to us to possess habits of conscientious inquiry, to make an honest use of his authorities, and to be under the control of common sense and justice. We commend his volumes to those who may have uncritically accepted the portrait of Henry and the version of the history given by Mr. Froude. Mr. Friedmann challenges Mr. Froude's estimate of Chapuys, asserting that Mr. Froude advances no evidence for his assertions, that he makes Chapuys say of Henry VIII. the opposite of what he really says, that Chapuys may sometimes be wrong in his moral views, and may be given to repeating scandal, but that his statements of fact are always made on good authority. Mr. Friedmann also says that Mr. Froude's extracts are full of mistakes.

Henry wanted a male heir, and he wanted to marry Anne Boleyn, who would not, like the mother of the Duke of Richmond and perhaps other ladies, consent to become his mistress. Which of those motives first had birth in his mind, and which was the stronger of the two, it is alike needless and hopeless to inquire, though it would seem that at an early date Henry had conceived an interest in Anne which led to the interposition of his veto on her marriage with another. That of which we are as sure as we can be of anything relating to the internal springs of action, is that in this case scruples of conscience had little force. How came conscience, after its long silence, to speak so loud at the moment when the hope of a male heir had been abandoned and the connection with Anne Boleyn had begun? Was it conscience or the impatience of lust that commanded the King, before the marriage with Catherine had been dissolved, to outrage public decency by installing Anne in his palace and treating her as his affianced wife? Was it conscience which led him to use bribery and coercion in wringing from the universities of England and Europe opinions in favor of the divorce? It was at the time of the opening of the Legatine Court in England, when he was manifestly plying every engine to get rid of his hated wife, that he solemnly declared to the people, in his speech at Bridewell, that he loved Catherine with all his heart, and desired nothing better than to keep her as his consort, if only his conscience would permit him. Mr. Froude's attention has at last been called to

the letters of Henry to Anne Boleyn, preserved in Hearne, but he still blinks the fact that in them, with a report of the King's conscientious studies in casuistical divinity, is mingled the coarsest language of sensual love.

There is one piece of evidence which is not new, but which Mr. Froude feels for the first time constrained, probably because it has been pressed by Mr. Brewer, to look in the face. In contemplation of the marriage of the King with Anne Boleyn, a draft dispensation was prepared in England and transmitted to Rome for adoption by the Pope. In it are these words:

"In order to take away all occasion from evil-doers, we do in the plenitude of our power hereby suspend *hâc vice* all canons forbidding marriage in the fourth degree; also all canons *de impedimento publicæ honestatis* preventing marriage in consequence of clandestine espousals; further, all canons relating to precontracts clandestinely made but not consummated; also, all canons affecting impediments created by affinity rising *ex illicito coitu* in any degree, even in the first, so far as the marriage to be contracted by you, the petitioner, can be objected to or in any wise be impugned by the same. Further, to avoid canonical objections on the side of the woman by reason of former contract clandestinely made, or impediment of public honesty or justice arising from such clandestine contract, or of an affinity contracted in any degree, even the first, *ex illicito coitu;* and in the event that it has proceeded beyond the second or third degrees of consanguinity, whereby otherwise you, the petitioner, would not be allowed by the canons to contract marriage, we hereby license you to take such woman for wife, and suffer you and the woman to marry free from all ecclesiastical objections and censures."

To unprejudiced eyes the meaning of these words, read in the light of current belief, seems pretty plain. "Clandestine espousals" and "precontract" refer to the passages between Anne Boleyn and Lord Percy before Anne's connection with the King. The "affinity contracted in any degree, even the first, *ex illicito coitu*," is that created between the King and Anne by the King's illicit connection with Anne's sister, Mary Boleyn. That the words were so construed at the time is clear from the letter of Dr. Ortiz from Rome to the Emperor cited by Mr. Paul Friedmann (vol. i., p. 65, note). Mr. Froude confidently proposes to treat the clause as mere "legal verbiage"—as the lawyers would say, common form. Let him produce another instrument of dispensation in which the same legal verbiage occurs. Is it credible, he asks, that the framers of the dispensation should have been foolish enough to introduce such a scandal into a public document? The answer is that they were driven to it by necessity, and that if, knowing the scandal to be abroad, they had introduced into a public document words so suggestive without necessity, they would have been fools indeed. "The accusation," Mr. Froude says, "was heard of only in the conversation of disaffected priests or secret visitors to the Spanish Ambassador." This is his usual mode of dealing with unfavorable evidence. It appears plainly from a passage in his present volume, page 234, as well as from other sources, that the charge was common talk. If Pole mentioned it in the second edition of his manifesto, and not in the first, that does not necessarily prove anything more than that between the two editions he had satisfied himself of the fact, as he might if he became acquainted with the clause in the draft dispensation. Supposing the obvious construction of the words to be the true one, the worshippers of Henry VIII. are certainly in a pitiable dilemma, for, as he must have been cognizant of the contents of the draft, its language would amount to an actual confession on his part. There would then be an end of his character and of his cause unless Mr. Froude should find it possible to maintain that incest, combined with the most revolting hypocrisy as well as judicial murder, was one of the "piteous necessities" of a beneficent revolution.

The construction of the dispensation which commends itself to ordinary minds seems to derive strong confirmation from a clause in the Act 28, Hen. VIII., c. 7, regulating the succession to the crown after the divorce and execution of Anne Boleyn. The condemnation of Anne for adultery and treason, though it sent her to the block, did not, it will be observed, serve to bastardize her daughter. To effect that object of high-minded statesmanship, it was necessary that her marriage with the King should be pronounced void. This was done by Cranmer in a secret sitting for a cause communicated to him by Anne, but never divulged. It may be taken as certain that the veil of secrecy covered something revolting. Now, in the Act of Succession, among the clauses relating to the specific matter of the Act, is curiously inserted one general in form on the subject of prohibited marriages. This clause enumerates the regular prohibitions on account of consanguinity or affinity, ending with that of a wife's sister. It then proceeds thus: "And further to dilate and declare the meaning of these prohibitions, it is to be understood that if it chance any man to know carnally any woman, then all and singular persons being in any degree of consanguinity or affinity (as above written) to any of the parties so carnally offending shall be deemed and adjudged to be within the case and limits of the said prohibitions of marriage." This "dilation," it will be seen, exactly covers the case which would be created by the illicit connection of the King with one sister and his subsequent marriage with the other. If it was not with a view to this case and in order to invalidate the King's marriage with Anne, thus bastardizing her daughter, that the clause was inserted into the Act of Succession, what was the object of its insertion? An abyss of infamy would thus be disclosed, but this will not be very startling to any one acquainted with the ethics and habits of those days. Mr. Froude himself, who finds it impossible to believe that Henry VIII. can have had connection with two sisters, has no difficulty in believing that Anne Boleyn not only committed incest with her brother, Lord Rochfoyd, but herself, as the indictment states, solicited him to the crime.

Of the question of right between Henry and Catherine, Mr. Froude thinks that he can dispose satisfactorily in the following manner:

"The case itself was peculiar, and opinions differed on the rights and wrongs of it. The reader must be from time to time reminded that, as the law of England has stood ever since, a marriage with a brother's widow was not a marriage. As the law of the Church then stood, it was not a marriage unless permitted by the Pope; and according to the same law of England, the Pope neither has nor ever had any authority to dispense with the law. Therefore Henry, on the abstract contention, was in the right."

Henry had taken Catherine as his wife under the ecclesiastical law of Latin Christendom, the nations of which then formed a federation for ecclesiastical purposes, and of that law the supreme tribunal, acknowledged by all, was the Roman Court. How could the subsequent marriage law of Protestant England retrospectively affect the law under which the marriage had been contracted, or the rights of either party to the marriage? To say that the Pope never had in Catholic England any dispensing authority in ecclesiastical cases would be sheer effrontery. Justice in the Roman Court was subject to perversion by political influence, it is true; not a whit less, but still more subject to perversion by political influence was the justice of the Court substituted by Henry for that of Rome. Cranmer was a mere creature of the King and Cromwell, appointed by them, not to hear the case fairly, but simply to deliver the judgment put by them into his mouth. Had he hesitated for a moment, they would have turned him out of his Archbishopric. He was at their mercy, for, as they knew, he had contracted a clandestine marriage which was still uncanonical and a sufficient ground of deprivation. His predecessor, Archbishop Warham, seems to have been compelled to ignominious compliances by fear of a similar skeleton in his closet, the existence of which was probably known to Wolsey. Mr. Froude appeals to our sense of the beauty of the Anglican liturgy, of which Cranmer was the compiler. Suppose he was; does that prove his independence as a judge?

To supply anything that may be wanting in the cogency of his argument, Mr. Froude has the resources of an effective rhetoric:

"The naked truth—and nakedness is not always indecent—was something of this kind. A marriage with a brother's wife was forbidden by the universal law of Christendom. Kings, dukes, and other great men who disposed as they pleased of the hands of their sons and daughters, found it often desirable, for political or domestic reasons, to form connections which the law prohibited, and therefore they maintained an Italian conjurer who professed to be able for a consideration to turn wrong into right. To marriages so arranged it was absurd to attach the same obligations as belonged to unions legitimately contracted. If, as often happened, such marriages turned out ill, the same conjurer who could make could unmake. This function, also, he was repeatedly called on to exercise, and, for a consideration also, he was usually compliant. The King of England had been married as a boy to Catherine of Aragon, carrying out an arrangement between their respective fathers. The marriage had failed in the most important object for which royal marriages are formed: there was no male heir to the Crown, nor any prospect of one. Henry, therefore, as any other prince in Europe would have done, applied to the Italian for assistance. The conjurer was willing, confessing that the case was one where his abilities might properly be employed. But another of his supporters interfered and forced him to refuse. The King of England had always paid his share for the conjurer's maintenance. He was violently deprived of a concession which it was admitted that he had a right to claim. But for the conjurer's pretensions to make the unlawful lawful, he would not have been in the situation in which he found himself. What could be more natural than that, finding himself thus treated, he should begin to doubt whether the conjurer, after all, had the power of making wrong into right? Whether the marriage had not been wrong from the beginning? And, when the magical artist began to curse, as his habit was when doubts were thrown on his being the Vicar of the Almighty, what could be more natural also than to throw him and his tackle out of the window?"

Such passages will tell with nine out of ten of Mr. Froude's readers. The tenth will ask whether one who can launch into such declamation and tender such a description of the Catholic organization of Europe, is really writing history.

About the only redeeming feature in this scene of knavery, hypocrisy, and lying is the constancy of the injured wife and of her not less injured daughter under the persecutions to which they were exposed by the brutality of Henry and the spitefulness of Anne. Harassed

and insulted to drive her into ignoble compliances, Mary nobly replied that "God had not so blinded her that she should confess that her father had been an adulterer and her mother an adulteress."

Did Catherine of Aragon die a natural death or was she made away with? Her friends and the Imperial Ambassador suspected poison. That suspicion was, as we know, rife in those days, and is therefore always to be received with mistrust; but if the false report was common, so was the reality, and it is probable that Italian ingenuity had improved toxicology in advance of other science. The slow poisons of the Borgian era are no doubt mythical, but the practice seems to have been to administer poison in slow doses, so as to undermine the health of the victim, while analysis was unknown. Catherine's death was opportune; her friends were debarred from inspection of the corpse. Mr. Friedmann is disposed to think that there was foul play; but the verdict to which we incline, after reading the evidence set forth by him, is, Not proven.

In his account of Henry's behavior on the death of his injured wife, Mr. Froude now departs considerably from the account given in his History. In the History we are told "that when the news reached Henry he was much affected, and is said to have shed tears," and that "the Court was ordered into mourning—a command which Anne Boleyn only had the bad taste to disobey." It has now to be admitted that the King, on the arrival of the news, expressed relief; that, on the Sunday following, Elizabeth was carried to church with special ceremony; and that in the evening there was a dance at the palace, in the middle of which the King appeared with the child in his arms. The authority is Chapuys, who is accused of "bitterness," but whose statements as to the facts are not denied. They assume a still stronger character in the version of Mr. Paul Friedmann. The King, according to Mr. Friedmann, instead of ordering the court into mourning, appeared in his gayest attire.

Henry's passions caused a rupture with the Pope which ended in the liberation of England from the Papacy. In no other sense is he entitled to the credit of the Reformation. Nor is there the slightest reason for believing that if the Pope would have gratified his lawless wish, he would ever have countenanced reform. It must strike every one as singular that Mr. Froude, commencing his History in the middle of Henry's reign, did not give by way of preface some account of the earlier part of it. But he thus escapes the necessity of distinctly recording that Henry had come forward in theological controversy as the antagonist of Luther, and that when Sir Thomas More endeavored to warn him against the possible consequences of extreme exaltation of the Pope, he rejected the warning, saying, "He was so much bound to the See of Rome that he could not do too much honor to it," and that he would "set forth its authority to the uttermost, for he had received from that See his Crown Imperial." His favorite, Wolsey, was an example of the worst ecclesiastical abuses, holding as sinecures three bishoprics and a great abbey. A voluptuary, incontinent, and a gambler, Henry was not likely from his own spiritual impulses to become a leader of religious reform. Nor did he voluntarily promote the cause of religious liberty or do more than substitute one intolerant and persecuting despotism for another. He showed courage in defying the Papal thunders; no other credit can he fairly claim. The Reformation is in no way bound up with his cause or responsible for any of his crimes; nor can his acts when criminal derive any excuse or palliation from that source.

SIDGWICK'S ELEMENTS OF POLITICS.

The Elements of Politics. By Henry Sidgwick. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

To expound the chief general considerations that enter into the rational discussion of political questions in modern States, is the task to which Prof. Sidgwick has addressed himself in this volume. In most modern States, it is to be feared, the term "rational" must be somewhat broadly used to comprehend a large and interesting part of current political discussion; and it may be seriously contended that any view of political movements that disregards the irrational element is incomplete. The principles according to which the choice of a Governor for New York is made to depend upon the location, already chosen, of the World's Fair, or those which make a kindly feeling towards one of the precious metals a necessary qualification for the office of President of the United States, would seem to be only remotely rational in character, and yet the importance of the results in these cases cannot be denied. Still, it would obviously require much space to determine the laws of emotional politics, and as Prof. Sidgwick disclaims completeness for practical purposes in his treatment, we cannot complain that it is what he meant it to be. As he considers that the theory of politics has as its primary aim to determine what the constitution and action of government ought to be, its method can be only remotely historical. It is rather, in the main, deductive, based upon the general characteristics of civilized man and his surroundings. Politics, therefore, rests upon psychology: "The fundamental assumptions in our political reasonings consist of certain propositions as to human motives and tendencies, which are derived primarily from the ordinary experience of civilized life, though they find adequate confirmation in the facts of the current and recent history of our own and other civilized countries."

As instances of such assumptions, Prof. Sidgwick cites Bentham's maxim that, "*cæteris paribus*, each portion of wealth has corresponding to it a certain chance of happiness," and Mill's proposition, that "each person is the only safe guardian of his own rights and interests." It is unnecessary to say to those familiar with the other works of this author that he fully recognizes and allows for the limitations of these general statements, declaring, indeed, that our knowledge of a general truth relating to human action develops with our knowledge of its limitations and exceptions. Still, these propositions constitute the basis of his theory, as would be expected from his ethical and economic positions. After defining the concepts Government, Law, Right, and Obligation—a process which involves some incisive criticism of Austin's doctrines—he proceeds to lay down the principles upon which laws ought to be made and administered. Every one is agreed that the criterion is conduciveness to the general good, or welfare, and, in accordance with the results which are generally admitted to be pretty securely established by the 'Methods of Ethics,' this good is really the happiness of the individual human beings composing the community—including those that are to live as well as those living. For it may be the duty of one generation to sacrifice itself for that which follows, and even for the members of one political society to give up their own happiness for that of other parts of the race. Against utilitarianism so broad as this hardly any one can protest, especially as it is unavoidable that intuitional moralists should exclude States from the scope of their theory.

Dismissing the paternal theory of government as now occupying only a subordinate place, Prof. Sidgwick adopts the principle of individualism, that "what one sane adult is legally compelled to render to others should be merely the negative service of non-interference, except so far as he has voluntarily undertaken to render positive services; provided that we include in the notion of non-interference the obligation of remedying or compensating for mischief intentionally or carelessly caused by his acts, or preventing mischief that would otherwise result from some previous act." The principle of Socialism, on the other hand, involves the requirement that one sane adult, apart from contract or claim to reparation, shall be compelled to contribute positively by money or services to the support of others. It is to be understood that, as a moral ideal, what may be called ethical as distinguished from political Socialism is accepted by Prof. Sidgwick, for he considers it the duty of men to render the services which they render to others with a genuine regard to the interests of others; but for Government to make this duty compulsory is a different matter.

The analysis of the assumptions of individualism is a valuable contribution to the subject. It is pointed out that there is not only a psychological assumption—that men are likely to provide for their own welfare better than Government; but also a sociological assumption—that the common welfare is likely to be best promoted by individuals promoting their private interest intelligently. The chief qualifications that need to be made of these assumptions are that the appropriation of land by individuals may be indefinitely restricted by the community. The landless members of a community may have a claim to compensation for the opportunities of applying labor to land from which they are excluded by its appropriation. The scope of the work does not admit of practical suggestions for determining this compensation, but it is hardly necessary to say that the confiscation of vested rights is not regarded as an admissible expedient. Other qualifications arise from the necessity of providing for infants and incompetent persons; and the welfare of children requires extensive regulation of the relations of the sexes. Moreover, experience has shown that so far as certain wants are concerned, as those of a currency, a postal service, and roads, it is at least more convenient that Government should supply them. In principle these interferences of Government are Socialistic, though this term is now coming to imply generally a design of altering the distribution of wealth by benefiting the poor at the expense of the rich. But Prof. Sidgwick gives abundant reasons for believing that the realization of this ideal would arrest industrial progress, and that the comparative equality of incomes would be an equality in poverty, although he admits the evils of inequality and recognizes the attractiveness of the ideal. So much of Socialism at least as is involved in the provision by Government of opportunities for the development of useful qualities, he cordially approves.

Passing from the consideration of the community in itself, the author next examines the relations that arise when a number of communities exist; or, as he puts it, he considers how

the boundaries of external separation and the boundaries of internal subdivision are to be determined. Here the terms "State," "nation," "nationality," and "country" receive satisfactory definition, and secession and disruption are suggestively discussed. By a natural transition, international law is then taken up, and the author is seen at his best in his careful and discriminating analysis of the principles of international duty and of external policy, and in the technical discussion of international law and morality. With certain qualifications, the use of the term "international law" is defended against Austin's criticism, and the case for extending the resort to arbitration is stated, although the author does not venture to anticipate that it will bring in the reign of universal peace. The argument, however, that it may be, theoretically, for the economic advantage of a State to interfere with free trade when an improvement has taken place in another State in a manufacture carried on in both, does not seem to us to be altogether sound. For, even if the manufacture ceased in the State where no improvement had been made, this could only be through an increased export of its other products, which would tend to equalize the advantages of the increased cheapness.

The second part of the treatise is devoted to the inquiry how Government should be constituted for the proper performance of the functions which have been found to be appropriate for it. This inquiry is necessarily an extremely comprehensive one, the number of details to be considered being enormous, and the severe limitations as to space have required a degree of compression that is painful to the reader. We are somewhat apprehensive that those who followed with admiration the discussions in the 'Methods of Ethics' will miss the "sweet reasonableness" that was so markedly characteristic of that book. It cannot be denied that the tone of the author is frequently judicial, not to say dogmatic, many questions being decided by him, after a statement of the arguments, as if his opinion were conclusive. While no one will dispute the preëminent qualifications of Prof. Sidgwick for the position of supreme arbiter upon all ethical questions—qualifications arising not more from his scholarship than from the sympathetic character of his intellect and the scrupulous fairness of his disposition—it is probable that lawyers and statesmen, to whom this portion of the treatise especially appeals, will feel that some of the decisions might have been different had the author enjoyed greater practical experience. Reflections of this kind will probably oftenest arise during the perusal of the chapters upon the legislature and the judiciary.

On the other hand, it is to be remembered that the aim of the author is mainly to construct an ideal system, and that his recommendations are to a great extent predicated upon the existence of a structure of this kind. They should, therefore, be estimated with reference to their relations to the system as a whole, and in this light it is obvious that they may appear reasonable when they would not commend themselves if applied to a special phase of government. We would not be understood as implying that Prof. Sidgwick does not recognize and distinguish the different forms of government, for this is an important and admirable part of his book; but these forms are themselves criticised with reference to the supreme political end. The practical politician will therefore not find here a store of maxims ready for his use, nor will the reformer be able to appeal to the authority of this treatise, in support of any specific change, without mastering it as a whole. In view of its comprehensiveness, we have abstained from controverting any of its positions, although, of course, some of them will be vehemently criticised. But, aside from controverted matters, the book is of the highest merit, as containing a profound, exhaustive, and systematic examination of the whole field of politics. As Prof. Sidgwick says, since Bentham's time no English writer has attempted this comprehensive treatment, although perhaps the spirit of the late Prof. Lieber would fain protest against this claim.

MORE NOVELS.

Huckleberries, Gathered from New England Hills. By Rose Terry Cooke. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

Adventures of a Fair Rebel. By Matt Crim. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1891.

Straight On: A Story for Young and Old. By the Author of 'Colette.' With eighty-six illustrations by Édouard Zier. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

WHOEVER has tasted the delight of gathering and eating huckleberries on some rocky New England hillside, or in sweet-fern-scented pasture, will appreciate the fitness of the title chosen by Mrs. Rose Terry Cooke for her recent collection of short stories. All lovers of human nature relish the peculiar flavor of the old New England character—product of stern and rugged natural surroundings, ruled over by a capricious climate and somewhat twisted by the force of spiritual winds, prevalently easterly—and Mrs. Cooke has portrayed many differing types of this character with all their delightful inconsistencies. In the present volume, "Grit" and "Odd Miss Todd" illustrate that unexpectedness in human nature which relieves the monotony of existence everywhere, and causes the narrow horizon of village life to broaden out illimitably; while certain other stories in the collection show forth the steadfast courage, the shamefaced tenderness, and the dogged obstinacy (sometimes called "pure cussedness") which, in combination, produce the full-flavored human fruit of New England soil. Mrs. Cooke herself possesses the gift which she ascribes to some of her characters, of seeing beauty in its humblest manifestations, and she also possesses a rarer gift—the power of unsealing the eyes of others to behold this beauty.

One approaches an autobiographical novel of the civil war with a certain degree of wariness. The unoffending reader is generally forced to "sup full with horrors," and is treated to ex-parte statements which fill his mind with painful impressions and leave a residuum of bitterness. A pleasant disappointment, however, is experienced on reading the 'Adventures of a Fair Rebel.' The plot has often done service in stories of the civil war, but it still recommends itself, for its construction follows the lines of nature. A Southern girl, Rachael Douglass, meets her destiny in the shape of a young Federal officer, Captain Lambert, who saves her and her companions from the hands of freebooters while travelling through the mountains of North Carolina to Georgia. Desperate complications arise, not only from the fact that Rachel herself is an ardent rebel, but because the family of Captain Lambert, who received his mental and moral training at the North, among his father's relatives, are living in Georgia, and are heart and soul with the Confederacy. These complications are gradually untangled by the force of circumstances. In fact, towards the last, there is a weakening in the working out of the plot so that almost too much is left to circumstances. But the style is simple and straightforward, with fine touches here and there. The two old negroes, "Uncle Ned" and "Aunt Milly," are very lifelike, having none of the exaggerations which often make such portraiture mere caricature. The showing forth of the best aspects on both sides of the dreadful struggle is skilfully done, avoiding false sentiment, and maintaining an almost judicial tone, which does not, however, lessen the interest of the story as a story.

Those who have enjoyed 'La Neuvaine de Colette' will be eager to read another story by the same author. 'Straight On' lacks the *verve* which makes 'Colette' so irresistible, but the stories are so widely different in character that comparison, except on general lines, would be difficult. In outward aspect, the present volume seems especially designed for the young, but it is in fact, as its title-page suggests, intended for young and old. And a tale of courage and faithfulness under perhaps the most difficult of all conditions—cruel and unmerited suspicion—is good for all; possibly of even more service to the old than the young, for the natural buoyancy of youth floats many a burden which would weigh heavily upon maturer years. 'Straight On' is the motto given with intense earnestness by a dying father to his only son. Close daily companionship with his father for a dozen years had already prepared in the mind of the boy a substantial foundation for the exercise of heroic virtues, and amid most painful circumstances "straight on" he followed the fair ideal—that ideal of which the author says: "No friend is more faithful than an ideal that you strive to attain, no lever more powerful to raise all the soul's strength." It is good, too, to be reminded that, in thus striving after the ideal, qualities quite out of the sphere of the namby-pamby are called for. Philip Bailleul was a good fighter, on occasion, as some of his schoolfellows found to their cost. But while he gained the ready respect always accorded to a valiant use of the fists, he was obliged to wait long for a recognition of less tangible but none the less potent virtues. However, though Justice tarried long, she came with mighty strides at last, and not only rewarded the true, but brought the false to repentance, which is better. The numerous illustrations, by Édouard Zier, are full of spirit and add to the interest of the story.

Studies in the Wagnerian Drama. By H. E. Krehbiel. Harper & Bros. Pp. 198.

DURING the last two seasons of German opera at the Metropolitan Opera-house, Mr. Krehbiel delivered a series of lectures on the Wagner music dramas, with illustrations on the piano played by Mr. Seidl and Mr. Huss. These lectures have now been collected in book form, with numerous illustrations in musical type to take the place of the elucidations at the pianoforte. Although we have no German opera this winter, the publication of these lectures is not for that reason untimely; for many will find pleasant memories of past operatic enjoyments awakened by a perusal of them, and, as for timeliness, everything relating to Wagner, provided it be good, will be timely and welcome for many generations to come. The Wagner avalanche is still growing (there were 963 Wagner performances in Germany and Austria during the last operatic season, as against 893

during the preceding season), and the later and best of the music dramas have only just entered on their irresistible movement, to which only this objection can be made, that it threatens to crush everything else in the operatic world.

It is to facilitate the understanding of these later music dramas that Mr. Krehbiel's 'Studies' were written. With the earlier operas they deal but incidentally, the five chapters being taken up by essays on "Tristan and Isolde," "The Meistersinger," "The Niblung's Ring," and "Parsifal," with an introductory paper on "The Wagnerian Drama: Its Prototypes and Elements." In this it is shown clearly and forcibly that Wagner was not an iconoclast, without any affiliations with preceding composers, but simply a regenerator of the music drama, who gathered together what was most truthful and valuable in the practices of his predecessors, from the days of the Greek tragedians to the present, and, with some important additions of his own, welded them into the most perfect form of musico-dramatic art ever known. In view of the prevalent misconceptions on the subject of Wagner's vocal style, special attention should be directed to pages 11-13, where it is concisely shown how the *old* Italian masters of vocal art followed principles and made statements "which Gluck and Wagner only echoed when they came to urge their reforms."

Mr. Krehbiel takes it for granted that his readers are familiar with the plots of Wagner's dramas; this leaves him time for tracing some of the more subtle threads of the plots and explaining their ethical significance. There are also many digressive comparisons of Wagner's treatment of his legends with their versions at the hands of other poets, mediæval and modern. But the most valuable feature of these 'Studies' consists in the frequent illustrations showing how subtly the poem and the music are interwoven in Wagner's dramas, and how the typical motives undergo psychologic changes as the plot unfolds. The wonderful success of Wagner may be traced to the fact that his scores appeal alike to those who seek only for sensuous beauty in music, and those who also crave active intellectual stimulus in listening to it. A perusal of the present work will, no doubt, have the desired effect of converting devotees of the first class to enthusiasts of the second.

It is not usual to make an index to a collection of lectures or essays, but in the present case an index would have been an advantage, were it only to locate the incidental descriptions of particular scenes, some of which are very felicitous (the opening scene of "Rheingold," the "Waldweben" in "Siegfried," the Siegfried Funeral March, the stormy introduction to the "Walküre," etc.). The definitions are usually all that could be desired, and we do not remember to have ever come across so clear and concise an elucidation of the "alliteration question" as this:

"Wagner held that, as a poetical form of expression, rhyme is useless in music, because it not only implies identity of vowel sounds, but also of the succeeding consonants, which are lost by the singer's need of dwelling on the vowels. The initial consonant, however, cannot be lost in song, because it is that which stamps its physiognomy on the word; and, repetition creating a sort of musical cadence which is agreeable to the ear, Wagner desired alliteration to be substituted for rhyme in the chief parts of his verse."

Henrik Ibsen, 1828–1888. Et Literært Livsbillede af Henrik Jæger. Copenhagen. 1888. Pp. 296. 8vo.—The same, translated into German by Heinrich Zschalig. Dresden and Leipzig. 1890. Pp. 240. 12mo.—The same, translated from the Norwegian into English by William Morton Payne. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1890. Pp. 275. 12mo.—The same, translated by Clara Bell, with the verse done into English from the Norwegian Original by Edmund Gosse. London: W. Heinemann. 1890. Pp. 252. 12mo.

Mr. Henrik Bernhard Jæger has taken high rank in Scandinavia as a critic and man of letters, and his biography of Ibsen—published on the latter's sixtieth birthday—has become the recognized authoritative life of the poet, and is likely to remain (together with Halvorsen's Bibliography) the chief source of reliable information concerning the personal and literary history of Norway's great dramatist. The work was written with Ibsen's sanction and partial collaboration, and one of the most interesting chapters in it is his account of his own boyhood. The German translation of Mr. Jæger's book was issued with his permission, and he has added an otherwise unprinted critical notice of "The Lady from the Sea," which work was not published when the original Life appeared. The translation seems to be a faithful but not always happy rendering of the original text.

Between the two English translations, which were published almost simultaneously, there is little choice. Both are sincere attempts at a faithful reproduction of the original, but Mr. Payne is too literal at times, forgetting that the best way to represent a foreign idiom to an English reader is not to give a word-for-word translation of it, but to employ an English equivalent. It was a mistake, also, to omit the bibliographical references contained in the original work, and there seems no good reason for the omission of some other matter, such, for example, as the dedication to the wife of Ibsen; while for the sake of completeness, Mr. Payne might have included, from the German translation, Mr. Jæger's chapter on Ibsen's last work, "The Lady from the Sea." In the English book (which is better edited) this chapter is replaced by one contributed by Mr. Edmund Gosse, containing an original notice of the drama, which was first published in the second edition of his 'Northern Studies.' Mr. Gosse has also undertaken to render into English the numerous quotations from Ibsen's verse. In this delicate task of reproducing Ibsen's poetry, neither the English nor the American translator has been entirely felicitous, but Mr. Payne has been rather more successful, on the whole, than Mr. Gosse, while being at the same time more true to the thought and form of the original. Both translations contain some slight errors which might have been avoided, one of which we will correct here. It is several years since Ibsen's son, Dr. Sigurd Ibsen, was an attaché of the Swedish-Norwegian legation at Washington.

Dawn of Art in the Ancient World: An Archæological Sketch, by William Martin Conway, sometime Roscoe Professor of Art in University College, Liverpool. London: Percival & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1891.

This is an interesting and most serviceable little book, written in an entertaining manner, and evidently as the result of much thought as well as reading. The substance of it was made up from a brief course of popular lectures, in which it was the author's aim to take his audience from the starting-point of most histories of art, and carry them back as far as might be possible into the vast night of what we speak of vaguely as the prehistoric epoch, touching even upon the palæolithic age. The book is obviously not intended for those who desire special information on such subjects as the Lake Dwellers and the Reindeer Age; but for those interested in the philosophical side of art, who like to trace its evolution, and who wish to form at least some slight conception of the steps by which man arrived at the point where he began to construct permanent monuments, this will prove a welcome and suggestive little manual.

Naturally a subject of this kind is involved in theory. Much, if not most, of what we have gained in it thus far is the result of deductions which, however logically and cautiously made, are often of necessity based upon mere atoms of data, so that we cannot be too sure of what we have got; and there is no quality in Mr. Conway's book which we find so commendable as his moderation, and the conscientiousness with which he repeatedly warns his readers that, although the theories he is explaining are based upon good grounds, they are still but theories. This is a prime requisite in a popular expositor, and its presence gives the layman confidence at once.

With some of his conclusions, however, we do not find it possible to agree. This is notably the case with what Mr. Conway says of the part Egypt played in the development of ancient art. We think he greatly underrates her share. "Egypt," he says, "contributed so little and Chaldæa so much to the art traditions of the world"; and "architecture was *par excellence* the Egyptian art which influenced the Greeks." Neither of these statements seems to us borne out by the facts. Indeed, we are constantly surprised at finding him exactly reversing the relative importance usually assigned to Egypt and Chaldæa. In what did Chaldæa influence the rest of the world—or, we might better say, the later world—except in textile arts? Certainly not in her sculpture, of which we possess less than a dozen specimens, and these, though individual in character, are decidedly primitive. Even the Assyrian works show no derivation from them. Certainly not in her architecture, which was the outgrowth of a country devoid of building-stone. Her luxury was proverbial, and the gorgeousness of her stuffs was praised through the whole course of classical literature, but we do not find the Greeks acknowledging their indebtedness to her in any other form of art. Egypt, on the other hand, gave the impress of her individuality to the arts of the Ægean as far back as we can trace them. For all that we yet know to the contrary, it was she who invented the art of conventionalizing natural forms, and what has this meant in the history of decoration? Take one single example, the lotus, and note how that motive has been taken up, and adapted with every possible variation not only to architecture, but to pottery, jewelry, textiles, and in fact every form to which decoration could be applied, even down to our time. In sculpture, too, we believe that she played a very important part in the early development of Greek art—Greek tradition acknowledged it; Daedalos, the mythical father of Greek sculpture, was said to have been in Egypt, and the early "Apollo" statues, always with the left foot advanced, certainly bear more than a coincidental resemblance to Egyptian works. As to architecture, we will even go so far as to say that this was the art in which the Egyptians influenced the Greeks least of all. The statement that "but for the

architecture of Egypt the Parthenon could not have existed," will find but few supporters since Dörpfeld published his masterly little essay, proving almost mathematically, as it seems to us, that Doric architecture was of a purely indigenous origin and development, and that it was evolved naturally, and with surprisingly little foreign influence at any period, from the primitive Greek house of clay and wood.

However, Mr. Conway's statement of his views is always interesting and well put, and no one concerned with the evolution of art can fail to profit by its perusal.

The Life of Father Hecker. By Rev. Walter Elliot. New York: The Columbus Press. 1891.

THIS biography is written with such immense diffuseness that the author seems as one already in eternity and not in time. It would be worth while for many Protestants to look at it who take too much for granted that the Roman Catholic Church is this or that. It would enable them to see that she has not yet lost the faculty which Macaulay praised so warmly, when reviewing Ranke's 'History of the Popes'—the faculty for adapting herself to new and trying situations. A less rhetorical exhibition of democratic Romanism may be found in Bishop Kane's article, "The Catholic Church and Economics," in the October number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*—a programme as lofty and ideal as Mr. Henry Drummond's recent 'Programme of Christianity.' The Americanism of Father Hecker's biographer is exceedingly obstreperous. It seems that Father Hecker's "favorite topic in book or lecture was that the Constitution of the United States requires as its natural basis the truths of Catholic teaching regarding man's natural state, as opposed to the errors of Luther and Calvin." Certainly a system of universal suffrage does not seem to agree with a low idea of human nature. Mr. Elliot frequently returns to this, but there are some ugly facts for him in the historical associations of Calvinism with political freedom. May not the Roman Catholic's doctrine of passive obedience have more practical weight in politics than his doctrine of human nature? Father Hecker did not stop half way when he went over from transcendentalism to Romanism. The right of private judgment was as intolerable to him as to Newman, and the declaration of infallibility much more palatable to him than to the English Father. But some of Mr. Elliot's concessions to the *Zeit-Geist* are interesting and refreshing.

The most entertaining part of the biography is that relating to Brook Farm and Fruitlands, in both of which young Hecker made a trial. Mr. George William Curtis furnishes interesting reminiscences of him as he then appeared. There is a glimpse of him at the dough-trough with Kant's 'Critique of the Pure Reason' stuck up in front of him. In general his letters and journal are too subjective to be pleasant reading, and the passage from them to the reminiscences of his old age is often violent. Evidently the medium of his experience had a distorting influence, and belittled or deformed his old companions. This is particularly true of Emerson, who has never been treated so maliciously before, even if the description of "a transcendentalist" on page 155 is not meant precisely for him. Of Alcott he is more tolerant: "Whatever principles Emerson had, Alcott gave him." . . . "He [Alcott] had an insinuating and persuasive way with him. He must have been an ideal peddler." George Ripley is set down as "a complete failure," who, but for his cowardice, would have joined the Roman Church. It was clearly the right church for one who took so little root in himself as Father Hecker. He found in it an almost boisterous happiness.

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